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THE EFFECTS OF CHARISMATIC COMMUNICATION TRAINING
ON LEADER COMMUNICATION EFFECTIVENESS

by

Paul Fabbi

Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty of

Olivet Nazarene University

School of Graduate and Continuing Studies

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for

the Degree of

Doctor of Education

in

Ethical Leadership


May 2013

THE EFFECTS OF CHARISMATIC COMMUNICATION TRAINING
ON LEADER COMMUNICATION EFFECTIVENESS

by

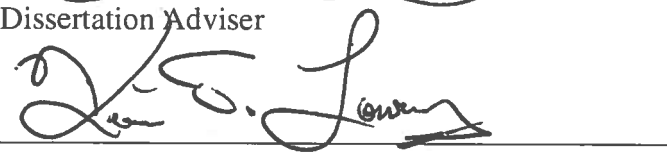
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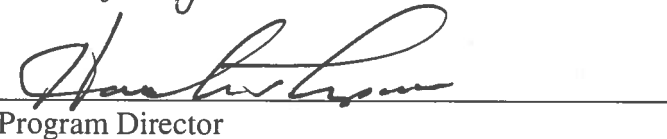


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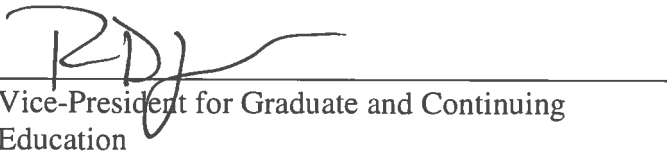
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DEDICATION

To the members of Cohort IV, without whose friendship, camaraderie, support, and sense of humor, this work would not have been possible or as fun.

In solidarity my friends.

Stephen W. Ball	Craig A. Bishop	Funmi Apantaku-Onayemi
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ABSTRACT

This study investigated whether a two-hour leadership course in charismatic communication would result in improved leader communication effectiveness. Ninety two organizational leaders participated in the study, as well as 955 of their followers. Leader participants were divided into experimental and control conditions and a pretest-posttest research design was used to evaluate the effects of training on leader charismatic communication self-efficacy and charismatic communication behaviors. Follower perception of leader communication effectiveness was evaluated using a simple time series design. Results indicated those in the training condition had significantly greater charismatic communication self-efficacy and behavioral ability than those in the non-training condition. Follower rating of leader communication effectiveness, however, did not show significant change following leader charismatic communication training. This study has implications for charismatic communication research, leader communication effectiveness, and the development of charismatic communication curriculum in organizations. Background, methodology, limitations, results, and implications for future research are discussed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem.....	5
Background.....	8
Research Questions.....	12
Description of Terms	14
Significance of the Study	16
Process to Accomplish.....	17
Summary	29
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	31
Introduction.....	31
Stage One: Concept Introduction/Elaboration	42
Stage Two: Concept Evaluation/Augmentation.....	57
Stage Three: Concept Consolidation/Accommodation.....	64
Charismatic Communication	65
Summary and Conclusion.....	80
III. METHODOLOGY	82
Introduction.....	82
Research Design.....	84

Chapter	Page
Population	90
Data Collection	91
Analytical Methods.....	95
Limitations	101
Summary	103
IV. FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS	105
Introduction.....	105
Findings.....	110
Conclusions.....	121
Implications and Recommendations	124
REFERENCES	132
APPENDIXES	
A. 6-Item Charismatic Communication Self-Efficacy Scale.....	146
B. 15-Item Charismatic Leadership Communication Scale	148
C. Charismatic Communication Demographic Questionnaire	150
D. Charismatic Communication Training Curriculum	152

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.	Study Design – Process Steps	21
2.	Summary of Charisma and Charismatic Literature by Reichers and Schneider Stage.....	36
3.	Summary of the Development of the concept of charismatic communication utilizing the stages of the Reichers and Schneider Framework	67
4.	Summary of Charismatic Communication Attributes by Author	77
5.	Participant Demographic Information for Part A of Study	97
6.	Pretest and Posttest Means and Standard Deviations for the CCSS Scores	110
7.	Mixed Model Factorial ANOVA Tests of Within-Subjects Effects for Charismatic Communication Self-efficacy	111
8.	Mixed Model Factorial ANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Charismatic Communication Self-efficacy	112
9.	Pretest and Posttest Means and Standard Deviations for the CLCS Scores	114
10.	Mixed Model Factorial ANOVA Tests of Within-Subjects Effects for Charismatic Communication Behavior	115
11.	Mixed Model Factorial ANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Charismatic Communication Behaviors	115
12.	One-way, repeated measures, within-subjects ANOVA Tests of Within-Subjects Effects for Follower Perception of Leader Communication Effectiveness	118
13.	One-way, repeated measures, within-subjects ANOVA, Pairwise Comparisons by Year for Follower Perception of Leader Communication Effectiveness	118

Table	Page
14. Repeated Measures t test for Dependent Samples for Follower Perception of Leader Communication Effectiveness	119

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Graphic depiction of research methodology utilized for Part A of the study	19
2. Graphic depiction of Interrupted Time-Series Design.....	25
3. Journal Articles with Subject of Charisma or Charismatic by Year	58
4. Interaction Plot of 2 x 2 mixed factorial ANOVA for CCSS	112
5. Interaction Plot of 2 x 2 mixed factorial ANOVA for CLCS.....	116
6. Time series graph of EOS scores	120
7. A multi-factorial framework describing the expression of charisma.....	128
8. A conceptual framework describing the influence of charismatic communication training on the perception of charisma	130

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

“I just want to do God's will. And He's allowed me to go up to the mountain. And I've looked over, and I've seen the Promised Land” (King, 1968, para. 50).

With these historic words, spoken on April 3, 1968, at the Church of God in Christ Headquarters in Memphis, Tennessee, Martin Luther King Jr. shared his vision of racial equality in America. Although spoken more than 40 years ago, King's voice still echoes in our collective consciousness. The term *charismatic* is often applied to such great leaders like Martin Luther King Jr., Mother Theresa, Gandhi, and others who, through the allure of their personal magnetism and inspiring vision, displayed a powerful ability to motivate others. Ability so powerful and compelling as to be considered mystical in nature.

But is it possible to identify, define, and operationalize these abilities that make charismatic leaders such influential and effective figures? In short, can charisma be taught and learned? If so, would not such knowledge help organizations develop more effective leaders? Questions such as these provided the inspiration for this study.

In conducting this investigation, the researcher brought together three distinct but interrelated factors. First, the importance of effective leadership communication to organizational outcomes; second, the emerging concept of charismatic leadership and one of its key elements, charismatic communication; and third, an identified opportunity to

improve leader communication at a Midwestern United States healthcare organization. These three factors are outlined below.

Communication is central to the role of leadership in organizations and a critical leadership skill for effective job performance, contributing directly to improved organizational performance (Klauss & Bass, 1982). Effective communication is a quality of skilled leadership behavior which aids the organization in achieving any number of valued organizational outcomes, for instance profit, high return on investment, customer satisfaction, efficiency, and productivity (Barge, 1994). As Barge succinctly put it, “leadership is enacted through communication” (p. 21).

The National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) further supported the importance of effective leadership communication. As part of its mission to promote innovation and industrial competitiveness, and as part of its Baldrige Performance Excellence Program, NIST identified the central role leader communication plays in the creation of successful and sustainable organizations and, through communication, how leaders are role models building commitment and initiative throughout their organizations (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2011-2012).

Given the importance of leadership communication in organizations, intuitively, improving leadership communication effectiveness may be helpful in improving the workplace. Since the 1970s, many researchers and theorists have advanced the positive effects of charismatic leadership (Bass, 1990; Flynn & Staw, 2004; House, 1977; Nandal & Krishnan, 2000). Moreover, the concept of charismatic leadership has demonstrated long staying power and has received wide attention in leadership research for decades (Levine, Muenchen, & Brooks, 2010). For example, in 1999, the Leadership Quarterly, a

scholarly journal of current leadership research and applications, dedicated a two-part special issue to the emerging topic of charismatic and transformational leadership (Conger & Hunt, 1999).

One component of charismatic leadership, charismatic communication, has been shown to have positive effects on leadership effectiveness, employee performance and organizational outcomes (Frese, Beimeel, & Schoenborn, 2003; Howell & Frost, 1989; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Towler, 2003). Charismatic communication increases the emotional appeal of a leader's message, thereby gaining follower commitment to the leader's vision (Towler, 2001). Charismatic communication is distinguished from conventional public speaking ability by the use of enhanced verbal and non-verbal techniques to engage followers. While programs aimed at improving public speaking ability typically focus on clarity of communication, content structure, the incorporation of rhetorical questions, using simple sentences, clarity of pronunciation, relaxed posture, artificial pauses, eye contact, body gestures, facial expressions, and animated voice tone (Frese et al., 2003; Towler, 2003), charismatic communication builds upon this foundation of conventional public speaking skills through the use of rhetorical devices such as metaphors and analogies, autobiography, vivid language, animated tone, and storytelling (Towler, 2001). Non-verbal techniques used in charismatic communication include expressive behaviors such as open gesturing and animated facial expressions (Towler, 2001). Similarly, Conger and Kanungo (1988) and Towler (2001) maintained that training in public speaking provides a foundation of verbal and nonverbal communication delivery skills, whereas charismatic communication training augments this foundation by emphasizing inspirational rhetoric and visionary content.

As Bass (1988) and Dumas and Sankowsky (1998) observed, charismatic leaders exude a powerful ability to persuade and influence followers, however such influence can be used for good as well as ill. Researchers including Conger (1989), Galvin, Waldman, and Balthazard (2010), Howell (1988), Kets de Vries (1988), and others have acknowledged the dark side or unethical use of charismatic communication. Clarifying further, Howell identified two types of charisma, socialized, and personalized. Howell associated socialized charisma with altruistic motives, whereas personalized charisma was associated with self-serving motives. Although recognizing the potential for harm that exists from the unscrupulous use of charismatic communication, the researcher, for purposes of this study, focused only on its ethical use.

Organizational Setting

Senior leaders at Elizabeth Reed Memorial Healthcare (ERMH - a pseudonym for an actual healthcare organization), a medium-size healthcare system located near a large metropolitan area in the Midwestern United States, identified leadership communication as a process that would benefit from scholarly examination and intervention. It was the practice of senior leaders at ERMH to conduct an annual Employee Opinion Survey (EOS) in order to obtain valuable feedback, identify organizational needs, and uncover opportunities for improvement. Results of the EOS, specifically employee rating of leader communication effectiveness, provided important empirical evidence supporting the opportunity to improve leader communication effectiveness at ERMH (Morehead Associates, 2011). Recognizing the potential benefit to organizational performance, the ERMH Internal Review Board reviewed and approved this study to be carried out within their organization.

ERMH was comprised of approximately 20 business units and a centralized corporate office. Each geographically distinct business unit provided a continuum of healthcare services for communities in the rural and suburban Midwestern United States. Although these business units were geographically distinct, all were located within a few hundred miles of the centralized corporate office. ERMH corporate offices provided centralized support for the functions of Finance, Human Resources/Organizational Development, Clinical Operations, Strategic Services, Decision Support, and Information Services. The business units and corporate offices of ERMH were organizationally similar, each having an organizational hierarchy consisting of a senior level administrator or director position, managers, supervisions, coordinators, and staff level positions. In addition, the corporate office included President and Vice President level positions. ERMH business units and corporate offices were, for the most part, homogeneous in nature, with employees and leaders of similar cultural, age, race, and socio-economic status.

Statement of the Problem

The problem addressed in this research study had both practical and academic components. As described earlier, senior leaders at ERMH held observational and empiric evidence suggesting the need to improve leadership communication within their organization. Recent studies have shown that charismatic communication training may be an effective method to improve leadership communication in organizations (Howell & Frost, 1988; Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Holladay & Coombs, 1993, 1994; Towler, 2003), what was not known from an academic perspective however, was the effect of

charismatic communication training in commercial settings such as healthcare. These real world and academic perspectives of this problem are discussed next.

Effective communication is an essential skill for leaders and managers and a critical factor influencing organizational performance and employee attitudes (Klauss & Bass, 1982). Building on this knowledge, recent studies have investigated if charismatic communication training may be an effective method to improve leadership communication in organizations. For example, Howell and Frost (1989) and Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) found that leaders who demonstrated charismatic communication style were more effective in communicating vision. Yet, studies centered on charismatic communication have been, largely, conducted in educational and laboratory settings using actors and students as surrogates for leaders and followers. Whether these effects could be replicated in real-life organizations, under ordinary training conditions, was not known and as a result, researchers such as Levine et al. (2010), Towler (2003), have called for further empirical research into the effects of charismatic communication training.

A healthcare setting was selected for this study because of the researcher's knowledge and familiarity with the conditions common to this domain, resulting in greater potential to add solid data and analysis to the charismatic communication body of knowledge. Furthermore, the researcher found no empirical studies investigating the effects of charismatic communication training on leader effectiveness in healthcare organizations. Yet it was not the intention of the researcher to single out or differentiate between healthcare and other types of organizations. Rather, the researcher's experience, expertise, and access to research participants were limited to the healthcare field. It was

researcher's belief, intuitively, that leadership communication within healthcare organizations does not differ altogether from that found in other types of organizations. Therefore, although this study was conducted within the confines of a healthcare organization, it's generalizability to other organizations seems altogether proper and fitting.

Commercial settings, such as healthcare, differ considerably from the educational and laboratory settings commonly used for charismatic communication research. Frese et al. (2003) argued that commercial settings are often not prepared to indulge in complicated training evaluations because such evaluations are seen as disruptive and expensive. Moreover, Robson (2002) described the challenges inherent in conducting research in the commercial or 'real world' settings, asserting that these situations are "complex, relatively poorly controlled, and generally messy" (p. 4). Yet, intuitively, these real-life commercial settings may stand to benefit most from improved leadership communication effectiveness.

This dissertation, then, was a comprehensive applied research study, testing the impact of charismatic communication training on leadership communication effectiveness, by bringing together the emerging body of knowledge of charismatic communication together with an identified need to improve a key driver of organizational performance within a healthcare organization. In addition, the results of this study may provide important evidence for improving leadership communication in other organizations as well as contributing to the body of knowledge in the field of charismatic communication.

Background

The term charisma has been in existence for millennia, although in recent years charismatic leadership and one of its components, charismatic communication, has emerged as an important research topic in the business sector, but much work remains (Conger & Hunt, 1999, Frese et al., 2003; Levine et al., 2010; Towler, 2003). This section provides background information on charismatic communication including an historical perspective of the topic and key findings from the review of literature.

From the original Greek word *χάρισμα* meaning "endowed with the gift of divine grace" (Bass, 1999, p. 541), the concept of charisma has undergone a number of evolutions over time. In its early biblical usage, charisma was the realm of prophets and kings. In modern times, the concept of charisma transformed from its theological roots into the domain of political and sociological leadership (Bass) when, in the early 1900's, Max Weber (1864-1920), a German Sociologist describing the Prussian aristocracy of his time, brought new meaning to the term charisma, using it to describe the character and power structure of social and political leaders (Weber, 1947). Weber rejected charisma's spiritual connection for a more secular view, believing that charisma was not dependant on the possession of special spiritual gifts (Jermier, 1993), thus opening the door to further scholarly investigation and application.

In the 1970's and 1980's, following Weber's re-characterization of the concept, charisma underwent a further transition. House (1977) effectively transformed the concept of charisma once again, this time from that of a political and social leadership phenomenon to that of business and organizational leadership (Hunt, 1999). Prior to the publication of House's theory, there was little in the management literature related to

charisma (Hunt). It was during this time the concept of charismatic leadership emerged and became seen as a positive force to mobilize organizations (Towler, 2001).

Summarizing the scholarly research of the time, Hunt (1999) utilized the Reichers and Schneider (1990) framework to classify the current research into charisma and suggested what possible future lay ahead. Reichers and Schneider maintained that scientific constructs evolve in a logical and predictable pattern and identified three stages in the evolution of constructs: 1. concept introduction/elaboration; 2. concept evaluation/augmentation; and 3. concept consolidation/accommodation. Hunt traced the development of charismatic leadership through the concept introduction/elaboration of Stage One, through the concept evaluation/augmentation of Stage Two of Reichers and Schneider framework. According to Hunt's own assessment at the time, the field of charismatic leadership resided in Stage Two of the Reichers and Schneider framework, indicating the need for additional research before the concepts of charismatic leadership and communication can be generally accepted and the consequences well known (Hunt).

The researcher's review of the literature since Hunt's (1999) analysis suggested that the concepts of charismatic leadership and charismatic communication had not advanced beyond Stage Two of the Reichers and Schneider (1990) framework. This may have been partially due to the nature of charismatic leadership. Conger and Kanungo (1988) argued that the concept of charisma, historically, has been vague and not clearly defined, and suggested that this has led to its neglect as a topic in leadership, although in recent years research efforts have been directed toward operationalizing the concept of charisma and understanding its cause and effects. For purposes of this study, charisma

was defined as a compelling attractiveness or charm that can inspire devotion in others (Oxford English Dictionary, 2010).

Scholarly research into charismatic leadership spans the last four decades, and one of its components, the phenomenon of charismatic communication, appeared only recently in the research literature and empiric examination into charismatic communication has only recently begun. Howell and Frost (1989) studying charismatic leadership in controlled laboratory conditions concluded that “charisma is not as elusive as some scholars have thought it to be” (p. 265). Howell and Frost concluded that individuals could indeed be trained to exhibit charismatic behavior, cautioning however that charismatic leadership is a complex and multifaceted concept. Howell and Frost, and Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996), investigating if charismatic communication training may be an effective method to improve leadership communication in organizations, found that leaders who demonstrated charismatic communication styles were more effective in communicating vision.

Elsewhere, Towler (2003) demonstrated the effectiveness of charismatic communication training in a group of undergraduate students. Towler found that the subjects who received charismatic communication training performed better than those who received no training, suggesting that these are acquirable skills. Additionally, Towler found that participants who viewed videotaped speeches made by those trained in charismatic communication techniques, had improved performance and attitudes, further supporting the effectiveness of charismatic communication training.

In one of the few studies conducted in other than an educational or laboratory environment, Frese et al. (2003) examined the effects of charismatic communication

training for managers in a commercial setting. Managers participating in the study received either charismatic communication training or public speaking training, followed by a rating and analysis of their speaking skills. The researchers noted greater positive effects in those managers receiving the charismatic communication training, thus demonstrating that such training was indeed successful in promoting charismatic leadership (Frese et al.). Whereas the training course conducted by Frese et al. extended over 1½ days and focused on the communication of vision, the current study focused on achieving similar results utilizing a shorter two-hour training session more commonly found in health care organizations and focused on the effects of training on leader self efficacy and behaviors.

Although scholarly research has supported the positive effects of charismatic communication, evidence supporting the effectiveness of charismatic communication training remains incomplete. Researchers, such as Levine (2008) and Towler (2003), have called for further empirical research in the area of charismatic communication. Further, the effects of charismatic communication training on leader communication in a commercial setting such as a healthcare organization have not been established.

Given the importance of leader communication in achieving organizational outcomes, and growing evidence that charismatic communication can have a positive effect on leader communication effectiveness, one question remained unanswered in the research literature—could charismatic communication training improve leader communication effectiveness in a commercial setting such as a healthcare organization?

In summary, the potential for charismatic communication to produce positive organizational effects has been established in laboratory studies, however, if these effects

are to realized on a large scale, if managers and leaders are to build these skills into their strategies to give rise to more effective organizations, then it is time for these concepts to be tested in real-world organizations, under ordinary training conditions, and their effect on leader communication effectiveness quantified.

Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions accompanied by their associated research and null hypotheses:

1. What is the impact of charismatic communication training on leader charismatic communication self-efficacy?

H₁1: Participants in the training condition will score higher on charismatic self-efficacy than the non-training condition.

$$H_{11}: \bar{x}_{training} \neq \bar{x}_{non-training}$$

H₀1: There will be no difference in charismatic communication self-efficacy between participants in the training condition and those in the non-training condition.

$$H_{01}: \mu_{training} = \mu_{non-training}$$

2. What is the impact of charismatic communication training on leader ability to demonstrate charismatic communication behaviors?

H₁2: Participants in the training condition will score higher on charismatic communication ability than the non-training condition.

$$H_{12}: \bar{x}_{training} \neq \bar{x}_{non-training}$$

H₀2: There will be no difference in leader charismatic communication ability scores between participants in the training condition and those in the non-training condition.

$$H_02: \mu_{training} = \mu_{non-training}$$

3. What is the impact of charismatic communication training on follower perception of leader communication effectiveness?

H₁3: Follower perception of leader communication effectiveness will be higher for the post-training evaluation period than in the pre-training evaluation period.

$$H_13: \bar{x}_{post-training} \neq \bar{x}_{pre-training}$$

H₀3: There will be no difference in follower perception of leader communication effectiveness between the post-training evaluation period and the pre-training evaluation period.

$$H_03: \mu_{post-training} = \mu_{pre-training}$$

Research Question 1 examined how charismatic communication training influenced the belief in one's ability to communicate effectively. Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as the belief in one's ability to organize and execute the necessary action to produce the desired goals. Conger (1989) maintained self-efficacy to be important to leaders because it determined the extent to which individuals "initiate and persist in attempts to master difficult experiences" (p. 108). Moreover, Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993) found that leaders motivate their followers through the use of self-efficacy.

Other researchers, such as Shea and Howell (1999) and Towler (2003), also utilized self-efficacy measures. Shea and Howell tested a self-efficacy model finding that

charismatic leaders positively impacted employee performance, whereas Towler measured self-efficacy using a 6-item scale measuring trainee confidence in their ability to be charismatic.

Research Question 2 assessed leader perception of their ability to demonstrate communication behaviors associated with charisma. Levine et al. (2010) introduced the 15-item Charismatic Leadership Communication Scale (CLCS) in order to fill a gap in the charismatic leadership research literature. Levine et al. maintained that previous scales measuring charismatic behaviors were incomplete, omitting those behaviors associated with charismatic communication. The CLCS measured both verbal and nonverbal leader behaviors associated with charismatic communication (Levine et al.).

Research Question 3 examined follower's perception of leader ability to communicate effectively. Appreciating the importance of effective leadership communication, leaders at ERMH have long relied on the results of their annual Employee Opinion Survey (EOS) to measure leader communication effectiveness and to identify areas of strength as well as opportunities for improvement. As a result, the researcher selected the EOS instrument measuring leader communication effectiveness as an important assessment tool for this study.

Description of Terms

The following key terms, italicized and appearing in alphabetical order, were defined according to the operational context in which the terms were used throughout this dissertation.

Charisma. Compelling attractiveness or charm that can inspire devotion in others (New Oxford American Dictionary, 1989). That magical quality that inspires people to follow you (Iacocca, 2007).

Charismatic communication. A style of communication that appeals to follower emotions, incorporating both content and stylistic components including rhetoric devices such as the use of autobiography, metaphors, analogies, and other verbal and non-verbal behavior to raise follower expectations. (Frese et al., 2003; Towler, 2003).

Charismatic leadership (leader). “Individuals who provide for their followers a vision of the future that promises a better and more meaningful way of life” (Conger & Kanungo, 1988, p. 100). A term used to describe a subset of leaders who "by the force of their personal abilities are capable of having profound and extraordinary effects on followers" (House & Baetz, 1979, p. 399).

Communication. Messages and sentiments transmitted from one person to another with the expectation that such interaction will elicit some response from the receiver(s). (Klauss & Bass, 1982, p. 6).

Effective. In terms of leadership and from an organizational perspective, effectiveness is a quality of skilled leadership behavior which aids the organization in “achieving any number of valued organizational outcomes, such as profit, high return on investment, customer satisfaction, efficiency, and productivity” (Barge, 1994, p. 22).

Followers. “Those toward whom leadership is directed.” (Northouse, 2010, p. 3).

Leader. An individual who has direct supervisory or organizational responsibility over other organizational members, and is influential in moving organizational members from an existing present state toward some future state (Conger & Kanungo, 1988, p. 80).

Leadership. “A process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (Northouse, 2010, p. 4).

Self-efficacy. “The belief that one has the power to bring about certain results” (Conger, 1989, p. 108). The belief in one’s ability to carry out a series of behaviors in a particular situation (Bandura, 1997).

Significance of the Study

This study was important for both its business and academic contributions. First, by examining the effects of charismatic communication training on leader communication effectiveness at ERMH, this study systematically addressed an identified workplace need and, by extension, may be useful in similar organizational settings. Furthermore, evidence provided by this study may provide practical knowledge to aid organizations such as ERMH in achieving valued organizational outcomes, such as profit, high return on investment, customer satisfaction, efficiency, and productivity.

From an academic perspective, the results of this study contributed to the charismatic communication body of knowledge in a number of ways. First, this study responded to researchers and experts who called for further research into charismatic communication (Frese et al., 2003; Towler, 2003; and Levine et al., 2010). Levine et al. argued that until the theories of charismatic leadership and all its components such as charismatic communication are tested in real-world settings, scholars and practitioners are left with an incomplete understanding of these important theories of leadership. Secondly, the majority of charismatic communication studies were conducted in educational or laboratory settings using actors and students as surrogates for leaders and followers. What remained unknown was the effect of charismatic communication training

in commercial settings such as healthcare. Third, this study was the first practical application of the Charismatic Leadership Communication Scale (CLCS; K. J. Levine, personal communication, April 1, 2011), providing important information regarding the CLCS to subsequent researchers. And finally, this study identified and consolidated from several researchers those behaviors associated with charismatic communication, again providing important information for future researchers (A. J. Towler, personal communication, March 31, 2011).

Process to Accomplish

The purpose of this research was to explore the effects of charismatic communication training on leader communication effectiveness at ERMH. The resultant findings and conclusions may provide practical evidence to improve leadership and organizational performance at ERMH and perhaps be generalized to similar organizations. Consequently, this study took the form of a practical intervention to meet an identified need in the client organization in order to provide important evidence for improving the workplace and to contribute to our understanding of charismatic communication.

This research study took place during a three-month period from July through September, 2011 at ERMH, a medium-size healthcare system located near a large metropolitan area in the Midwestern United States. ERMH was comprised of approximately 20 geographically distinct business units and a centralized corporate office. Each business unit provided a continuum of healthcare services for communities in their market area and, although these business units were geographically distributed, all were located within a few hundred miles of the centralized corporate office. ERMH

corporate offices provided centralized support for the functions of finance, human resources, organizational development, clinical operations, strategic services, decision support, and information services. The business units and corporate offices of ERMH were organizationally similar, each having an organizational hierarchy consisting of a senior level administrator or director position, together with managers, supervisors, coordinators, and staff level positions. In addition, the corporate office included president and vice president level positions. ERMH business units and corporate offices were, largely, homogeneous in nature, with employees and leaders of similar cultural, age, race, and socio-economic status.

This study was carried out in two parts with Part A focused on identifying the effects of charismatic communication training on leader perceived self-efficacy (Research Question 1) and on leader perceived ability to demonstrate charismatic communication behavior (Research Question 2). Then, Part B focused on the impact of charismatic communication training on follower perception of leader communication effectiveness (Research Question 3).

The population for Part A of this study included all leaders at ERMH. With the assistance of senior leaders at ERMH, a leader was defined as an individual who had direct supervisory or organizational responsibility over other organizational staff. In all, ERMH employed 136 leaders and all were invited to participate in this study and of these 136 invitees, 92 leaders actually participated in the study. The researcher accepted a convenience sample because only those leaders who were available participated in the study. Of the $n = 92$ participants, 47 participated in the training condition and 45

participated in the non-training condition. The sample size of $n = 92$ provided an alpha of 0.05 with a confidence level of 90%.

Similar studies have used a comparable number of participants. For example, Towler (2003) examined the effects of trainer expressiveness and seductive details by studying 132 participants, and likewise, Howell and Frost (1989) examined the role of followers in charismatic leadership conditions by studying 144 participants.

For Part B of this study, the population included 1,926 ERMH employees, and included all 136 leaders identified in Part A of this study. The researcher obtained approval to access this archival database and accepted a convenience sample of the responses for all ERMH employees, $n = 955$, that chose to take part in the 2011 EOS and were employed in one of the business units participating in the study. Because data for Part B of the current study was taken from archival records and not obtained directly by the researcher, demographic information for the ERMH employee population was not available. The sample size of 955 provided an alpha of 0.03 with a confidence level of 99%.

For Part A of the study, the researcher utilized quantitative research methods in the form of a pretest-posttest nonrandomized control group quasi-experimental design as depicted in Figure 1.

Group	Time --->		
Experimental Group	Observation ₁	Treatment	Observation ₂
Control Group	Observation ₃		Observation ₄

Figure 1. Graphic depiction of research methodology utilized for Part A of the study. The experimental treatment consisted of a single, two-hour charismatic communication training course. Using quantitative research methods allowed the researcher to establish

whether a relationship existed between the independent variable, charismatic communication training, and the observed effects, or dependant variables: leader self-perception of efficacy, leader charismatic communication behaviors, and follower perceptions of leader communication effectiveness. These methods are described in greater detail below including how each research question was addressed.

The pretest-posttest nonrandomized control group design, a quasi-experimental design, was appropriate for this study because leaders at ERMH were arranged in intact groups according to business unit. Because these business units were geographically distributed, it was impractical to bring all ERMH leaders together in a single location for random assignment to control and experimental groups. It was more practical to assign all the leaders from intact business units to either a control or experimental group. Such a design is considered quasi-experimental because it lacks random assignment of participants into groups and, as a result, the argument establishing a relationship between variables was not as strong as in true experimental designs (Salkind, 2009). However, Frese et al., (2003) supported the use of quasi-experimental designs in commercial settings because these designs require a minimum of effort, expense, and interruption to the participating firm. Table 1 outlines the process steps followed to conduct Part A of the study.

Table 1

Study Design – Process Steps

Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5	Step 6	Step 7	Step 8
Intact business units assigned to Experimental Group	Obtain archival EOS data	Administer Demographic Questionnaire	Administer CCS and CLCS Pre-test	Administer treatment	Administer CCSS and CLCS Post-test	Debriefing	Obtain post-treatment archival EOS data
Intact business units assigned to Control Group	Obtain archival EOS data	Administer Demographic Questionnaire	Administer CCS and CLCS Pre-test	No treatment administered	Administer CCSS and CLCS Post-test	Debriefing and treatment	Obtain post-treatment archival EOS data

To evaluate the effects of charismatic communication training required an effective means to measure training outcomes. A commonly used model for evaluating the effectiveness of training is the Kirkpatrick Model of Training Evaluation (Kirkpatrick, 1987). Kirkpatrick’s model included four levels of outcome evaluation; Level 1: Reaction, evaluates the participant reaction to training; Level 2: Learning, evaluates participant declarative knowledge of the training; Level 3: Behavior, evaluates the participant behavior change as a result of the training; and Level 4: Results, evaluates the desired outcomes resulting from the participant behavior change.

Ideally, the desired outcome of charismatic communication training may include such results as improved productivity, employee satisfaction, or other organizational outcomes. However such outcomes are often long-term or distal effects of training, confounded over time by other intervening factors, making accurate measurement impractical (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006). In order to measure the effects of

charismatic communication training on leader communication effectiveness, the researcher selected three behaviorally anchored measures: leader self-efficacy of communication effectiveness, leader charismatic communication behavior, and follower perception of leader communication effectiveness. Leader self-efficacy and leader charismatic communication behavior measurements were used because these could be measured immediately following training, whereas measuring the results of leader communication behavior in the workplace was accomplished by measuring follower perception of leader communication effectiveness, thus providing a measurement of actual on-the-job results from the training program.

The researcher collected data from four sources for this study. First, all participants were asked to complete a demographic questionnaire including such questions as age, gender, years of leadership experience, and communication practices. This background data was used to stratify participants by various characteristics and to establish group equivalence. Secondly, the researcher asked all participants to complete the CCSS (Towler, 2001), a 6-item, Likert-style questionnaire measuring participant perception of self-efficacy pertaining to charismatic communication skills. The CLCS (Levine et al., 2010) provided a third source of participant data. The CLCS measured both verbal and nonverbal charismatic communication behavior (Levine et al.). Finally, a fourth source of data was the Employee Opinion Survey (EOS) conducted annually at ERMH. This archival data source provided a measure of communication effectiveness for all leaders participating in the study. Each of these measures is described in greater detail below including how they were used to answer the research questions.

In order to answer Research Question 1—What is the impact of charismatic communication training on leader self-perception of efficacy?—the experimental group received treatment consisting of a two-hour training course in charismatic communication, while the control group received no training. To measure the effect of the experimental treatment, the researcher employed a 6-item CCSS developed and tested by Towler (2001). Towler reported Coefficient alphas of $\alpha=.90$ to $\alpha=.92$ for this instrument. After first obtaining informed consent from all study participants, the researcher administered the CCSS to both the control and experimental groups. Participant-provided data was collected in the form of pre-treatment and post-treatment surveys utilizing a commercially available on-line survey tool. A copy of this measurement tool can be found in Appendix A.

The researcher selected the CCSS as the measurement instrument for this study because of its specificity to charismatic communication and because it has been shown to be a valid and reliable instrument (Towler, 2001). The Self-Efficacy Scale consisted of six statements rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from Very Unconfident to Very Confident. These six statements are as follows:

- Your ability to give a speech while being videotaped,
- Your ability to communicate in a confident and animated style,
- Your ability to motivate others through communication,
- Your ability to give speeches that are inspiring,
- Your ability to talk about your own experiences while making a speech,
- Your ability to inspire others with you vision. (Towler, p.143).

Similarly, in order to answer Research Question 2—What is the impact of charismatic communication training on leader ability to demonstrate charismatic communication behaviors?—the experimental group received treatment consisting of a two-hour training course in charismatic communication, while the control group received no training. To measure the effect of the experimental treatment on leader ability to demonstrate charismatic communication behaviors, the researcher employed a 15-item CLCS developed and tested by Levine et al. (2010). Levine et al. reported the CLCS to be both reliable and valid, reporting a Coefficient alpha of $\alpha=.889$ for this instrument. A copy of the CLCS can be found in Appendix B.

In order to answer Research Question 3—What is the impact of charismatic communication training on follower perception of leader communication effectiveness?—the researcher collected data from the annual Employee Opinion Survey (EOS) conducted at ERMH. Pre-treatment data was obtained from ERMH archival records consisting of EOS scores taken over a several year period from all employees at ERMH, thus providing baseline and trend data important to this study. Post treatment survey results were obtained following the regularly planned administration of the EOS to all employees. The EOS consisted of 68 questions measuring a broad spectrum of employee sentiment, however for the purposes of this study, the researcher selected the survey item—*The person I report to is a good communicator*—as a measure of follower perception of leader communication effectiveness. Respondents rated this item on a five-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. The survey was designed and administered by a third-party vendor who conducted validity and reliability

testing for this survey question, reporting a Coefficient alpha of $\alpha = 0.93$ (T. Byrd, personal communication, February 9, 2011).

The availability of archival data for a four-year period allowed the use of an Interrupted Time-Series Design for Part B of the study as depicted in Figure 2.

Group	Time - - - >				
Leader Participant Group	Observation	Observation	Observation	Treatment	Observation

Figure 2. Graphic depiction of Interrupted Time-Series Design. The researcher manipulated the independent variable by conducting charismatic communication training for the leadership participant group. Post-treatment data was obtained through the administration of the EOS during a 30 to 60 day period following the administration of the treatment to the ERMH leadership participants. These post-treatment time intervals were important in order to specifically allow training participants the opportunity to practice and demonstrate the learned charismatic communication behaviors and for followers to perceive any change in communication effectiveness.

It was the intent of the researcher to conduct this study under conditions and constraints commonly found in commercial organizations. The extent to which commercial organizations support employee training varies; organizational constraints often limit the amount of training regardless of how much the company values it (Wentland, 2003). Course curriculum for this study was developed in conjunction with ERMH leaders responsible for organizational training and development, emphasizing the necessity of developing and conducting training under conditions typically found in the

organization. For organizations such as ERMH, training sessions for leaders are often limited to single-session classes, one to three hours in length, during normal working hours. Training participants are expected to attend training and then return to work.

Charismatic communication training consisted of a single, two-hour, classroom-style course conducted by the researcher. The training curriculum was based on the Charismatic Communication Training Manual developed and tested by Towler (2001) and included training in verbal and non-verbal charismatic communication behaviors and rhetorical skills found in previous and subsequent research (Frese et al., 2003; Howell & Frost, 1989; Levine et al., 2010; Schmir et al., 1993). Training curriculum included an overview and brief history of charisma and charismatic leadership, a description of charismatic communication and how it differs from public speaking skills, followed by the actual training in charismatic communication. Charismatic communication behaviors included in the training were: rhetorical devices such as the use of visionary statements, autobiography, metaphors, analogies, raising follower self-efficacy, and storytelling. Non-verbal behaviors included in the training were: captivating and engaging voice tone, pacing and sitting, leaning forward, direct eye contact, and animated facial expressions. For each behavior, knowledge transfer occurred first through lecture, then by demonstration of these behaviors through video vignettes.

The researcher first performed statistical tests to determine equivalence between the control and experimental groups. Establishing group equivalence was necessary because intact groups were used rather than random assignment, thus posing a threat to internal validity. By demonstrating group equivalence, the researcher was able to reduce this threat. Group equivalence was evaluated using Chi-square testing for categorical data

and *t*-tests for interval data, thereby reducing the possibility of error due to unequal groups.

Once group equivalence had been established, attention was turned to answering Research Question 1. The researcher compared the pre and post-treatment CCSS survey data for both control and experimental groups to determine whether a statistically significant difference existed between the two means. The researcher assumed equal intervals when considering the pre and post-treatment interval data, thus allowing the use of more powerful parametric statistical testing. The researcher analyzed the means of the training condition and non-training condition using a mixed factorial ANOVA (analysis of variance) to test for the main effects of time (within subject variables), the main effects of treatment (between subjects variables), and the training \times time interaction. To accept or reject the hypotheses, the researcher utilized a significance level of $p < .05$. An interaction plot provided a graphic representation of the training \times time interaction.

Similarly, to answer second research question and test the associated null hypothesis, the researcher analyzed pre and post-treatment CLCS survey data obtained from the control and experimental groups in order to determine whether a statistically significant difference existed between the two means. The researcher again assumed equal intervals for the pre and post-treatment data obtained through the CLCS instrument, and utilized a mixed factorial ANOVA to test for the main effects of time (within subject variables), the main effects of treatment (between subjects variables), and the training \times time interaction.. To accept or reject the hypotheses, the researcher utilized a significance level of $p < .05$. Again, an interaction plot provided a graphic representation of the training \times time interaction.

For Part B of the study, the researcher performed analyses to answer the third research question and to test the associated null hypothesis utilizing the pre and post-treatment EOS survey data for all business units participating in the study. Archival data from previous survey periods provided a baseline comparison of pre-treatment employee sentiment. Thirty to sixty days following the completion of charismatic communication training for organizational leaders, the EOS was repeated thus providing a post-treatment measurement. Performing one-way, repeated measures, within-subjects ANOVA, the researcher compared the pre-treatment and post-treatment scores. To accept or reject the hypotheses, the researcher utilized a significance level of $p < .05$. A simple time-series plot provided a graphic representation of the EOS scores over time, both before and after the experimental treatment.

The researcher received approval from ERMH leadership to access the annual Employee Opinion Survey (EOS) results. These results were used to demonstrate the need to improve leadership communication. As part of the study, this EOS was expected to be conducted following the experimental treatment, thus providing post-test results that can be compared with pre-study findings. However, one limitation in planning this study was the uncertainty of future availability of EOS results. Had the client organization elected not to conduct the EOS, the researcher's ability to gather comparison data would have been compromised. Fortunately this eventuality did not occur and the EOS was conducted as planned.

Another limitation of this study was the time constraints limiting the length of the charismatic leadership communication training course. Ideally, training course length is determined by course content and the learning ability of the students. Commercial

organizations such as ERMH, whether explicitly or implicitly, place constraints on employee time dedicated to non-production activities such as training. The researcher was obliged to limit training to a single, two-hour course conducted during regular business hours.

Finally, the researcher sought to conduct this investigation in an ethical manner. Ethical issues in research generally fall into one of four areas; “protection from harm, informed consent, right to privacy, and honesty with professional colleagues” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010, p. 101). Additionally, potential for harm may be physical or psychological (Leedy & Ormrod). For the current study, although participants may have been subjected to a small amount of psychological stress as a result of anxiety resulting from public speaking, the risk of harm was not appreciably greater than that normally encountered during day-to-day living. To assure ethical integrity, participation in the study was strictly voluntary and participants were made aware of the risks during the informed consent process and given the option of not participating. Furthermore, participants were instructed that they have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and, immediately following participation in the study, all participants participated in a debriefing exercise.

Summary

The term charisma has been in existence for millennia, yet in recent years charismatic leadership and one of its components, charismatic communication, has emerged as an important research topic in the business sector. A growing body of research has demonstrated the positive effects of charisma and charismatic communication (Howell & Frost, 1988; Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Holladay &

Coombs, 1993, 1994; Towler, 2003), but much work remains (Conger & Hunt, 1999, Frese et al., 2003; Levine et al., 2010; Towler, 2003). This dissertation extends this body of knowledge as a comprehensively applied research study, testing the impact of charismatic communication training on leadership communication effectiveness. In the following chapter, the primary sources of relevant scholarly literature related to this dissertation are systematically identified, reviewed, and analyzed.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

“From the beginning of history the king has been distinguished from the tyrant, the magistrate or the official by the possession of a *charisma* or divine mandate which sets him apart from other men.” (Dawson, 1948, p. 109)

The concept of charisma has been in existence for millennia, but only in recent years has charisma and its correlates, charismatic leadership and charismatic communication, emerged as an important topic in the research literature. Fueled by reports of improved leadership effectiveness, employee performance, and organizational outcomes (Conger & Hunt, 1999, Frese et al., 2003; Levine et al., 2010; Towler, 2003) the concept of charisma as a leadership construct has gained popularity but has yet to be entirely understood and its potential as a leadership theory fully realized.

This study examined the effects of charismatic communication training on leader communication effectiveness in a healthcare organization. The goal of this literature review was to trace the evolution of charisma from its introduction and elaboration as a theoretical construct, through its evaluation and augmentation by empirical analysis, and finally to focus on the specific branch of the research dedicated to charismatic communication. This chapter embodies the findings and conclusions of scholarly empirical research and theoretical examination relevant to charismatic communication in

order to define the current boundaries of what is known and where gaps in the research existed. For inclusion in this comprehensive literature review, prior research works included keywords such as: charisma, charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, leadership communication, and charismatic communication.

It was the fundamental premise of this applied research study that charismatic communication training for organizational leaders, in real-world settings and under actual training circumstances, had the potential to produce positive organizational effects. Such positive effects have indeed been demonstrated in laboratory and field studies, however, if these effects are to be realized on a large scale, if managers and leaders are to build these skills into their strategies and give rise to more effective organizations, then it is time for these concepts to be tested in real-world settings, under ordinary training conditions, and their effect on leader communication effectiveness quantified.

Organization of the Literature Review: The Reichers and Schneider Framework

The Reichers and Schneider (1990) framework provided a logical format by which to organize charismatic communication related research into a coherent literature review. Reichers and Schneider, researching organizational culture and climate, developed a framework to explore the evolution of research and thinking about scientific constructs, arguing that such constructs evolve in a logical and predictable pattern. Reichers and Schneider have written extensively both together and individually regarding organizational psychology and organizational science. Reichers and Schneider held that concepts in the organizational sciences exhibit a predictable, developmental sequence that produces a patterned evolution of ideas, and that this evolution of concepts could be characterized by a series of definable stages. They maintained that this pattern of

development could accurately be described as a three-stage evolution beginning with the introduction of a *new* concept and concluding with the concept's acceptance into mainstream literatures, for instance in textbooks.

Reichers and Schneider (1990) directed their framework at scientific constructs related to organizational performance but believed their framework to be generalizable and therefore applicable to any topic in organizational behavior and psychology. The Reichers and Schneider framework provided researchers an organizing scheme for the massive amounts of literature generated while conducting scholarly investigations. Moreover, using this framework can provide insight into a concept's development and evolution, thus making it valuable as a predictive model into what additional research is needed or what the future might hold. In the context of the current investigation, concerning how charismatic communication might improve leadership communication within organizations, the Reichers and Schneider framework was ideally suited to illustrate the evolution of charismatic leadership and charismatic communication in organizations, and thus provided an altogether fitting and proper structure by which to organize this literature review. Provided next is an overview of the Reichers and Schneider framework, followed by its employment with respect to the historical and contemporary literature related to charisma, charismatic leadership, and charismatic communication.

Reichers and Schneider (1990) identified three stages in the evolution of constructs, Stage One: concept introduction/elaboration, Stage Two: concept evaluation/augmentation, and Stage Three: concept consolidation/accommodation. Stage One, concept introduction/elaboration, is marked by efforts to legitimize a new concept,

being typified by the appearance of articles or books to educate and raise awareness regarding the concept and the emergence of early empirical studies supporting the concept as a valid phenomenon. As interest in a topic develops, the concept enters Stage Two, concept evaluation/augmentation, often signaled by a considerable increase in the number of related articles, as well as the development of new, more comprehensive, theories which in turn promote further empirical analyses. In Stage Two, critical reviews of the concept often appear with claims of flawed conceptualization, poor operationalizing of the concept, and accompanied by ambiguous empirical results (Reichers & Schneider). Consequently, efforts are made to overcome the major criticisms, improve the concept measures, and augment earlier findings that often bring about a re-conceptualization permitting researchers a firmer grasp of the topic (Reichers & Schneider). If a concept then endures into Stage Three, concept consolidation/accommodation, the debate of the second stage diminishes and straightforward literature reviews appear (Reichers & Schneider). In Stage Three, there tends to be a single or a few generally accepted concept definitions followed by an overall decline in the quantity of research devoted to a topic (Reichers & Schneider).

Reichers and Schneider (1990) applied their framework to the evolution of organizational climate and culture, but believed that their three stages applied to the evolution of constructs in general. Hunt (1999) first applied the Reichers and Schneider framework to the construct of charisma and charismatic leadership offering a clearer understanding of the developing field, where the research boundaries resided, and where the opportunities for future research existed. Drawing on available research at the time, Hunt traced the development of charismatic leadership through Reichers and Schneider's

concept introduction/elaboration of Stage One, and onto the concept evaluation/augmentation of Stage Two. According to Hunt's assessment at the time, the field of charismatic leadership resided in Reichers and Schneider's Stage Two, indicating the need for on-going research before the concept of charismatic leadership could be generally accepted and its potential as a leadership theory defined (Hunt). In order to further explore the evolution of charisma and its correlates, charismatic leadership and charismatic communication, the current literature review expanded on Hunt's work, organizing the related research according to the three stages of the Reichers and Schneider framework, and ultimately leading to the research questions addressed in the current study.

Based on similar methods employed by Reichers and Schneider (1990) concerning organizational culture and climate, Table 2 summarizes the scholarly literature related to the concepts of charisma and charismatic leadership. Articles were rated according to Reichers and Schneider (1990) stage utilizing the following criteria: Stage 1: The concept was invented, discovered, or borrowed, or articles were intended to educate a naïve audience regarding the concept's definition, importance and utility; Stage 2: Early critical reviews and preliminary findings demonstrating the uniqueness of the concept; Stage 3: Matter of fact reviews, or one or two conceptual definitions are generally accepted.

Table 2

Summary of Charisma and Charismatic Literature by Reichers and Schneider Stage

Stage	Date	Author(s)	Title	Primary Emphasis
1	1947	Weber, M.	The theory of social and economic organization	Landmark work. Borrowed the term <i>charisma</i> from its theological origins, secularizing its meaning and applying it to great social and political leaders
1	1969	Dow, J. E.	The theory of charisma	Early theoretical attempt to formulate and legitimize the concept of charisma. Maintained that charisma involves a relationship between leader and follower
1	1976	Boss, G. P.	Essential attributes of the concept of charisma	Commenting on the vague nature of the concept of charisma, set out to analyze charisma and identify its essential attributes
1	1977	House, R. J.	A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership	Book chapter. Extended the application of charisma into management and organizational leadership, defining charisma in terms of its effects on followers
1	1987	Conger, J.A., & Kanungo, R.N.	Toward a behavioral theory of charismatic leadership in organizational settings.	Proposed a behavioral theory of charisma suggesting that if the behavioral components of charismatic leadership can be isolated, it may be possible to develop these attributes in managers
1	1989	Conger, J. A.	The charismatic leader: Behind the mystique of exceptional leadership	Theoretical writing. Elaborated on the work of House (1977). Followers attribute charisma to leaders based on certain leader behaviors
2	1990	Conger, J. A.	The dark side of leadership	The qualities that distinguish charismatic leaders can produce problematic or even disastrous outcomes. Leaders may misuse their communication skills for purposes of manipulation and impression management

Stage	Date	Author(s)	Title	Primary Emphasis
2	1990	Waldman, D. A., Bass, B. M., & Yammarino, F. J.	Adding to contingent-reward behavior: The augmenting effect of charismatic leadership.	Field study of 186 Navy officers focused on the relationship of charisma to leader effectiveness finding that charisma added a unique favorable variance to leader effectiveness
2	1993	House, R. J., & Shamir, B.	Toward the integration of transformational, charismatic, and visionary theories	Book chapter. Asserted that there exists a strong convergence of findings from studies concerning charismatic leadership and those concerning transformational and visionary leadership
2	1994	Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N.	Charismatic leadership in organizations: Perceived behavioral attributes and their measurement	Development of an early measurement instrument, the Conger-Kanungo scale, measuring the behavioral dimensions of charismatic leadership
1	1996	Behling, O., & McFillen, J. M.	A syncretical model of charismatic/transformational leadership. <i>Group & Organization Management</i> , 21(2), 163-163.	Hypothesized that charismatic leader behavior was characterized by the six attributes—empathy, dramatizes the mission, projects self-assurance, enhances the leader's image, assures followers of their competency, and provides followers with opportunities to experience success—and generates or strengthens three key follower beliefs: inspiration, awe, and empowerment
2	1997	Conger, J. A., Kanungo, R. N., Menon, S. T., & Mather, P.	Measuring charisma: Dimensionality and validity of the Conger-Kanungo Scale of charismatic leadership	Reported on three separate studies demonstrating the validity of the five-factor model of charismatic leadership, finding that, in essence, charismatic leaders differ from other leaders by their ability to formulate and articulate an inspirational vision

Stage	Date	Author(s)	Title	Primary Emphasis
2	1996	Barling, J., Weber, T., & Kelloway, E. K.	Effects of transformational leadership training on attitudinal and financial outcomes: A field experiment	Field study. Demonstrated the effectiveness of training managers in transformational leadership
2	1993	Holliday, S. J., & Coombs, W. T.	Communicating visions an exploration of the role of delivery in the creation of leader charisma	Laboratory experiment finding that communication delivery was linked to perceptions of charisma
2	1994	Holladay, S. J., & Coombs, W. T.	Speaking of visions and visions being spoken: An exploration of the effects of content and delivery on perceptions of leader charisma	Laboratory experiment finding that although both content and delivery play a role in the perceptions of charisma, the impact of delivery was stronger
2	1998	Avolio, B. J., Waldman, D. A., & Einstein, W. O.	Transformational leadership in a management game simulation: Impacting the bottom line	Conducting a management simulation of students role-playing senior management in a hypothetical manufacturing organization, researchers examined the effects of transformation leadership practices. Their findings demonstrated significant favorable effects on financial performance
2	2000	Conger, J. A., Kanungo, R. N., & Menon, S. T.	Charismatic leadership and follower effects.	Demonstrated a strong relationship between follower reverence and charismatic leadership

Stage	Date	Author(s)	Title	Primary Emphasis
2	2001	Jacobsen, C., & House, R. J.	Dynamics of charismatic leadership: A process theory, simulation model, and tests.	Proposed a process theory of charismatic leadership involving three interacting elements: the leader, the constituency from which followers respond to the leader, and the social structure wherein the leader and the followers interact
2	2002	Dvir, T., Eden, D., Avolio, B. J., & Shamir, B.	Impact of transformational leadership on follower development and performance: A field experiment	Field experiment of 54 military leaders, their 90 direct followers, and 724 indirect followers. Experimental group received a 3-day transformational leadership training course. Results indicated the leaders in the experimental group had a more positive impact on direct followers' development and on indirect followers' performance than did the leaders in the control group
2	2003	Javidan, M. & Waldman, D. A.	Exploring charismatic leadership in the public sector: Measurement and consequences	Field experiment. Studied the extent to which charismatic leadership applied to the public-sector characterized by bureaucratic forms of structure and governance. Surveyed 203 managers and their supervisors
2	2004	Avery, G.	Understanding leadership	Text book. Associated charisma with visionary leadership, however, explained that the nature of charisma remained highly disputed
2	2006	Agle, B. R., Nagarajan, N. J., Sonnenfeld, J. A., & Srinivasan, D.	Does CEO charisma matter? An empirical analysis of the relationships among organizational performance, environmental uncertainty, and top management team perceptions of CEO charisma.	Observed the adverse effects of charisma and charismatic leadership. Examined the relationship between charismatic leadership, organizational performance, and environmental uncertainty by studying 128 CEOs of major U.S. corporations. Found that, although organizational performance was indeed associated with subsequent perceptions of CEO charisma, no relationship was found between charisma and subsequent objective measures of organizational performance.

Stage	Date	Author(s)	Title	Primary Emphasis
2	2007	Boerner, S., Eisenbeiss, S. A., & Griesser, D.	Follower behavior and organizational performance: The impact of transformational leaders	Empirical study of 91 leaders from 91 German companies on the mediating processes in the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational performance. Found that transformational leaders boost follower performance by stimulating organizational citizenship behavior, whereas they enhance follower innovation by triggering controversial discussion of task related issues
2	2009	Wylie, D. A. & Gallagher, H. L.	Transformational leadership behaviors in allied health professions	Postal survey tested the levels of transformational behaviors among 753 allied health professionals in Scotland. Results identified significant variation in transformational leadership behaviors among individuals. For example, radiologists and podiatrists scored consistently lower than did other professional groups
2	2009	Walter, F., & Bruch, H.	An affective events model of charismatic leadership behavior: A review, theoretical integration, and research agenda	Proposed an Affective Events Model as a framework based on an integrative theory of charismatic leadership, integrating leader traits, attributes, emotional intelligence, as well as contextual elements that combine to result in charismatic leadership behavior
2	2010	Northouse, P. G.	Leadership: Theory and practice	Text book. Associated charisma with the emphasis on the role of traits in effective leadership, that charisma described people who possess special personality traits, but notes that charisma lacks conceptual clarity and accurate measurement
3	2010	Babcock-Roberson, M. E., & Strickland, O. J.	The relationship between charismatic leadership, work engagement, and organizational citizen behaviors	Field study surveyed 91 working students, supported previous findings indicating a significant positive relationship between charismatic leadership and follower work engagement and organizational citizenship behaviors, or discretionary work behavior

Stage	Date	Author(s)	Title	Primary Emphasis
2	2011	Jones, C. A., & Turkstra, L. S.	Selling the story: Narratives and charisma in adults with TBI.	Study of seven individuals with traumatic brain injury, found that aspects of non-verbal performance, namely gesture use and speech rate, influenced the perception of charisma in an individual
2	2011	Searle, G. D., & Hanrahan, S. J.	Leading to inspire others: Charismatic influence or hard work?	Qualitative study of seven participants nominated as inspiring leaders. Identified five key dimensions of leading to inspire others: connecting, leading, inspiring, action, and context. Results indicated that leaders could intentionally cultivate opportunities to inspire others through interaction and effort
3	2011	Hunter, S.	First and ten leadership: A historiometric investigation of the CIP leadership model.	Examined how three leader types; pragmatic, ideological, and charismatic, can be differentiated. Studied college and NFL football coaches finding that differences were largely tied to how the leaders provided sense making to followers, concluding that there is no single effective model of leadership, their evidence supported an expanded leadership model, one that included multiple approaches to effective leadership
3	2012	Antonakis, J.	Transformational and Charismatic Leadership	Book chapter in text book <i>The nature of leadership</i> , a matter-of-fact overview of charismatic leadership, argued charismatic leadership is a <i>mature</i> concept

These data suggest that the constructs of charisma and charismatic leadership have fully progressed through Stages One and Two of the Reichers and Schneider framework, and have recently matured as a construct into Stage Three. In contrast, as will be seen later in this literature review, the concept of charismatic communication had only begun to appear as a construct and attract the interest of researchers.

Stage One: Concept Introduction/Elaboration

Overview of Charisma: Historical Background

From the original Greek word *χάρισμα* meaning "endowed with the gift of divine grace" (Bass, 1999, p. 541), the concept of charisma has evolved over time. In its early biblical usage, charisma was the realm of prophets and kings, but transformed in modern times from its theological roots into the domain of political and sociological leadership (Bass). In the early 1900's, Max Weber (1864-1920), a German Sociologist describing the Prussian aristocracy of his time, brought new meaning to the term charisma, using it to describe the character and power structure of social and political leaders (Weber, 1947). Weber rejected charisma's spiritual connection for a more secular view, believing that charisma was not dependant on the possession of special spiritual gifts, but a trait inherent to the individual (Jermier, 1993), thus opening the door to further scholarly investigation and application.

In the 1970s and 1980s, following Weber's re-characterization of the concept, charisma underwent a further evolution. Prior to this time, there was little in the management literature related to charisma (Hunt, 1999). House (1977) effectively transformed the concept of charisma once again, this time from a political and social leadership phenomenon to that of business and organizational leadership (Hunt) and, in

consequence, the concept of charismatic leadership emerged and became seen as a positive force to mobilize organizations (Towler, 2001). Conger and Kanungo (1988) argued that the concept of charisma had, historically, been vague and poorly defined, and suggested that this had led to its neglect as a topic in leadership. These were nonetheless early efforts to address a fledgling concept, whereas, in more recent years, research efforts have been directed toward operationalizing the concept of charisma and understanding its cause and effects. Though the concept lacked proper definition, it was about to enter a period of greater insight.

Following this recharacterization of charisma and charismatic leadership during the 1970s and 1980s, a remarkable burgeoning of interest occurred in the research literature positioning charismatic leadership squarely in Stage One, concept introduction/elaboration, of the Reichers and Schneider (1990) framework. Articles appeared that reinforced charisma as a legitimate leadership concept, and were accompanied by the popularization of charisma and charismatic leadership in scholarly books (Bryman, 1992; Conger, & Kanungo, 1988; Conger 1989) as well as in the commercial market literature (Richardson & Thayer, 1993; Riggio, 1987), a trend that continued through to the present (Cohen, 2006; Mortensen, 2011). Popular literature related to the topic of charisma (Cohen; Mortensen; Richardson & Thayer; Riggio) claimed to expose the secrets of charisma while promising to make the reader more charismatic. In reality such claims were not supported by the available empirical evidence and seemed only to popularize the myth of charisma while jumping ahead of the evidence-based research. Needed were concept clarity, definition, and empirical evidence

supporting these claims, and indeed these began to appear as the concept of charisma advanced through the Reichers and Schneider stages.

Charismatic Leadership versus Transformational Leadership

The need for concept clarity was no more evident than in the terms *charismatic leadership* and *transformational leadership*. These terms were closely related and indeed were often used interchangeably (Hunt, 1999; House & Shamir, 1993; Walter & Bruch, 2009), however other writers have made a distinction (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1994), and therefore closer examination of these concepts seemed fitting.

Burns (1978) coined the term ‘transformational leadership’ in his seminal work. Burns contrasted transactional leadership, that relies upon a bargaining process and exchange of valued things between leader and follower, with transformational leadership that involves the emotional engagement between the leader and followers, thus raising the motivation level of both leader and follower (Burns). Whereas Burns held charisma to be only one component of transformational leadership, others recognized the similarity of transformational leadership with charismatic leadership, which also acts at the emotional level, and consequently led authors to use the terms charismatic and transformational interchangeably (Conger & Kanungo, 1994).

Conger and Kanungo (1994) distinguished between the terms charismatic and transformational leadership, observing that the difference was dependent upon the perspective from which the leadership phenomenon was viewed. Conger and Kanungo concluded that charisma is judged from the standpoint of *perceived leader behavior*, whereas transformational leadership is concerned primarily with *follower outcomes*, adding that the two terms are essentially the same phenomenon only from different

vantage points. Similarly, House and Shamir (1993), examining the terms *charismatic*, *visionary*, and *transformational leadership*, found charisma to be the central concept in each of these conceptualizations. House and Shamir asserted that there existed a strong convergence of findings from studies concerned with charismatic leadership and those concerned with transformational and visionary leadership. Interestingly, the term *charismatic communication* seems to have eluded this fate, whether termed transformational, charismatic, or visionary leadership, the communication aspect for each of these leadership constructs has been referred to exclusively as *charismatic communication*. For instance, the researcher found no reference to transformational communication in the leadership literature. For purposes of the current investigation, the terms charismatic, transformation, and visionary leadership were considered interchangeable and referred to in general as charismatic leadership. The following section explores the various theoretical constructs associated with the concept of charisma.

Theoretical Constructs

Accompanying its growth in popularity, numerous explanations, hypotheses, and theories emerged in an effort to explain the phenomenon of charisma, charismatic leadership, and charismatic communication (Bass, 1988; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Shamir & Howell, 1999). Generally speaking, charisma has been treated alternately as; a personality trait, something inherent to an individual's personality; a behavior that one can learn; a consequence of the leader-follower relationship; a phenomenon related to process or context; or as some combination of all these (Northouse, 2010). Specifically,

this section describes each of these theoretical approaches to charisma, ultimately leading to the theoretical construct that provided the foundation for the current study.

Charisma as a trait.

The trait approach to charisma emphasized the personal qualities of a leader, implying that charisma is something innate to the individual, that charismatic leaders are born rather than made (Bryman, 1992). Indeed Weber (1947), who provided the first systematic treatment of the concept of charisma, emphasize this perception believing that charismatic leaders were extraordinarily gifted persons, or to whom extraordinary qualities were attributed by followers. Northouse (2010) wrote that the trait theory of charisma emphasized the role of character in effective leadership, that charismatic individuals, rather than simply exhibiting a learned behavior, possess special personality characteristics. Northouse cautioned however, that charisma lacked conceptual clarity and accurate measurement. As Trice (1993) pointed out, if charisma is indeed a trait, then attempting to train leaders to be charismatic becomes problematic because of the inherent difficulty in altering one's character. If leaders are to be taught to communicate charismatically, then clearly, alternate theories of charisma required examination.

Charisma as a behavior.

A paradigm shift in leadership research took place during the 1980s, from an emphasis on the leader-follower transactional relationship, to an emphasis on exceptional leaders. This view of leadership became known alternately as charismatic, transformational, or visionary leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1994) and coincided roughly with the emergence of the behavioral theory of charisma (House & Shamir, 1993). House and Shamir maintained that charismatic leaders, through their behaviors,

aroused the emotional and motivational desires of their followers. House and Shamir offered a theoretical explanation for the unique effects of charismatic leadership, arguing that these effects were produced by charismatic behaviors, specifically; self-expression, self-esteem, self-worth, and self-consistency, that together stir follower motivations.

Conger and Kanungo (1987), arriving at a similar conclusion regarding the behavioral nature of charisma, wrote of the elusive nature and mystical connotations surrounding the concept and proposed a behavioral model of charisma. The Conger/Kanungo model builds on the idea that charisma is an attribution phenomenon made by followers who observe certain behaviors on the part of the leader. Conger and Kanungo thus articulated the question underling the current investigation, “can these attributes be identified and operationalized in order to develop charismatic qualities among organizational leaders” (Conger & Kanungo, p. 640)? Based on their behavioral model, Conger and Kanungo went on to describe the relationship between communication and charisma, writing that the attribution of charisma to organizational leaders depends on “the nature of articulation and impression management employed to inspire subordinates in the pursuit of the vision” (Conger & Kanungo, p. 640).

Expanding on the behavioral theory of charisma, Friedman, Prince, Riggio, and DiMatteo (1980) focused on the construct of expressiveness as it relates to charisma. Friedman et al., observing the role of nonverbal expressiveness in charismatic individuals, remarked that “the essence of eloquent, passionate, spirited communication seems to involve the use of facial expressions, voice, gestures, and body movements to transmit emotions” (p. 333), concluding that much of what is considered charisma can be understood in terms of leader behaviors, and more specifically, expressiveness.

Charisma as an interpersonal relationship.

In contrast to the leader-centric view of charisma, others have viewed charisma as a process involving the relationship, or the interpersonal and social interactions, between the leader and follower (Avolio & Yammarino, 1990; Bryman, 1992; Choi, 2006; Conger & Kanungo, 1994; Dow, 1969; Searle & Hanrahan, 2011; Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Shamir et al., 1993). Dow sought to formulate and legitimize this concept of charisma, maintaining that charisma was not inherent to a single temperament or personality type, but rather a social relationship in which the leader presents a transcendent image or ideal that the follower accepts, not because of the rationality of the premise, but because of an affective belief in the extraordinary qualities of the leader. Similarly, Bryman observed that charisma was not simply a matter of exhibiting special qualities but could be described as a complex social relationship. Bryman illustrated this relationship between the perception of charisma and the leader-follower relationship by observing that a leader cannot be said to be charismatic unless their charisma has been validated by others. Moreover, Conger and Kanungo explained that charismatic authority operated informally through human relationships rather than being organized around formal political or legal structures, thus leading to the powerful bond and commitment to the leader, instead of to a set of rules or authority hierarchy.

Shamir et al. (1993), seeking to explain the process by which charismatic effects were achieved, proposed a self-concept based motivational theory to explain the process by which charismatic leader behaviors caused profound transformational follower effects. Shamir et al. argued that charismatic leaders transform the needs, values, preferences, and aspirations of followers from self-interests to collective interests. Further, charismatic

leaders cause followers to become highly committed to the leader's mission, willing to make significant personal sacrifices in the interest of the mission, and to perform above and beyond the call of duty (Shamir et al.).

Along these same lines, Choi (2006) developed a theory of charismatic leadership emphasizing the motivational impact on followers. Specifically, Choi maintained that charismatic leaders generate positive individual and organizational outcomes by displaying three core behaviors: envisioning, empathy, and empowerment. These three components of charismatic leadership then stimulate the followers' need for achievement, their need for affiliation, and their need for power (Choi).

Avolio and Yammarino (1990), and Seltzer and Bass (1990) furthered this understanding of the interpersonal mechanisms of charismatic leadership by determining the level of analysis at which charismatic leadership is operationalized, whether group or individual. They found that ratings of charismatic leadership appeared to be a function of the individual as opposed to group membership, that the experience of charisma is recognized at the individual level. Alternately, DeGroot, Kiker, and Cross (2000) applied a meta-analysis to assess the organizational outcomes related to charismatic leadership and suggested the opposite effect. Specifically DeGroot et al. analyzed the effects of charismatic leadership on leadership effectiveness, subordinate performance, subordinate effort, and subordinate commitment by conducting analyses of 36 samples yielding 62 usable correlation estimates of the linkages of interest. Their results suggested that charismatic leadership is more effective at increasing group performance than at increasing individual performance.

The contextual theory of charisma.

Weber (1947) first alluded to the role of context in the emergence of charisma and charismatic leaders, observing that the appearance of a charismatic leader often included the following elements: an extraordinarily gifted person, a social crisis or situation of desperation, a radical solution to the crisis, a set of followers who perceive the leader as being gifted and possessing exceptional powers, and the validation of that leader's extraordinary gifts by repeated successes. Building on Weber's premise, Trice and Beyer (1986) regarded charisma as a sociological phenomenon that emerged from the interaction of all of these elements identified by Weber, and argued that all of them must be present to some degree for the charismatic phenomena to surface.

Elsewhere, Shamir and Howell (1999) maintained that the emergence of charismatic leadership was dependent upon context and that the conditions under which charismatic leadership may be more or less effective were dependent upon organizational context such as a crisis, environmental uncertainty, and business unit culture. Shamir and Howell, examining the role of context in charismatic leadership, argued that contextually *weak* organizations characterized by high ambiguity, were more favorable to the rise of charismatic leadership than contextually *strong* organizations, explaining that in weak organizational contexts, individuals look for cues to guide their behavior and that such cues originate from charismatic leaders.

Organizational processes have also been identified as mechanisms contributing to rise of a charismatic leader. Jacobsen and House (2001), observing the dynamics of charismatic leadership, proposed a process theory of charismatic leadership involving three interacting elements: (a) the leader, (b) the constituency from which followers

respond to the leader, and (c) the social structure wherein the leader and the followers interact. The leader-follower process begins with the first encounter of the leader with a constituency, resulting in followers' identification with the leader's personality, and followed by the leader's articulated vision arousing the followers to activity (Jacoben & House). The leader's personal sacrifices and role modeling then inspire followers to emulate the leader and the leader's commitment to the vision (Jacoben & House).

Cultural context may also influence the perception of charisma. Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruitz-Quinyana, and Dorfman (1999) examined the cross-cultural generalizability of charismatic and transformational leadership finding that the actual enactment of certain leadership behaviors vary between cultures. For example in China, vision is normally expressed in a non-aggressive manner, while in the United States a more assertive, enthusiastic approach is employed. Boss (1976) went on to note that each element contributing to charisma is a constituent, interacting, and indispensable part of the whole, thus setting the stage for a mixed or hybrid model of charisma.

A hybrid approach to charisma theory.

Finally, others have developed a blended or hybrid theoretical approach to describe the charismatic phenomenon (Avery, 2004; Behling & McFillen, 1996; Conger & Kanungo, 1994; Walter & Bruch, 2009). Although House (1977) supported the trait theory of charisma, he also recognized that "in actuality, the 'gift' is likely to be a complex interaction of personal characteristics, the behavior the leader employs, characteristics of followers, and certain situational factors prevailing at the time of the assumption of the leadership style" (p. 193).

Likewise, Conger and Kanungo (1994) noted that charismatic leadership is a multidimensional phenomenon where individual components or combinations of components may have differing effects. Conger and Kanungo sought to operationalize the behavioral components of charismatic leadership, believing these behaviors constituted the major features that distinguished charismatic leadership from other forms of leadership. The Conger and Kanungo dimensions of charismatic leadership included vision and articulation, environmental sensitivity, unconventional behavior, personal risk, sensitivity to members' needs, and striving to change the status quo.

Behling and McFillen (1996) also proposed a hybrid, or what they termed a syncretical, model of charismatic leadership that combined disparate elements of charisma into a single system. Behling and McFillen hypothesized that leader behavior is characterized by six attributes: empathy, dramatizing the mission, projecting self-assurance, enhancing the leader's image, assuring followers of their competency, and providing followers with opportunities to experience success. These six attributes, in turn, generated or strengthened three key follower beliefs: inspiration, awe, and empowerment (Behling & McFillen). More precisely, Behling and McFillen believed that inspiration flows from leader behavior that displays empathy and dramatizes the mission; that awe emanates from leader behavior that projects self-confidence and enhances the leader's image; and that empowerment stems from leader behavior that assures followers of their competency and provides opportunities for followers to experience success. However, McCann, Langford, and Rawlings (2006), tested Behling and McFillen's syncretical model of charismatic leadership by studying 178 followers, relating to 29 leaders in 17

organizations, and found that the charismatic leader-follower relationship to be more complex than even predicted by the syncretical model.

More recently, Walter and Bruch (2009) proposed an Affective Events Model as an integrative theory of charismatic leadership, integrating leader traits, attributes, emotional intelligence, as well as contextual elements that combine and result in the expression of charismatic leadership.

Apart from the debate regarding the various theoretical models and the indications that a single theoretical model of charisma had yet to emerge, it seemed fitting that the behavioral model of charisma provided the theoretical foundation for the current study. It followed that, if charisma would be operationalized, its variables manipulated, and outcomes measured, charisma must first be described in behavioral terms, and its effects clearly articulated. Accordingly, what are the effects associated with charisma and charismatic leadership?

Effects of Charisma

Charisma has been linked to such positive effects as leader effectiveness, follower performance, and organizational outcomes (Avolio, Waldman, & Einstein, 1998; Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Waldman, Bass, & Yammarino, 1990). This potential for improvement accounted for the burgeoning interest in understanding the concept of charisma (Holladay & Coombs, 1994). Yet, if this potential is to be realized, if real-world organizations are to invest training resources and leadership time in such an endeavor, then their return on investment must be clearly demonstrated and understood.

A number of studies have demonstrated the favorable impact of charisma and charismatic leadership on organizational effectiveness (Avolio et al., 1998), leader effectiveness (Waldman et al., 1990), job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and productivity (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010), loyalty and pride (Kouzes & Posner, 1987), as well as follower self-esteem and confidence (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). For example, in a field experiment of 54 military leaders, their 90 direct followers, and 724 indirect followers, Dvir, Eden, Avolio, and Shamir (2002) manipulated the independent variable in the form of a 3-day transformational leadership training course. They found that leaders in the training group had a more positive impact on direct followers' development and on indirect followers' performance than did the leaders in the non-training group (Dvir et al.).

Conger, Kanungo, and Menon (2000) also measured the effects of charismatic leadership behaviors by testing 252 managers in a large manufacturing company. Participants completed the Conger-Kanungo Charismatic Leadership Scale (Conger & Kanungo, 1994) assessing their supervisor's behavior. Their findings indicated that leader reverence, follower collective identify, and follower perception of group task performance, have a strong direct relationship with charismatic leadership. But the reverse may also be true.

Researchers have pointed out the adverse effects of charisma and charismatic leadership (Agle, Nagarajan, Sonnenfeld, & Srinivasan, 2006; Conger, 1990; Dumas & Sankowsky, 1998; Machan, 1989; Raelin, 2003). For example, Agle et al. examined the relationship between charismatic leadership, organizational performance, and environmental uncertainty by studying 128 CEOs of major U.S. corporations. They found

that, although organizational performance was indeed associated with subsequent perceptions of CEO charisma, no relationship was found between charisma and subsequent objective measures of organizational performance. Although Agle et al. explained that the variation of their results and other empirical testing of the CEO charisma and organizational performance relationship may be due to the early stages of such research. Also questioning the legitimacy of claims relating to the effects of charisma, Awamleh and Gardner (1999) proposed that the direction of the leadership-performance relationship actually works in reverse, suggesting that organizational performance is the cause, rather than the consequence, of charismatic leadership.

Some have pointed to infamous leaders such as Adolf Hitler, Charles Manson, and Jim Jones as examples of the *dark side* of charisma. Conger (1990) pointed out that the qualities that distinguish charismatic leaders can also produce problematic or even disastrous outcomes. Foremost among these leader liabilities were the inclusion of the leaders' personal aims rather than those of the organization or other constituents (Conger). Leaders may construct an organizational vision that is essentially a monument to themselves, as opposed to that of the actual needs of the organization (Conger). Conger perceived that it may be easy for some leaders to misuse their communication skills for purposes of manipulation and impression management, making their visions appear more realistic or appealing than they actually were, thereby doing themselves and their organizations a disservice.

Well known popular writers have been particularly critical regarding the effects of charisma and charismatic leadership. Bennis and Nanus (2003) concluded that communication content was more important than style, writing that "charisma is the result

of effective leadership, not the other way around" (p.208). Still others have found mixed effects, such as Javidan and Waldman (2003) who studied the extent to which charismatic leadership applied to the public-sector, characterized by bureaucratic forms of structure and governance. Javidan and Waldman surveyed 203 managers and their supervisors, and, while results supported the relevance of charismatic leadership in high organizational echelons such as exist in public sector organizations, such leadership was only modestly related to motivational consequences and not significantly related to unit performance (Javidan & Waldman). Similarly, Jacobsen and House (2001) wrote that the dedication of followers to charismatic leaders ultimately leads to routinization, followed by disenchantment, bureaucratization, and depersonalization, and, in the final phase, led to follower alienation from the leader, the mission, and the organization.

Conversely, Friedman, Prince, Riggio, and DiMatteo (1980) questioned whether charisma, if described as a behavioral phenomenon or social skill that can be learned, could be equated with psychological manipulation, or pure acting ability. In their work on non-verbal expressiveness, Friedman et al. found that expressiveness, such as that linked with charisma, was not mere sociability or manipulation, but rather "a healthy dramatic flair, a desire to excite or captivate others" (p. 348).

Diverse findings such as those described above suggested that the concept of charisma and charismatic leadership had advanced into Reichers and Schneider's (1990) Stage Two, concept evaluation/augmentation. Because the majority of empirical evidence supported the positive effects of charisma and charismatic leadership, and while certainly aware of the criticisms and negative aspects sometimes associated with charisma, in

conducting the current investigation the author chose to focus solely on the ethical application of this knowledge.

Stage Two: Concept Evaluation/Augmentation

At this stage in its evolution, interest in the concept of charisma intensified, fostering critical analyses and mounting empirical evidence and implications. In the 1980s, charisma emerged as a dominant area of leadership research and continued in this role into the 1990s (Bass, 1990). Hunt (1999), describing the effect of charismatic and transformational leadership in transforming the field of leadership, perceived the emergence of charismatic leadership as playing a crucial role in the rejuvenation of the leadership field, attracting numerous new scholars and bringing about a needed paradigm shift.

A simple tally of scholarly journal articles devoted to the topic of charisma in recent years supported the pattern predicted by Reichers and Schneider (1990). Based on a similar bibliometric analysis conducted by Antonakis (2012), Figure 3 illustrates that a gradual increase in charisma related literature, corresponding with Reichers' and Schneider's Stage One, occurred about the year 1960, and was followed by a more dramatic increase in the number of articles in the early 1990's corresponding to Stage Two. Conger (1991) offered an explanation for this growing interest by observing that the era of managing by dictate was being replaced by an era of managing by inspiration, and that the ability to craft and articulate a highly motivational message had become a key leadership skill. This growth trend in the quantity of literature dedicated to charisma and charismatic leadership exhibited little evidence of diminishing, lending further support to

the belief that the concept of charisma had yet to fully emerge from Reichers and Schneider Stage Two.

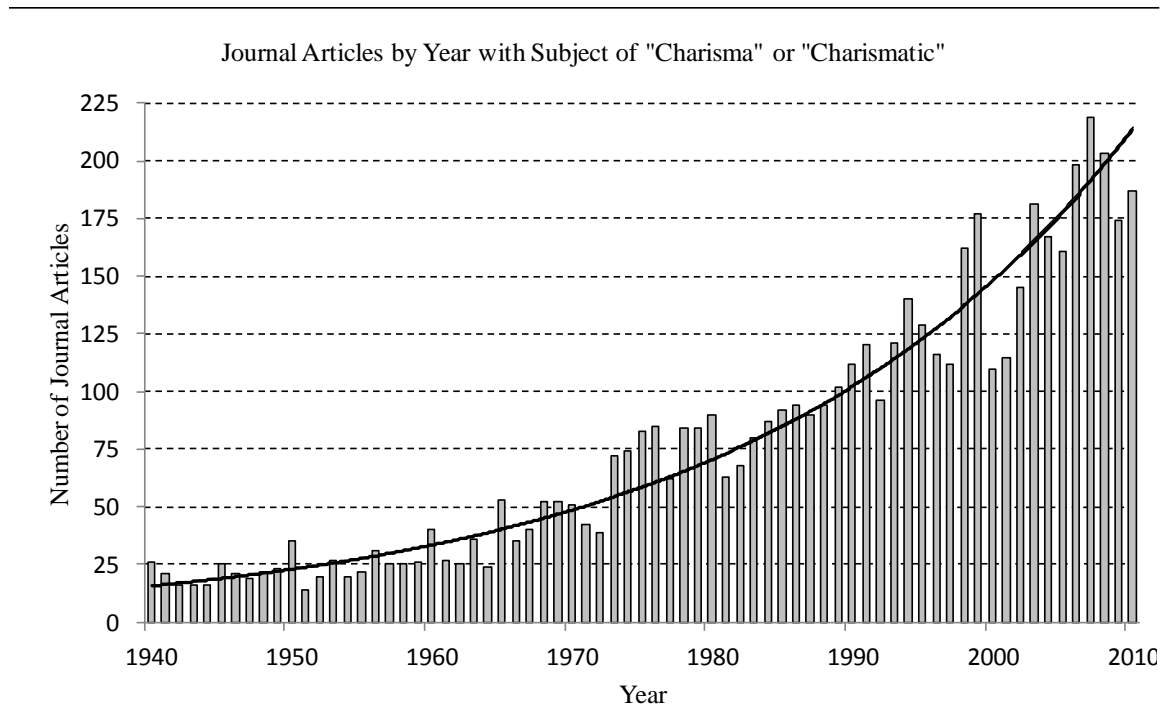


Figure 3. Journal Articles with Subject of Charisma or Charismatic by Year. The number of published papers per year were indexed through the All-at-Once search engine with regression fitted trend line ($y = 2E-241x73598$, $R^2 = 0.9325$). Searches were conducted using the exact terms “charisma” or “charismatic” as subject parameters through the Olivet Nazarene University Brenner Library All-at-Once search subject field for the time period 1940-2011. Data retrieved October 18, 2011.

Common during this stage in the evolution of scientific constructs, critical reviews appeared as well as attempts to overcome these criticisms and augment earlier findings (Reichers, & Schneider, 1990). For example, Yukl (1999) highlighted a number of conceptual weaknesses in charismatic and transformational leadership theories including ambiguous constructs and underlying processes, insufficient specification of

variables, the omission of important variables, as well as calls for the clarification and refinement of the concepts.

Also applying a critical eye to the investigation of charismatic leadership, Beyer (1999) argued that a clear pattern of explanations and findings had yet to emerge, while empirical results had only begun to accumulate. Clarifying, Beyer perceived the current research as setting forth new sets of possible moderating variables and new twists on the definition of this form of leadership. Beyer asserted that in some ways the topic had actually regressed back to an era dominated by the notion of a *one best way* of leadership, and in some ways the concept, at the time of Beyer's writing, was indeed just emerging from the Bronze Age of our knowledge surrounding charisma and charismatic leadership. This sort of questioning and backsliding is normal and inevitable in the field of science (Reichers & Schneider, 1990) and, as we shall see, the study of charisma and charismatic communication did indeed begin to solidify and become more coherent as a result of this debate.

Measuring Charisma

In the last two decades, many empirical investigations of charisma, charismatic leadership, and, to a lesser extent, charismatic communication, have been conducted. These studies relied on a variety of research methods, populations, and settings. This section will review and summarize the relevant research pertaining to the measurement of charisma, leading to the specific focus on charismatic communication.

The complexity of the charismatic phenomenon and the ambiguities in construction of adequate conceptual models necessitated the development of valid and reliable measures (Conger & Kanungo, 1994). Conger and Kanungo, having identified

the presence or absence of certain behavioral dimensions of charisma, maintained that it may be possible to train organizational leaders in these charismatic behaviors. Their conclusion suggested that not only was further study necessary regarding the prospect of training charismatic skills, but also hinted at the need for a charismatic communication measurement instrument as well (Conger & Kanungo). Recognizing that rigorous empirical testing and the development of measurement instruments lagged behind advances in theory development related to charisma, Conger and Kanungo, based on earlier theoretical work (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), developed a questionnaire measure of the perceived behavioral dimensions of charisma, and established the measure's reliability and validity.

Subsequently, a number of researchers have attempted to define and measure the attributes of charismatic leaders (Boss, 1976; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Shamir, Arthur, & House, 1994; Shamir et al., 1993), yet none specifically addressed charismatic communication. Levine et al. (2010) found that the existing measurement scales; the Multidimensional Leadership Questionnaire (Bass, 1985), the Conger-Kanungo Charisma Scale (Conger & Kanungo, 1994) the Followership Scale (Kelley, 1992), and the Romance of Leadership Scale (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1988), commonly used to assess charisma, failed to adequately measure the communication behaviors associated with the phenomenon. To fill this measurement gap, Levine et al. developed the Charismatic Leadership Communication Scale (CLCS) and proposed its incorporation into future research. Levine et al. examined what it meant to communicate charismatically, reasoning that if you want people to perceive you as charismatic, you need to display attributes such as empathy, good listening skills, eye contact, enthusiasm, self-confidence

and skillful speaking. Measuring these attributes can result in a more complete understanding of charismatic communication, and because these abilities can be seen as acquired attributes rather than inbred traits, as discussed previously, it follows that charisma may indeed be learned (Levine et al., 2010). Moreover, having only recently introduced the CLCS instrument, its application to the field of charismatic communication has yet to be fully realized (K. J. Levine, personal communication, April 1, 2011).

The development of instruments to accurately measure the mechanisms of charisma, charismatic leadership, and charismatic communication allowed researchers to explore the impact of displaying charismatic behavior. For instance, Holladay and Coombs (1993) conducted a laboratory study of 197 undergraduate students, examining the impact of communication delivery on perceptions of leader charisma. Utilizing a hypothetical organization, participants viewed speeches by a trained actor in which delivery (strong/weak) was manipulated. Researchers concluded that differences in communication delivery led to different perceptions of leader charisma. Holladay and Coombs (1994), once more in a laboratory setting utilizing trained actors and undergraduate students, extended their previous findings, concluding that, although both delivery and content play a role in the development of perceptions of charisma, the impact of delivery was stronger.

Similarly, Awamleh and Gardner (1999), in a laboratory study of 304 undergraduate students, demonstrated that communication delivery was a major determinant of perceived leader charisma and effectiveness. Participants viewed videotaped speeches by a professional actor in which content (visionary. non-visionary)

and delivery (strong/weak) were manipulated. These results of Holladay and Coombs (1994) and Awamleh and Gardner prompted an interesting question—given the demonstrated importance of the communication delivery component of charisma, could these charismatic delivery techniques be taught and learned?

Can Charisma be Learned?

Anticipating the direct implications of a behavioral theory of charisma to improving the workplace, Conger and Kanungo (1987) calculated that if the behavioral components of charismatic leadership could be isolated, then it may well be possible to develop these attributes in managers. Indeed, Howell and Frost (1989) concluded that charisma could be empirically isolated from other leadership styles, and that individuals could be trained to exhibit charismatic behavior. In a laboratory experiment linking charisma to communication delivery, Howell and Frost examined the nature and effects of charismatic communication style. Researchers trained surrogate leaders to demonstrate charismatic, structured, or considerate communication behaviors. Participants working under the direction of the charismatic leader had higher task performance, higher task satisfaction, and lower role conflict in comparison to those working under the other leadership conditions (Howell & Frost).

Similar to Howell and Frost (1989), Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) provided further evidence that individuals could be trained, in a laboratory setting, to exhibit charismatic behavior. Kirkpatrick and Locke conducted a laboratory simulation where actors were trained to portray leaders communicating in a charismatic or non-charismatic delivery style. Students were asked to perform a simulated production task under the direction of either a charismatic or non-charismatic delivery style. What was more,

Kirkpatrick and Locke found that charismatic communication style had few direct or indirect effects on participant performance or attitudes, seeming only to affect the perception of charisma.

Extending these earlier findings of Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) and Howell and Frost (1989), Barling, Weber, and Kelloway (1996) examined the effectiveness of transformational leadership training among managers. Utilizing a pretest-posttest control-group design ($N = 20$), researchers conducted management training consisting of a one-day group session followed by four individual booster sessions thereafter on a monthly basis. Findings included significant favorable effects on subordinates' perceptions of leaders' transformational leadership, subordinates' own organizational commitment, and two aspects of branch-level financial performance.

Similarly, Dvir et al. (2002) tested the impact of transformational leadership training on follower development and performance in a field experiment involving 54 military leaders, their 90 direct followers, and 724 indirect followers. Leaders in the experimental group received a 3-day transformational leadership training course. Results indicated the leaders in the experimental group had a more positive impact on direct followers' development and on indirect followers' performance than did the leaders in the control group.

Further, Towler (2001), in a laboratory study investigating the effectiveness of training individuals to be charismatic in their communication style, 48 students attended two training sessions of 2 ½ hours each. Towler's findings demonstrated the efficacy of charismatic communication training as well as providing evidence of favorable effects on follower performance and attitudes.

Nodarse (2009) investigated whether individuals could be trained to be more charismatic through nonverbal social skills training. Nodarse's findings supported the effectiveness of training seminars for improving charismatic presentational ability, as well as establishing an association between nonverbal communication and charisma. Furthermore, Nodarse found that the nonverbal training seminars improved the interpersonal charisma of the trained participants, concluding that, although some individuals are born with charismatic tendencies, there exists a strong skill component that can be developed through training.

Taken together, these studies support the feasibility and benefits of training leaders in charismatic communication skills; however such studies were few in number, and were not reflective of training conditions most often encountered in organizations such as healthcare. Needed were studies conducted in real-world settings under common training conditions and constraints.

Stage Three: Concept Consolidation/Accommodation

A construct reaches Stage Three of the Reichers and Schneider framework as the concept's benefits become widely demonstrated and generally accepted (Reichers & Schneider, 1990). As suggested earlier and by the data presented in Table 2, it is not evident that the concepts of charisma and charismatic leadership have reached beyond early Stage Three. Generally accepted definitions of charisma, charismatic leadership and charismatic communication still elude researchers, and investigation into these topics displays little evidence of diminishing. Antonakis (2012) concluded that, although research in charismatic leadership was mature, there was still much to be done; more longitudinal and multilevel research, the refinement of objective measures, and a fuller

understanding of process models that also consider contextual effects and individual difference antecedents.

The previous discussion focused on the general topics of charisma and charismatic leadership and established the importance of expression and communication in the perception of charisma. As Schilling (2010) identified, charismatic communication was one of the key attributes of charismatic leaders, and thus paved the way for the current investigation into the single attribute of charismatic communication.

Charismatic Communication

“Charisma is not a metaphysical entity, but a strictly observable quality of men and things in relation to human acts and attitudes” (Parsons, 1949, p. 668).

With these words, Parsons (1949) set the stage for the development of a behavioral theory of charisma and the foundation of charismatic communication. As early as 1976 in the evolution of the concept of charisma, leader communication had been identified as one of the essential attributes of charisma (Boss, 1976). Bringing to light this communication aspect of charisma, Conger (1991) described what he called *the language of leadership*. Conger highlighted the power of the spoken word and its role in charismatic leadership, claiming that leaders must break from their traditional modes of communication, moving to more expressive, more inspirational forms of communication. In this section, the communication facet of charisma will be examined, its development as a concept traced, and the relevant empirical research explored, leading ultimately to the questions posed in the current study.

Similar to the general concept of charisma, the emergence of charismatic communication as a concept can be traced using the Reichers and Schneider (1990)

framework. However, having gained scholarly attention only in the past two decades, the concept of charismatic communication has not developed beyond Reichers and Schneider Stage Two; concept evaluation/augmentation. Based on similar research by Reichers and Schneider concerning organizational culture and climate, Table 3 traces the development of charismatic communication in the scholarly literature according to the Reichers and Schneider stages of development. Having emerged from the broader topic of charisma, the concept of charismatic communication was less mature than its antecedent, and the associated scholarly literature remained incomplete. Utilizing the Reichers and Schneider framework provided insight into the development and evolution of charismatic communication as a concept, and can be used as a predictive model to guide future research.

Table 3

Summary of the Development of the concept of charismatic communication utilizing the stages of the Reichers and Schneider Framework

Stage	Date	Author(s)	Title	Primary Emphasis
1	1949	Parsons, T.	The structure of social action: A study in social theory with special reference to a group of recent European writers.	Reflecting on the writing of Max Weber, speculated that charisma is not a metaphysical entity, but a strictly observable quality setting the stage for a behavioral theory of charisma and the foundation of charismatic communication
1	1976	Boss, G. P.	Essential attributes of the concept of charisma	Commenting on the vague nature of the concept of charisma, identified leader communication as one of nine essential attributes of charisma
1	1980	Friedman, H. S., Prince, L. M., Riggio, R. E., & DiMatteo, M. R.	Understanding and Assessing Nonverbal Expressiveness: The Affective Communication Test	Recognized the dual nature of charismatic communication; verbal and nonverbal. Findings suggested that charismatic communication cannot be equated with manipulative ability or pure acting ability. Rather, expressiveness is closely related to a healthy dramatic flair
1	1984	Kim, M. A. Y.	Communication and the psychology of charisma (hypnosis).	Dissertation. Examined charisma as part of the persuasion process of charismatic leaders separate from the social structure within which they operate. Results revealed that the Integrative Complexity Scale did not reliably discriminate leader's communication.

Stage	Date	Author(s)	Title	Primary Emphasis
1	1985	Schmid, W. F.	The charismatic: A model of effective communication	Established an empirical basis for distinguishing high charismatic communication from low or non-charismatic communication by way of six variables; authority, empathy, enthusiasm, symbolism, repetition, and rapid speech. Demonstrated that charismatic communicators could be distinguished from non-charismatic communicators by these communication variables.
1	1987	Conger, J.A., & Kanungo, R.N.	Toward a behavioral theory of charismatic leadership in organizational settings.	Theory. Viewed charisma as a set of manifest behaviors exhibited by a leader, one of these behaviors being strong articulation. Questioned whether these attributions could be identified and operationalized in order to develop charismatic qualities among organizational leaders. Noted that this framework required empirical confirmation
1	1989	Howell, J. M., & Frost, P. J.	A laboratory study of charismatic leadership	Laboratory experiment linking charisma to communication delivery. The first research to incorporate delivery into the systematic study of leader charisma. Researchers varied the content and delivery of messages to followers. Because content and delivery were manipulated together, their individual effects on followers could not be determined

Stage	Date	Author(s)	Title	Primary Emphasis
1	1990	Goldhaber, G. M.	Organizational communication	Text book. Isolated five elements used to create leader charisma. Identified exciting, bold communication delivery as the most important element
1	1991	Conger, J. A.	Inspiring others: The language of leadership	Important move toward the examination of communication as a way to explain charisma
2	1993	Holladay, S. J., & Coombs, W. T.	Communicating visions: An exploration of the role of delivery in the creation of leader charisma	Laboratory experiment testing 193 respondents found that communication delivery was linked to perceptions of charisma. Participants were students and were not formally part of an organization
2	1994	Holladay, S. J., & Coombs, W. T.	Speaking of visions and visions being spoken: An exploration of the effects of content and delivery on perceptions of leader charisma	Laboratory experiment testing 184 respondents found that although both content and delivery play a role in the perceptions of charisma, delivery contributes more strongly to perceptions of leader charisma than does content. Participants were students and were not formally part of an organization
2	1993	Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B.	The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory	Established a self-concept based theory of charisma. Theorized that charismatic leadership has its effects on followers by strongly engaging followers self-concepts in part through the articulation of mission, vision, high expectations, and by engaging in communicative processes to mobilize followers to action

Stage	Date	Author(s)	Title	Primary Emphasis
2	1996	Kirkpatrick, S., & Locke, E.	Direct and indirect effects of three core charismatic leadership components on performance and attitudes	Laboratory simulation using trained actors and 282 students and respondents. Contrary to previous finding of Holladay and Coombs (1994), researchers found that communication content was more important than communication style (delivery). Charismatic communication style affected only the perception of charisma. Conflicting results correlate with Reichers and Schneider Stage Two
2	2001	Towler, A. J.	The language of charisma: The effects of training on attitudes, behavior, and performance	Laboratory study investigating the effectiveness of training individuals to be charismatic in their communication style. Demonstrated the efficacy of charismatic communication training for leaders as well as providing evidence of favorable effects on follower performance and attitudes
2	2003	Frese, M., Beigel, S., & Schoenborn, S.	Action training for charismatic leadership: Two evaluations of studies of a commercial training module on inspirational communication of a vision	Reported on two field studies ($N = 25$ and $N = 22$). Findings suggested that inspirational charismatic communication training was successful in producing positive results
2	2006	Groves, K. S.	Leader emotional expressivity, visionary leadership, and organizational change	Field study consisting of 108 senior organizational leaders, 325 of their direct followers, collected from 64 organizations across numerous industries. Found that high emotional expressivity skills (charismatic communication) facilitated the greatest organizational changes

Stage	Date	Author(s)	Title	Primary Emphasis
2	2005	Bell, C. R.	Leader as Partner	Popular article. Contended that, were charismatic communication a prerequisite for effective leadership, organizations would hire talented thespians and actors
2	2006	McCann, J. A. J., Langford, P. H., & Rawlings, R. M.	Testing Behling and McFillens syncretical model of charismatic transformational leadership	Self-reported questionnaires were completed by 178 followers, relating to 29 leaders in 17 organizations, finding that the charismatic leader-follower relationship to be more complex than predicted by the syncretical model
2	2008	Sheafer. T.	Charismatic Communication Skill, Media Legitimacy, and Electoral Success	Field study testing the charismatic communication skill approach. Measured and analyzed direct influences of media and political skills on the electoral success and media legitimacy of politicians. Findings demonstrated that media and political skills, as well as media coverage, can have an important impact on long-term electoral success
2	2010	Levine, K. J., Muenchen, R. A., & Brooks, A. M.	Measuring transformation and charismatic leadership: Why isn't charisma measured?	Testing the existing charisma measurement scales, found these did not adequately measure charismatic communication behaviors. Developed the Charismatic Leadership Communication Scale (CLCS) establishing its validity and reliability

Stage	Date	Author(s)	Title	Primary Emphasis
2	2011	Jones, C. A., & Turkstra, L. S.	Selling the story: Narratives and charisma in adults with TBI	First field application of the Charismatic Leadership Communication Scale (CLCS). Tested seven adult males with traumatic brain injury. Findings suggested that aspects of non-verbal performance, namely gesture use and speech rate, influenced how charismatic an individual is perceived to be and how likely someone is to engage in conversation with that person
2	2012	Antonakis, J.	Transformational and Charismatic Leadership	Text book chapter. Charismatic communication has its detractors. Although wrote favorably regarding charismatic leadership in general, viewed charismatic communication as the use of rhetorical <i>tricks</i> . Concluded that, although research in charismatic leadership is mature, there is still much to be done

Development of Charismatic Communication as a Construct

Charismatic communication has been emphasized as a key component of charisma and charismatic leadership (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Boss, 1976; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). For example, Kirkpatrick and Locke identified three core aspects of charismatic leadership: vision, vision implementation, and charismatic communication. Furthermore, evidence suggested that charismatic communication was associated with improved employee and organizational performance (Frese et al., 2003; Groves, 2006; Howell & Frost, 1989; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Towler, 2001). It follows that leadership training programs may benefit by incorporating a charismatic communication training component, thus warranting further investigation and analysis.

Recognizing the need for scholarly research into charismatic communication, Schmid, (1985), sought to establish an empirical basis for distinguishing high charismatic communication from low or non-charismatic communication by way of six variables; authority, empathy, enthusiasm, symbolism, repetition, and rapid speech. Schmid demonstrated that charismatic communicators could be distinguished from non-charismatic communicators by these communication variables and utilized these findings to formulate a dynamic model of effective leader communication.

Similarly noting the importance of communication to effective leadership, Conger (1991) and Avery (2004) observed that a critical role of organizational leaders was the skillful communication of their organization's mission in ways that generate intrinsic appeal. Conger argued that the tendency among leaders had been to avoid emotional expressiveness and to emphasize more static presentation skills using charts and graphs to

convey ideas. Conger promoted the concept of the organizational executive as a charismatic rhetorician, an inspiring speaker departing from the conventions of contemporary business behavior. Conger suggested that leaders use symbolic language to give their message emotional power, thereby imparting a sense of direction, heightened motivational appeal, and memorability. Similarly, Avery (2004) associated charisma with communication by observing that charismatic leaders relied on the formation of an emotional connection with followers, usually by espousing an appealing and motivating vision, through affirming and optimistic communication.

In laboratory experiments examining the relationship of message delivery and perceptions of charisma, Holladay and Coombs (1993) found that communication delivery was indeed linked to perceptions of charisma. In a follow up study, also a laboratory experiment, Holladay and Coombs (1994) found that although both content and delivery play a role in the perceptions of charisma, the impact of delivery was stronger. Explaining the mechanisms of charismatic communication, Holladay and Coombs (1993) argued that charismatic communication could be divided into two areas: (a) the content of leader messages and (b) the presentation, or delivery of the messages. Pointing out that the content of leader messages could be summarized as vision, Holladay and Coombs (1993, 1994) helped to link charismatic leadership to communication delivery. Holladay and Coombs (1993, 1994) and others (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Conger, 1991; Riggio, 1987) provided evidence that attention should be directed toward the development of skills associated with effective communication delivery.

In another early study exploring the effects of charismatic language, Towler (2001) isolated charismatic communication behaviors and investigated the effectiveness

of training individuals to be charismatic in their communication style. Towler's findings demonstrated not only that charismatic communication style could be trained and learned, but that such training resulted in improved follower performance and attitude. Towler's study, performed in a laboratory setting using 48 undergraduate students as surrogates for leaders, set the stage for field studies in real-life commercial organizations.

A growing number of field studies have been conducted confirming the results of earlier laboratory studies. Howell and Frost (1989) conducted early field investigations into charismatic communication and identified that communication delivery played a strong role in perceptions of charisma, sparking interest into this branch of charismatic leadership. In a field study testing 108 senior organizational leaders, 325 of their direct followers, and collected from 64 organizational across numerous industries, Groves (2006) also supported earlier research (Holladay & Coombs, 1993, 1994; Shamir et al., 1993; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996) finding that high emotional expressivity skills, consistent with charismatic communication, facilitated the greatest organizational change, and leader emotional expressivity was strongly related to visionary leadership. However, an accurate inventory of the elements that comprise charismatic communication had not appeared in the literature.

Elements of Charismatic Communication

Holladay and Coombs (1993) identified communicator delivery style that included the elements of eye contact, vocal variety, facial expression, and hand gestures, that resulted in greater perception of charisma. Other researchers as well have identified various elements of charismatic communication (Frese et al., 2003; Howell & Frost,

1989; Levine, 2008; Shamir et al., 1993; Towler, 2003), and these attributes of charismatic communication are summarized in Table 4.

For purposes of the current investigation, these attributes were consolidated from the various authors and incorporated into the current study's training curriculum. Charismatic communication attributes were selected for incorporation into the current study using the following criteria: consistency across authors and suitability for classroom training within the allotted timeframe.

Effects of Charismatic Communication

Similar to the earlier discussion of charisma and charismatic leadership, the effects of charismatic communication have also been examined and quantified. Towler (2001) demonstrated the effectiveness of training charismatic communication style, concluding that these are acquirable skills. In this laboratory study, Towler investigated the effectiveness of training individuals to be charismatic in their communication style. Participants were 48 students who attended two training sessions of 2 ½ hours each. Towler's findings demonstrated the efficacy of charismatic communication training for leaders as well as providing evidence of favorable effects on follower performance and attitudes. However, the use of actors and surrogates as leaders and followers limited the generalizability of these findings.

Table 4

Summary of Charismatic Communication Attributes by Author

Howell & Frost (1989)	Shamir, House, & Arthur (1993)	Frese, BeimeI, & Schoenborn (2003)	Towler (2003)	Levine (2008)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • captivating and engaging voice tone • pacing and sitting • leaning forward • direct eye contact • animated facial expressions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • emphasize symbolic leader behavior • visionary and inspirational messages • nonverbal communication • appeal to ideological values, • intellectual stimulation of followers by the leader • display of confidence in self and followers • leader expectations for follower self-sacrifice and for performance beyond the call of duty 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • eye contact • gestures • variations of speed and variation of loudness • orientation toward audience • repetition of vision • explaining significance of vision • value appeal • use of metaphors • increase of group self-efficacy • emotional appeal • positive statement • use of "we" form 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • visionary statements • autobiography • metaphors • analogies • raising self-efficacy • story telling • value-laden statements • raising expectations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • can empathize with others • knows when to talk and when to listen • is poised • is a skillful speaker • maintains eye contact during communication • puts others at ease • is enthusiastic • uses powerful language • is persuasive • is comfortable when engaged in public speaking • understands what people want • understands what people need • smiles often • asks others to share ideas • asks others to share their opinions

Similarly, Frese et al. (2003), in two studies ($n = 25$ and $n = 22$), evaluated the effects of inspirational communication of a vision as part of a charismatic leadership training program. Frese et al. demonstrated that an action training program, targeting emotional communication skills as part of a charismatic leadership training program, was successful in developing a set of charismatic communication skills among program participants.

Groves (2006) investigated the direct effects of charismatic communication in terms of leader emotional expressivity skills, allowing leaders to establish an emotional connection with followers, which may overcome resistance to change and produce meaningful organizational changes. Groves overcame the limitations of prior research that utilized trained actors and surrogates to portray leaders and followers by examining a cross section of 108 leaders and 325 of their direct followers from 64 organizations across numerous industries. Moreover, Groves suggested that these emotional communication skills may be developed through training. Indeed, other researchers also concluded that charismatic communication skills may be developed through training.

Sheafer (2008), testing the charismatic communication skill approach, studied the direct influences of media coverage and the political skills of politicians on their electoral success. Sheafer differentiated between *charismatic communication skill* and *charisma* because the latter also includes the leader-followers relationship, while the former focuses only on the skills or behavior of the leader. Findings demonstrated that charismatic communication, combined with political skills, were likely to bring about the attribution of charisma and could have an important impact on long-term electoral success and media legitimacy.

More recently, Jones and Turkstra (2011) applied the Charismatic Leadership Communication Scale (CLCS; Levine et al., 2010) in a test of seven adult males with traumatic brain injury. Findings suggested that aspects of non-verbal performance, namely gesture use and speech rate, influenced the perception of charisma and how likely someone is to engage in conversation with that person.

As is commonly found with constructs in Stage Two, the evaluation/augmentation stage of Reichers and Schneider (1990) framework, the concept of charismatic communication had its detractors. Although writing favorably regarding charismatic leadership, Antonakis (2012) considered charismatic communication to be simply the use of rhetorical tricks. Similarly, Bell (2005) contended that, were charismatic communication a prerequisite for effective leadership, organizations would hire talented thespians and actors. However such conclusions had been countered by the mounting empirical evidence cited in this manuscript supporting the favorable effects of charismatic communication and that have become too compelling to dismiss.

The results of these studies discussed above suggested that organizations may benefit by including charismatic communication in their leadership development programs (Groves, 2006), however, what was not known is whether charismatic communication training could be effective in real-world organizations, such as healthcare, under those training conditions and operational constraints common to these organizations.

As one of the largest industries in the United States and one of the nation's largest employers (U.S. Department of Labor Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, n.d.), there exists considerable benefit potential as a result of improved leadership communication in

the healthcare industry. Yet remarkably, only a relative few studies have explored the charismatic phenomenon in a healthcare setting (Berrett, 2009; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Friedman et al., 1980; Wylie & Gallagher, 2009), and of these few, none have investigated charismatic communication specifically. Thus, the current investigation into charismatic communication skills and its application to the healthcare setting seemed altogether evident and timely. Moreover, in order for such training to be relevant in real-world healthcare settings, it follows that such training be conducted under conditions and constraints common to healthcare organizations. Working under the guidance of healthcare training professionals, the current investigation utilized those training techniques, course duration, and processes commonly seen in healthcare organizations.

Summary and Conclusion

Taken as a whole, a growing body of research has demonstrated the positive effects of charisma and charismatic leadership, including leadership effectiveness, employee satisfaction, and organizational outcomes (Avolio et al., 1998; Babcock-Roberson, & Strickland, 2010; Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Griesser, 2007; Conger et al., 2000; Dvir et al., 2002). Moreover, empirical investigations have suggested that charismatic leadership skills can be operationalized, taught, and learned giving rise to these benefits (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Conger, 1991; Riggio, 1987). Further empirical evidence indicated that attention should be directed to the development of effective communication delivery skills in leaders (Howell & Frost, 1989; Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Holladay & Coombs, 1993, 1994), including those skills associated with charismatic communication (Levine et al., 2010; Towler, 2003). The richness of the research and analysis, accumulated especially in the last two decades, calls for its

application in real-world settings, yet, there were no empirical studies investigating the effects of charismatic communication skills training on leader effectiveness in healthcare organizations under common training conditions and constraints. The present investigation attempted to fill this gap by applying this knowledge to actual leaders in a healthcare organization, thereby enhancing its relevance and practicability to real-world settings.

This, then, is the central purpose of this research; to describe the effects of charismatic communication training on leadership effectiveness in a commercial setting, under ordinary training conditions. The following chapter includes an in-depth review of the quantitative methodologies used in conducting this study and how these methodologies were used to answer the three research questions presented here. Then, in the final chapter, a discussion of the results, limitations, and future implications of this investigation are presented.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Effective communication is central to the role of leadership in organizations and a critical leadership skill linked to enhanced job performance and contributing to improved organizational outcomes (Klauss & Bass, 1982). Given the importance of leadership communication in organizations, intuitively, improving leadership communication effectiveness may be helpful in improving workplace performance. Charismatic communication training has been shown to be an effective method to improve leadership communication in organizations (Conger & Hunt, 1999, Frese et al., 2003; Levine et al., 2010; Towler, 2003), however, applied research into the effects of charismatic communication training in real-world settings under ordinary training conditions had not been thoroughly explored. This dissertation was a comprehensive applied research study intended to provide important evidence for improving the workplace through the application of scientifically-based research with a practical-problem solving emphasis. This study, explanatory in nature, was undertaken to address a particular need within the participant organization, and to examine a practical intervention aimed at providing valuable knowledge to improve the workplace. This chapter provides a detailed step-by-step examination of the research methodology employed including a description of the study population and participants, data collection, analytical methods, and study limitations.

This study sought to answer the following research questions accompanied by their associated research and null hypotheses:

1. What is the impact of charismatic communication training on leader charismatic communication self-efficacy?

H₁1: Participants in the training condition will score higher on charismatic self-efficacy than the non-training condition.

$$H_{11}: \bar{x}_{training} \neq \bar{x}_{non-training}$$

H₀1: There will be no difference in charismatic communication self-efficacy between participants in the training condition and those in the non-training condition.

$$H_{01}: \mu_{training} = \mu_{non-training}$$

2. What is the impact of charismatic communication training on leader ability to demonstrate charismatic communication behaviors?

H₁2: Participants in the training condition will score higher on charismatic communication ability than the non-training condition.

$$H_{12}: \bar{x}_{training} \neq \bar{x}_{non-training}$$

H₀2: There will be no difference in leader charismatic communication ability scores between participants in the training condition and those in the non-training condition.

$$H_{02}: \mu_{training} = \mu_{non-training}$$

3. What is the impact of charismatic communication training on follower perception of leader communication effectiveness?

H₁₃: Follower perception of leader communication effectiveness will be higher for the post-training evaluation period than in the pre-training evaluation period.

$$H_{13}: \bar{x}_{post-training} \neq \bar{x}_{pre-training}$$

H₀₃: There will be no difference in follower perception of leader communication effectiveness between the post-training evaluation period and the pre-training evaluation period.

$$H_{03}: \mu_{post-training} = \mu_{pre-training}$$

Research Design

This section delineates the methods and procedures used to answer each research question and provides the theoretical foundation for the methodology employed. This study was carried out in two parts with Part A focused on identifying the effects of charismatic communication training on leader perceived self-efficacy (Research Question 1) and on leader perceived ability to demonstrate charismatic communication behavior (Research Question 2). Then, Part B focused on the impact of charismatic communication training on follower perception of leader communication effectiveness (Research Question 3). This study was designed to be of minimal risk to participants and the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in conducting this research was not greater than ordinarily encountered in daily life, or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests.

To address the research questions outlined in this study, the researcher utilized a quantitative research methodology in the form of a pretest-posttest non-randomized control group design. Using quantitative research methods allowed the researcher to establish whether a relationship existed between charismatic communication training—

the independent variable—and the observed effects; leader perception of self-efficacy, leader charismatic communication behaviors, and follower perceptions of leader communication effectiveness—the dependent variables. Experts have established the pretest-posttest design as the preferred method to compare participant groups and measure the degree of change occurring as a result of treatments or interventions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

The researcher selected a quasi-experimental design for this study because leaders at ERMH were arranged in intact but geographically distributed business units making it impractical to bring all ERMH leaders together in a single location for random assignment into control and experimental groups. It was more reasonable to assign all the leaders from intact business units to either a control or experimental group. Frese et al. (2003) supported the use of quasi-experimental designs in commercial settings such as ERMH because these designs require the least effort and expense while minimizing interruption to the participating firm.

Without random assignment, however, there was no guarantee that the two groups were similar in every respect prior to the experimental treatment. Still, by comparing demographic variables and through the administration of a pretest, the researcher was able to confirm that the two groups were at least similar in terms of demographics and the dependent variables under investigation. Consequently, having established group equivalence and delivery of the experimental treatment in the form of charismatic communication training, it became reasonable to conclude that post-treatment differences found with respect to the dependent variables were probably due to that treatment (Leedy & Ormrod).

This research study took place during a three-month period from July through September, 2011 at ERMH. Recognizing the potential benefit to organizational performance, senior leaders at ERMH believed leadership communication within the organization would benefit from scholarly examination and applied research intervention. ERMH was comprised of approximately 20 geographically distinct business units and a centralized corporate office, and each business unit provided a continuum of healthcare services for communities in their market area. Although these business units were geographically distributed, all were located within a few hundred miles of the centralized corporate office.

ERMH corporate offices provided centralized support for the functions of finance, human resources, organizational development, clinical operations, strategic services, decision support, and information services. The business units and corporate offices of ERMH were organizationally similar, each having an organizational hierarchy consisting of a senior level administrator or director position, together with managers, supervisors, coordinators, and staff level positions. In addition, the corporate office included president and vice president level positions. ERMH business units and corporate offices were, largely, homogeneous in nature, with employees and leaders of similar cultural, age, race, and socio-economic status. Although it may be argued that some business units may be differentiated based on whether their location was suburban or rural, this distinction was not considered of interest for this study.

Part A

In order to answer Research Questions 1 and 2 and test the associated null hypotheses for Part A of this study, experimental and control groups were created and

identified by the terms *training condition*, indicating the experimental group receiving the treatment, and the *non-training condition*, identifying the control group receiving no treatment. The geographically dispersed business units were randomly divided by coin-toss into training condition—the south region—and non-training condition—the north region.

The ERMH human resources department provided a list of organizational leaders ($N = 136$) who had direct supervisory or organizational responsibility over other organizational staff. The president of ERMH sent a letter of invitation by email to all 136 organizational leaders. The invitation included an introduction to the researcher, an overview of the study, anonymity of participation, and the voluntary nature of participation. Following this invitation, the researcher invited all ERMH leaders, again by email, to participate in the study, reiterating the overview of the study, anonymity of participation, and the voluntary nature of participation. Invitees were asked to register for one of eight charismatic communication courses, four in the southern region and four in the northern region. Participants in the northern region—the control group—were also directed to complete an automated, on-line pretest consisting of the CCSS and CLCS instruments. Those in the training condition completed the CCSS and CLCS pretest instruments in-person prior to participating in training.

Two to four weeks following registration, participants attended one of the eight scheduled charismatic communication training courses. The eight training courses were conducted during a 30-day period in July and August, 2011 and, to avoid peak work periods, courses were held on Tuesdays or Thursdays during the hours of 10:30 a.m. to 1:30 p.m. Each training course was three hours in length and included two hours of actual

charismatic communication training with one hour dedicated to breaks and to completing the required research documents including informed consent, demographic profile, and the pre and posttest instruments.

The primary researcher conducted the training following the same script and training materials for each of the eight courses. Each began with an overview of the research study, expected benefits, and potential risks, and after allowing time for questions, the researcher instructed participants to complete the informed consent forms, demographic questionnaire, and the CCSS and CLCS survey instruments. Following the completion of the pre-course procedures, the researcher conducted the charismatic communication training using ordinary classroom style training methods common to healthcare organizations. Based primarily on previous research by Frese et al. (2003), Howell and Frost (1989), Levine et al. (2010), Schmir et al. (1993), and Towler (2001), the two-hour charismatic communication curriculum (see Appendix D) consisted of didactic instruction supplemented by a PowerPoint slide presentation interspersed with video examples and facilitated discussion. Training included an overview and brief history of charisma and charismatic leadership, a description of charismatic communication and how it differs from conventional public speaking instruction, followed by the actual training in charismatic communication including rhetorical devices such as the use of visionary statements, autobiography, metaphors, analogies, raising follower self-efficacy, and storytelling; nonverbal and paraverbal behaviors including captivating and engaging voice tone, pacing and sitting, leaning forward, direct eye contact, and animated facial expressions. Participants were also provided the opportunity to share personal examples of charismatic communication behaviors as well as to identify

these behaviors in video vignettes. All participants were provided a paper copy of the PowerPoint presentation. The course concluded with a question and answer session and by having the participants complete the CCSS and CLCS posttests.

Part B

For Part B of this study, and to address the third research question and test the associated null hypothesis, a simple time-series experiment was conducted measuring follower perception of leader communication effectiveness over time, both before and after the introduction of leader charismatic communication training. This method was chosen because Leedy and Ormrod (2010) recommended such time-series experiments when measuring a dependent variable on several occasions, introducing an intervention such as training, and then making additional observations. The researcher obtained Employee Opinion Survey (EOS) results for survey periods 2007, 2008, 2010, and 2011 (ERMH did not conduct the EOS during the 2009 survey period and therefore EOS results were not available for this period). Senior leaders at ERMH invited all employees, both leaders and staff, to participate in the EOS process. The 2011 EOS took place approximately two months following the completion of leader charismatic communication training, allowing for the comparison of pre-training and post-training EOS rating of leader communication effectiveness. In the participation organization, it would be common for a leader to communicate several times with followers during the two-month time frame between the time leaders received charismatic communication training and their followers rating leader communication effectiveness. Such communication would likely have occurred between leaders and followers through one-on-one interactions, and both small and large group settings. Although this seemingly

brief time period was certainly a limitation of the study, the opportunity conceivably existed for follower perceptions to be reflected in the survey results.

Population

In this section, all individuals participating in the study are described, including the size of the population, characteristics of the sample, and demographics of the participant groups. The population for Part A of this study included all leaders at ERMH. With the assistance of senior leaders at ERMH, a leader was defined as an individual who had direct supervisory or organizational responsibility over other organizational staff. In all, ERMH employed 136 leaders and all were invited to participate in this study. Of the 136 invitees, 97 leaders actually participated in the study, and of these, the responses of five participants were purged because one or more of the survey instruments were not completed. The researcher accepted a convenience sample because only those leaders who were available participated in the study. Of the remaining $n = 92$ participants, 47 participated in the training condition and 45 participated in the non-training condition. The sample size of 92 provided an alpha of 0.05 with a confidence level of 90%.

For Part B of this study, the population included all ERMH employees, $N = 1,926$, and included all 136 leaders identified in Part A of this study. The researcher obtained approval to access this archival database and accepted a convenience sample of the responses for all ERMH employees, $n = 955$, that chose to take part in the 2011 EOS and were employed in one of the business units participating in the study. Because data for Part B of the current study was taken from archival records and not obtained directly by the researcher, demographic information for the ERMH employee population was not

available. The sample size of 955 provided an alpha of 0.03 with a confidence level of 99%.

Data Collection

This section provides a description of the variables investigated, how each was measured, the data collection procedures employed, as well as an account and rationale for each of the instruments used in the study.

Procedures and Instrumentation

For Part A of the study, participants in the training condition met in-person with the researcher as part of the charismatic communication course, completing the demographic questionnaire, CCSS, and CLCS pretest instruments prior to training, and the CCSS and CLSC posttest instruments immediately following training. In order to provide an suitable time interval between pretesting and posttesting, participants in the non-training condition completed the CCSS and CLCS pretests through an on-line survey two to four weeks prior to meeting in-person with the researcher and completing the demographic questionnaire, CCSS, and CLCS posttest instruments. To assure participant confidentiality and anonymity, all survey and demographic questionnaires were de-identified and coded with a unique numeric identifier known only to the researcher. Once the data was tabulated, only this number was used to identify the participant responses.

Demographic Data

Participant demographic information was obtained in order to establish group equivalence and to stratify participants by various characteristics. The researcher created a demographic questionnaire consisting of 17 questions such as age, gender, education, and years of experience. Participants in both the training condition and non-training

conditions completed the questionnaire in-person in the presence of the researcher. A copy of the demographic questionnaire can be found in Appendix C.

Self-efficacy Data

To answer the first research question—What is the impact of charismatic communication training on leader self-perception of efficacy?—test the associated null hypothesis, and measure the effect of the experimental treatment, the researcher employed the 6-item CCSS developed and tested by Towler (2001). Towler reported Coefficient alphas of $\alpha = .90$ to $\alpha = .92$ for this instrument. A copy of this measurement tool can be found in Appendix A. The researcher selected the CCSS as the measurement instrument for this study because of its specificity to charismatic communication and because it has been shown to be a valid and reliable instrument measuring leader perception of charismatic communication self-efficacy (Towler, 2001). The CCSS consisted of six statements rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from *Very Unconfident* to *Very Confident*. These six statements were as follows:

- Your ability to give a speech while being videotaped,
- Your ability to communicate in a confident and animated style,
- Your ability to motivate others through communication,
- Your ability to give speeches that are inspiring,
- Your ability to talk about your own experiences while making a speech,
- Your ability to inspire others with you vision. (p.143)

Those in the training condition completed the CCSS pretest in-person prior to attending charismatic communication training and the CCSS posttest immediately following training. Those in the non-training condition completed the CCSS pretest

through an on-line survey, followed two to four weeks later by an in-person meeting with the researcher to complete the CCSS posttest survey.

Charismatic Communion Behavior Data

To answer the second research question—What is the impact of charismatic communication training on leader ability to demonstrate charismatic communication behaviors?—test the associated null hypothesis, and to measure the effect of the experimental treatment on leader ability to demonstrate charismatic communication behaviors, the researcher employed the 15-item CLCS developed and tested by Levine et al. (2010). Levine et al. reported the CLCS to be both a reliable and valid measure of charismatic communication behaviors, reporting a Coefficient alpha of $\alpha = .889$. Moreover, Towler's (2001) CCSS instrument and Levine et al. CLCS, were the only two scales found in the literature that were specific to charismatic communication. A copy of the CLCS can be found in Appendix B.

Following the same procedures used to answer the first research question, those in the training condition completed the CLCS pretest in-person prior to attending charismatic communication training and the CLCS posttest immediately following training. Those in the non-training condition completed the CLCS pretest through an on-line survey, followed two to four weeks later by an in-person meeting with the researcher to complete the CLCS posttest survey. Following the completion of all instruments related to Part A of the study, those in the non-training condition also attended the charismatic communication training course in fulfillment of an agreement with ERMH leadership to provide all leaders with the opportunity to participate in training, and thus

setting the stage for Part B of the study, testing follower perception of leader communication effectiveness.

Leader Communication Effectiveness Data

For Part B of the study and to answer the third research question—What is the impact of charismatic communication training on follower perception of leader communication effectiveness?—and to test the associated null hypothesis, the researcher analyzed the ERMH annual Employee Opinion Survey (EOS) data. All ERMH employees were invited to participate in this regularly conducted survey consisting of 68 questions measuring a broad spectrum of employee sentiment. For the purposes of this study, the researcher selected a single survey item—*The person I report to is a good communicator*—as a measure of follower perception of leader communication effectiveness. Selecting this single survey question seemed appropriate considering that ERMH senior leadership utilized this survey question as an indicator of leader communication effectiveness within the organization. Respondents rated this item on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 5 = *Strongly Agree* to 1 = *Strongly Disagree*. The survey was designed and administered by a third-party vendor who conducted validity and reliability testing for this survey question, and reported a Coefficient alpha of $\alpha = 0.93$ (T. Byrd, Morehead Associates, personal communication, February 9, 2011). The researcher obtained historical, pre-treatment data from ERMH archival records consisting of EOS scores obtained during the months of October and November for years 2007 ($N =$ unavailable), 2008 ($N = 1,186$), and 2010 ($N = 1,044$). Post treatment survey results were obtained following the regularly planned administration of the EOS to all employees during the months of October and November for 2011 ($N = 955$).

Data Collection Irregularities

Data integrity is of primary concern in any research study. Data irregularities identified during the course of this study were handled systematically and consistent with common standards of data integrity (Salkind, 2009). In addition to the five participants originally eliminated from Part A due to incomplete survey instruments, other irregularities were uncovered during data collection. Data was missing for a total of three questions in the combined CCSS and CLCS surveys. The researcher replaced the missing data with the mean score for the remaining responses from the individual participant. In total, for the data set representing Research Questions 1 and 2, there were 3,862 data entries, of which three, or 0.08%, were missing, and thus replaced with the participant mean. These irregularities were considered negligible and having no material impact on the study results.

Analytical Methods

Descriptive and inferential statistics, both parametric and non-parametric, were used to determine the main effects of the independent variables—charismatic communication training and time between pre and posttesting, and the dependant variables—leader self-efficacy, leader charismatic communication behavior, and follower perceptions of leader effectiveness. Descriptive statistics, chi-square tests, and one-way ANOVAs were used to examine demographic variables including age, gender, educational level, organizational position, years employed at ERMH, years in current position, and years of supervisory experience. This section identifies the procedures used to analyze the data and to answer each research question, including the graphical devises, statistical methods, as well as the rationale for using the techniques selected. Also

included are the procedures used to establish group equivalence for Part A of the study and to confirm the reliability and validity of the scales used. Table 5 displays the demographic variables including means and standard deviations for both the training and non-training conditions.

Table 5

Participant Demographic Information for Part A of Study

Variable	Training Condition		Non-Training Condition		<i>F</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Age	48.0	10.9	48.9	10.4	0.16
Years Employed at ERMH	10.1	7.2	7.8	5.5	2.97
Years in Current Position	6.2	4.2	5.3	3.8	1.15
Years of Supervisory Experience (all employers)	11.9	9.7	13.6	9.6	0.63
Variable	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>X</i> ²
Gender					0.021
Female	38.0	80.9	36.0	80.0	
Male	9.0	19.1	9.0	20.0	
Position					8.43
President	0.0	0.0	1.0	2.2	
Vice President	5.0	10.6	1.0	2.2	
Director	29.0	61.7	31.0	68.9	
Manager	1.0	2.1	3.0	6.7	
Supervisor	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
Coordinator	8.0	17.0	6.0	13.3	
Other	4.0	8.5	3.0	6.7	
Highest Education Level					1.62
Doctorate	1.0	2.1	1.0	2.2	
Master's	12.0	25.5	11.0	24.4	
Bachelor's	15.0	31.9	13.0	28.9	
Some College	18.0	38.3	17.0	37.8	
High School	1.0	2.1	3.0	6.7	

Scale Validity and Reliability

Statistical analyses were conducted to estimate the internal consistency of both the Charismatic Communication Self-Efficacy Scale (CCSS) and the Charismatic Leadership Communication Scale (CLCS). These analyses included all participant responses for both pre and posttest results in both the training and non-training conditions ($N = 184$). The Coefficient alpha was $\alpha = .92$ for the CCSS, and $\alpha = .93$ for the CLCS, indicating a high degree of internal consistency among scale items, and supporting the findings of Towler (2001), for the CCSS, and Levine et al. (2010), for the CLCS.

Additionally, in order to confirm scale reliability, the researcher performed a test-retest reliability analysis for both the CCSS and CLCS scales. A correlation coefficient was used to compare the non-training condition means of pre and posttest scores for both scales. For the CCSS scale, the test-retest reliability coefficient was .83, indicating a high degree of internal consistency between the CCSS pretest ($M = 4.59$, $SD = 1.04$) and the CCSS re-test ($M = 4.64$, $SD = 1.21$). Similarly for the CLCS, the test-retest reliability coefficient was also .83, indicating a high degree of internal consistency between the CLCS pretest ($M = 3.88$, $SD = .466$) and the CLCS re-test ($M = 3.84$, $SD = .592$).

For Part B of the study, the researcher accepted the validity and reliability provided by the third-party administrator for the employee opinion survey (EOS) and, as reported earlier in this paper, reported a Coefficient alpha of $\alpha = 0.93$ (T. Byrd, Morehead Associates, personal communication, February 9, 2011).

Establishing Group Equivalence

In order to establish group equivalence between the training and non-training conditions and thereby reducing the possibility of error due to unequal groups, the

researcher conducted one-way, between subjects ANOVA for interval variables. Results verified that there were no significant differences between the training and non-training conditions for; years employed at ERMH, $F(1, 90) = 2.97, p > .05, \eta^2 = .032$; for years in current position, $F(1, 89) = 1.15, p > .05, \eta^2 = .013$; for total years in a supervisory position, $F(1, 83) = .635, p > .05, \eta^2 = .008$; and for age, $F(1, 90) = .160, p > .05, \eta^2 = .002$. Using Chi-square analyses for categorical variables, no significant proportional differences were found between the training and non-training conditions for; education level, $X^2(4, N = 47) = 1.62, p > .05$; gender, $X^2(1, N = 47) = .021, p > .05$; or organizational position, $X^2(5, N = 47) = 8.43, p > .05$. These results provided sufficient evidence to conclude that the training and non-training conditions were indeed statistically homogeneous.

Research Questions

To answer the first research question and test the associated null hypothesis, the pre and post-treatment CCSS survey data for both control and experimental groups were tested to determine whether the means of the two groups differed significantly. The researcher assumed equal intervals for the pre and post-treatment data obtained through the CCSS instrument and analyzed the means of the training condition and non-training condition using a mixed factorial ANOVA to test for the main effects of time (within subject variables), the main effects of treatment (between subjects variables), and the training \times time interaction. To accept or reject the hypotheses, the researcher utilized a significance level of $p < .05$. An interaction plot provided a graphic representation of the training \times time interaction.

Similarly, to answer second research question and test the associated null hypothesis, the pre and post-treatment CLCS survey data for both control and experimental groups were tested to determine whether a statistically significant difference existed between the two means. The researcher again assumed equal intervals for the pre and post-treatment data obtained through the CLCS instrument, and utilized a mixed factorial ANOVA to test for the main effects of time (within subject variables), the main effects of treatment (between subjects variables), and the training \times time interaction.. To accept or reject the hypotheses, the researcher utilized a significance level of $p < .05$. Again, an interaction plot provided a graphic representation of the training \times time interaction.

For Part B of the study, analyses were performed to answer the third research question and to test the associated null hypothesis utilizing the pre and post-treatment EOS survey data for all business units participating in the study. Archival data for previous survey periods provided baseline comparisons of pre-treatment employee sentiment. Thirty to sixty days following the completion of charismatic communication training for organizational leaders, the EOS was repeated thus providing a post-treatment measurement. A one-way, repeated measures, within-subjects ANOVA was conducted comparing the pre-treatment and post-treatment scores. To accept or reject the hypotheses, the researcher utilized a significance level of $p < .05$. A simple time-series plot provided a graphic representation of the EOS scores over time, both before and after the experimental treatment.

Limitations

Though the present study offered a number of valuable findings to the literature, there were of course limitations to the study as well. In this section, those limitations that were most meaningful or having the greatest potential impact are explained, including how the findings may have been affected and suggesting how such limitations may be overcome in the future.

Methodological Limitations

The first of these limitations was the reliance upon participant self-reported data for Part A of the study. Robson (2002) explained, in his textbook exploring real world research, that some may doubt the credibility or objectivity of participants reporting on something in which they are centrally involved. Because self-reported data is limited by the inability to independently verify the information, this presents a methodological limitation to the study. For example, for Research Question 1, although Bandura (1997) established perceived self-efficacy as a major predictor of action, self-reported data contain several potential sources of bias such as the exaggeration or embellishment of events as more significant than exist in fact. Additionally, it was unclear from this study whether the two-month timeframe between the completion of leader training and the EOS measurement of follower perception provided sufficient opportunity for leaders to demonstrate charismatic communication behaviors and for these behaviors to influence follower perception of leader communication effectiveness. Specifically, did participants actually utilize the acquired skills, and what were their experiences? To overcome this limitation, future studies might focus on the longitudinal effects of charismatic

communication training on leader communication effectiveness, as these remain unknown.

As noted in similar studies (Frese et al., 2003), there were aspects of charismatic communication training that were outside the scope of this investigation but that may have provided valuable knowledge to improve the workplace. It would have been interesting, for example, if the control group design as used in Part A of the study could have been carried over into Part B, and follower perception of leader communication effectiveness compared for the training and non-training conditions. Likewise, measuring the long-term objective effects of charismatic communication training on organizational performance and business outcomes would have undoubtedly been considered valuable by the sponsoring organization. Incorporating longitudinal data into their designs, future researchers may well provide a clearer understanding of the effects of charismatic communication training over time, and insight into the maturation and retention of this knowledge among the participants. Logistically however, it was not feasible to undertake these activities within the scope and time constraints of this study.

Instrumentation Limitations

Although the EOS measured a broad range of employee attitudes and provided valuable information to senior leadership of the participating organization, it was not specific to leader communication effectiveness. Intuitively, a single general question regarding communication efficacy can hardly capture the full dimensionality of the communication dynamic, raising questions regarding the instrument's face and content validity for communication effectiveness (Salkind, 2009). Nevertheless, senior leaders at ERMH accepted this measure as valid and reliable, using the information obtained to

drive improved organizational performance. Subsequent investigators might consider a more specific measure representing all facets of the leadership communication effectiveness construct.

Researcher Limitations

Experimenter effects may also be considered a threat to the external validity of the study. Although by having a single individual conduct all the training sessions may have helped preserve the internal validity and control of the study, experimenter effects might have influenced the observed outcomes of the study, thereby limiting the generalizability of the findings (Salkind, 2009). The experimenter may have actually produced the expected behavior in study participants by unknowingly driving data in the direction of the expected hypothesis (Rosenthal, 1976).

In sum, additional studies are needed to establish the longitudinal effects of charismatic communication training, specifically testing the hypotheses that charismatic communication training results in leader behavioral changes responsible for improved employee and organizational performance. Moreover, researchers should measure actual observed behavior following training such as leader experiences and utilization of the acquired skills, thus minimizing participant self-reporting bias. Finally, longitudinal designs are indispensable for assessing the stability of effects over time and for determining the appropriate time delay necessary for leadership training sessions to exert their intended effects.

Summary

This chapter provided a detailed step-by-step examination of the research methodology employed, delineating the methods and procedures used to answer each

research question and provided the theoretical foundation for the methodology employed.

Next, in the fourth and final chapter, the results of the data collection and analyses are reported, conclusions drawn, and implications and recommendations offered.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

This study has examined the concept of charisma and charismatic communication, tracing its evolution as a construct, and then taking the next logical step in describing this phenomenon. In this final chapter, the results of the data collection and analysis are reported, the research questions answered, and the null hypotheses accepted or rejected accompanied by a discussion and interpretation of the findings. Lastly, the conclusions, implications, and recommendations resulting from this investigation are presented.

The term charisma has been in existence for millennia, but in recent years a growing body of research has demonstrated the positive effects of charisma and charismatic leadership, including leadership effectiveness, employee satisfaction, and organizational outcomes (Avolio et al., 1998; Babcock-Roberson, & Strickland, 2010; Boerner et al., 2007; Conger et al., 2000; Dvir et al., 2002). Moreover, empirical investigations have suggested that charismatic leadership skills can be operationalized, taught, and learned giving rise to these benefits (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Conger, 1991; Riggio, 1987). Further empirical evidence has indicated that attention should be directed to the development of effective communication delivery skills in leaders (Howell & Frost, 1989; Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Holladay & Coombs, 1993, 1994), including those skills associated with charismatic communication (Levine et al.,

2010; Towler, 2003). The richness of the research and analysis, accumulated especially in the last two decades, calls for its application in real-world settings, yet, the effects of charismatic communication skills training on leader effectiveness in organizations such as healthcare, under common training conditions and constraints, lacks just such empirical investigation.

Finally, if the potential positive effects of charismatic communication are to be realized on a large scale, if managers and leaders are to build these skills into their strategies to give rise to more effective organizations, then it is time for these concepts to be tested in real-world organizations, under ordinary training conditions, and their effect on leader communication effectiveness quantified. The present investigation attempted to fill this gap by applying the knowledge of charismatic communication to the training of actual leaders in a healthcare organization, framing the study under conditions and constraints commonly found in healthcare and other organizations, and thereby enhancing the relevance and practicability of this knowledge to real-world settings.

Research Questions

The central purpose of this research, then, was to describe the effects of charismatic communication training on leadership communication effectiveness in a commercial setting, under ordinary training conditions, thus providing the empirical evidence necessary to extend the body of knowledge pertinent to charismatic communication, and to aid organizations such as ERMH to improve leadership communication and to realize valued organizational outcomes. To this end, this study was guided by the following research questions accompanied by their associated research and null hypotheses:

1. What is the impact of charismatic communication training on leader charismatic communication self-efficacy?

H₁1: Participants in the training condition will score higher on charismatic self-efficacy than the non-training condition.

$$H_{11}: \bar{x}_{training} \neq \bar{x}_{non-training}$$

H₀1: There will be no difference in charismatic communication self-efficacy between participants in the training condition and those in the non-training condition.

$$H_{01}: \mu_{training} = \mu_{non-training}$$

2. What is the impact of charismatic communication training on leader ability to demonstrate charismatic communication behaviors?

H₁2: Participants in the training condition will score higher on charismatic communication ability than the non-training condition.

$$H_{12}: \bar{x}_{training} \neq \bar{x}_{non-training}$$

H₀2: There will be no difference in leader charismatic communication ability scores between participants in the training condition and those in the non-training condition.

$$H_{02}: \mu_{training} = \mu_{non-training}$$

3. What is the impact of charismatic communication training on follower perception of leader communication effectiveness?

H₁3: Follower perception of leader communication effectiveness will be higher for the post-training evaluation period than in the pre-training evaluation period.

$$H_{13}: \bar{x}_{post-training} \neq \bar{x}_{pre-training}$$

H₀₃: There will be no difference in follower perception of leader communication effectiveness between the post-training evaluation period and the pre-training evaluation period.

$$H_{03}: \mu_{post-training} = \mu_{pre-training}$$

Research Methods

This study was carried out in two parts with Part A focused on identifying the effects of charismatic communication training on leader perceived self-efficacy (Research Question 1) and on leader perceived ability to demonstrate charismatic communication behavior (Research Question 2). Then, Part B focused on the impact of charismatic communication training on follower perception of leader communication effectiveness (Research Question 3).

To answer the first research question and test the associated null hypothesis, the researcher analyzed pre and post-treatment CCSS survey data obtained from control and experimental groups in order to determine whether the mean scores of the two groups differed significantly. The researcher assumed equal intervals for the pre and post-treatment data obtained through the CCSS instrument and analyzed the means of the training condition and non-training condition using a mixed factorial ANOVA to test for the main effects of time (within subject variables), the main effects of treatment (between subjects variables), and the training \times time interaction. To accept or reject the hypotheses, the researcher utilized a significance level of $p < .05$. An interaction plot provided a graphic representation of the training \times time interaction.

Similarly, to answer second research question and test the associated null hypothesis, the researcher analyzed pre and post-treatment CLCS survey data obtained from the control and experimental groups in order to determine whether a statistically significant difference existed between the two means. The researcher again assumed equal intervals for the pre and post-treatment data obtained through the CLCS instrument, and utilized a mixed factorial ANOVA to test for the main effects of time (within subject variables), the main effects of treatment (between subjects variables), and the training \times time interaction.. To accept or reject the hypotheses, the researcher utilized a significance level of $p < .05$. Again, an interaction plot provided a graphic representation of the training \times time interaction.

For Part B of the study, the researcher performed analyses to answer the third research question and to test the associated null hypothesis utilizing the pre and post-treatment EOS survey data for all business units participating in the study. Archival data from previous survey periods provided a baseline comparison of pre-treatment employee sentiment. Thirty to sixty days following the completion of charismatic communication training for organizational leaders, the EOS was repeated thus providing a post-treatment measurement. Performing a one-way, repeated measures, within-subjects ANOVA, the researcher compared the pre-treatment and post-treatment scores. To accept or reject the hypotheses, the researcher utilized a significance level of $p < .05$. A simple time-series plot provided a graphic representation of the EOS scores over time, both before and after the experimental treatment.

Findings

Research Question 1

The first research question was designed to determine the effects of charismatic communication training on leader perceived self-efficacy. Pretest and posttest means and standard deviations for the training condition and non-training condition are reported in Table 6.

Table 6

Pretest and Posttest Means and Standard Deviations for the CCSS Scores

	Time				
	Pretest		Posttest		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Training Condition	4.45	1.12	5.73	0.803	5.074*
Non-Training Condition	4.59	1.04	4.64	1.21	-0.63

* $p < .01$

A 2 × 2 mixed factorial ANOVA was conducted to determine whether a significant difference existed with training (training, non-training) as the between subjects factor, and time (pretest, posttest) as the within subjects factor, and whether a training × time interaction effect was evident. The results demonstrated a significant main effect for training, $F(1, 90) = 5.12, p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .05$, and a significant main effect for time, $F(1, 90) = 76.38, p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .46$. Those in the training condition reported significantly greater charismatic communication self-efficacy than those in the non-training condition. A significant training × time interaction was also observed with a Greenhouse-Geisser adjusted $F(1, 90) = 76.38, p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .459$. Additionally,

simple pairwise comparisons were conducted for training at each level of time. The results indicated that those in the training condition ($M = 5.73$, $SD = .803$) had significantly higher charismatic communication self-efficacy scores on the CCSS posttest than did those in the non-training condition ($M = 4.64$, $SD = 1.21$), $t(90) = 5.074$, $p < .01$, $d = .4763$. As would be expected, those in the training condition ($M = 4.45$, $SD = 1.12$) did not score significantly different on the CCSS pretest than did participants in the non-training condition ($M = 4.59$, $SD = 1.04$), $t(90) = -.630$, $p > .05$, $d = -.591$. Table 7 and Table 8 display the results of the ANOVA for the measure of charismatic communication self-efficacy.

Table 7

Mixed Model Factorial ANOVA Tests of Within-Subjects Effects for Charismatic Communication Self-efficacy

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Time	20.450	1.000	20.450	90.346	0.00	.501
Time * Condition	17.290	1.000	17.290	76.382	0.00	.459
Error(Time)	20.372	90.000	.226			

Table 8

Mixed Model Factorial ANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Charismatic Communication Self-efficacy

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	4328.432	1.000	4328.432	2170.520	0.00	.960
Condition	10.206	1.000	10.206	5.118	0.03	.054
Error	179.477	90.000	1.994			

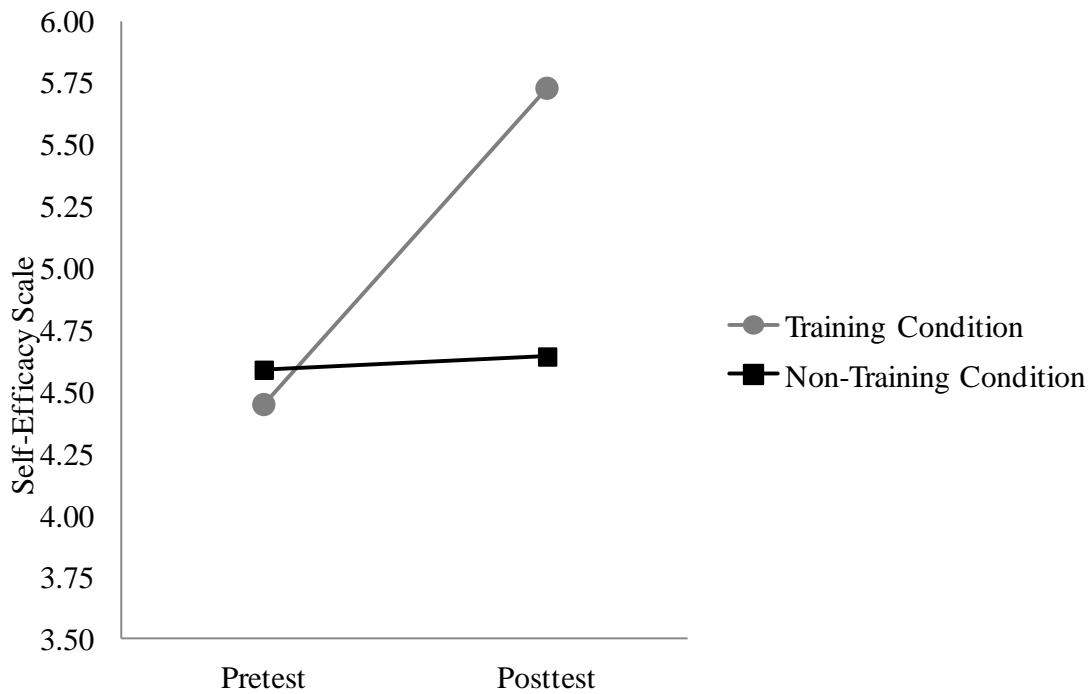


Figure 4. Interaction Plot of 2 x 2 mixed factorial ANOVA for CCSS confirming the presence of a significant interaction. The change in the simple main effect of one independent variable (training; non-training) over levels of the other independent variable

(pretest; posttest) can most easily be seen in the graph of the interaction. The lines describing the simple main effects are not parallel; therefore the possibility of a significant interaction was evident. Two effects are evident from this interaction plot. First, because the pre-test and post-test means are of different heights, the main effect of time was significant. Second, the training \times time interaction was significant because the simple main effects of pretest and posttest are different from the main effect of testing. Because the lines representing the training condition and non-training condition intersect, a cross-over interaction exists, providing further support of an interaction. Accordingly, for Research Question 1, these data analyses—the 2×2 mixed factorial ANOVA and associated Interaction Plot—indicates that the null hypothesis, H_01 (There will be no difference in charismatic communication self-efficacy between participants in the training condition and those in the non-training condition), must be rejected, and that the research hypothesis, H_11 (Participants in the training condition will score higher on charismatic self-efficacy than the non-training condition) must be accepted.

Research Question Two

The second research question was designed to determine the effects of charismatic communication training on leader charismatic communication behavioral ability. Pretest and posttest means and standard deviations for the training condition and non-training condition are reported in Table 9.

Table 9

Pretest and Posttest Means and Standard Deviations for the CLCS Scores

	Time				
	Pretest		Posttest		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Training Condition	3.77	0.551	4.34	0.427	4.67*
Non-Training Condition	3.88	0.466	3.84	0.592	-0.975

* $p < .01$

A 2 × 2 mixed factorial ANOVA was conducted to determine whether a significant difference existed with training (training, non-training) as the between subjects factor, and time (pretest, posttest) as the within subjects factor, and whether a training × time interaction was evident. Results showed there was no significant main effect for training, $F(1, 90) = 3.85, p > .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$. Those in the training condition did not score significantly different in charismatic communication behavior than those in the non-training condition. There was, however, a significant main effect for time, $F(1, 90) = 59.50, p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .398$, with those in the training condition scoring significantly higher on charismatic communication behavior posttest as compared to their pretest scores. There was also a significant training × time interaction, Greenhouse-Geisser adjusted, $F(1, 90) = 75.9, p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .458$. Simple effects analyses were conducted for training at each level of time. The results indicated that those in the training condition ($M = 4.34, SD = .427$) had significantly higher charismatic leadership communication behavioral scores on the CLCS posttest than did those in the non-training condition ($M = 3.84, SD = .592$), $t(90) = 4.67, p < .01, d = 43.83$. There was

no significant difference in CLCS pretest scores between those in the training condition ($M = 3.77$, $SD = .551$) and those in the non-training condition ($M = 3.88$, $SD = .466$), $t(90) = -.975$, $p > .05$, $d = -.15$. Table 10 and Table 11 display the results of the ANOVA for the measure of charismatic communication behavior.

Table 10

Mixed Model Factorial ANOVA Tests of Within-Subjects Effects for Charismatic Communication Behavior

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Time	3.296	1.000	3.296	59.502	0.00	.398
Time * Condition	4.206	1.000	4.206	75.928	0.00	.458
Error(Time)	4.986	90.000	.055			

Table 11

Mixed Model Factorial ANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Charismatic Communication Behaviors

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	2880.366	1.000	2880.366	6121.698	0.00	.986
Condition	1.812	1.000	1.812	3.852	0.05	.041
Error	42.347	90.000	.471			

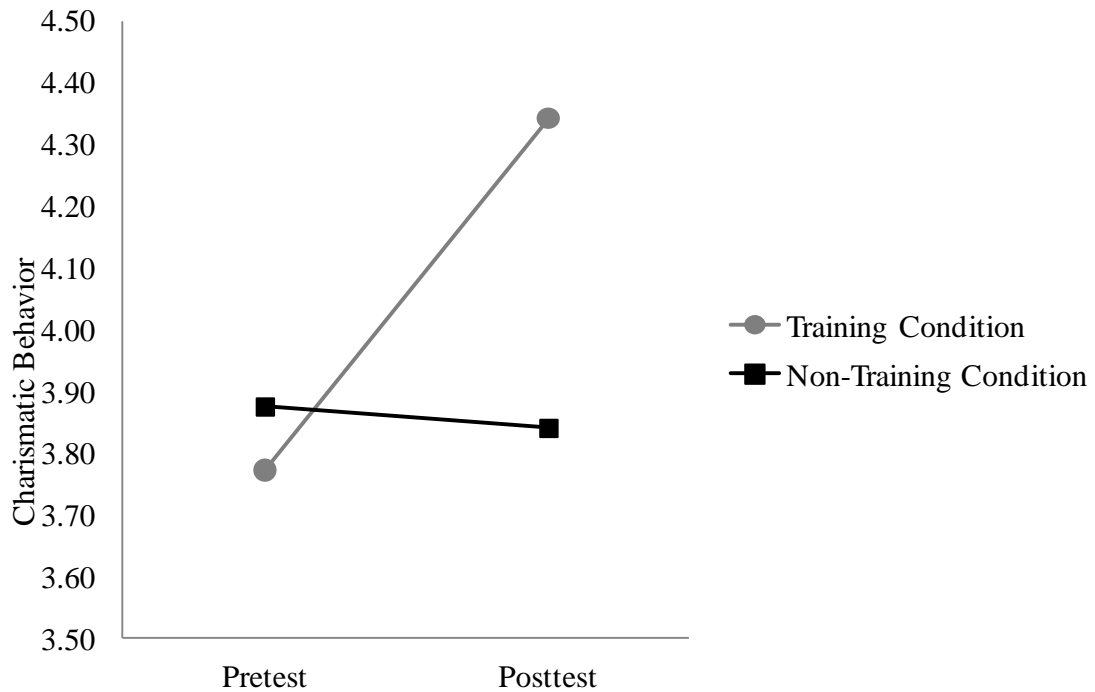


Figure 5. Interaction Plot of 2 x 2 mixed factorial ANOVA for CLCS. The change in the simple main effect of one independent variable (training; non-training) over levels of the other independent variable (pretest; posttest) is most easily seen in this graph of the interaction. The lines describing the simple main effects are not parallel; therefore the possibility of a significant interaction was evident. Similar to the interaction graph for the first research question, two effects are evident from this interaction plot. First, because the pre-test and post-test means are of different heights, the main effect of time was significant. Second, the training x time interaction was significant because the simple main effects of pretest and posttest are different from the main effect of testing. Because the lines representing the training condition and non-training condition intersect, a cross-over interaction exists, providing further support of an interaction. Accordingly, for

Research Question 2, these data analyses—the 2 × 2 mixed factorial ANOVA and associated Interaction Plot—indicate that the null hypothesis, H_02 (There will be no difference in leader charismatic communication ability scores between participants in the training condition and those in the non-training condition), must be rejected, and that the research hypothesis, H_12 (Participants in the training condition will score higher on charismatic communication ability than the non-training condition), must be accepted.

Research Question Three

The third research question was designed to determine the effects of charismatic communication training on follower perception of leader communication effectiveness. A one-way, repeated measures, within-subjects ANOVA was conducted on a single group of subjects measured repeatedly over time with charismatic communication training as the independent variable and follower perception of leader communication effectiveness as the dependent variable. Utilizing archival EOS results from 2007, 2008, and 2010, provided a comparison baseline for follower rating of leader communication effectiveness. Leaders then received the independent variable treatment consisting of charismatic communication training, and follower rating of leader communication effectiveness was repeated 30 to 60 days following training. EOS scores for the survey periods prior to training were then compared with the post-training EOS score. Results showed that, although followers rated leader communication effectiveness higher in the survey period following training as compared to the pre-training survey periods, this improvement in communication effectiveness was not significant, $F(3) = .915, p > .05$, and therefore the null hypothesis for Research Question 3 (H_03 : There will be no difference in follower perception of leader communication effectiveness between the

post-training evaluation period and the pre-training evaluation period) could not be rejected. Table 12 and Table 13 display the results of the ANOVA for the measure of Follower Perception of Leader Communication Effectiveness.

Table 12

One-way, repeated measures, within-subjects ANOVA Tests of Within-Subjects Effects for Follower Perception of Leader Communication Effectiveness

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Time	.251	2.397	.105	.915	0.43	.061	2.19301	.209
Error(Time)	3.845	33.552	.115					

Table 13

One-way, repeated measures, within-subjects ANOVA, Pairwise Comparisons by Year for Follower Perception of Leader Communication Effectiveness

Time (a)	Time (b)	Mean Difference			95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
		(a-b)	Std. Error	Sig.a	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
2007	2008	-.035	.089	1.000	-.309	.239
	2010	.100	.107	1.000	-.228	.428
	2011	-.075	.102	1.000	-.386	.237
2008	2007	.035	.089	1.000	-.239	.309
	2010	.135	.137	1.000	-.286	.555
	2011	-.040	.122	1.000	-.415	.335
2010	2007	-.100	.107	1.000	-.428	.228
	2008	-.135	.137	1.000	-.555	.286
	2011	-.175	.099	.602	-.479	.130
2011	2007	.075	.102	1.000	-.237	.386
	2008	.040	.122	1.000	-.335	.415
	2010	.175	.099	.602	-.130	.479

The results for the Repeated Measures *t*-test for follower perception of leader communication effectiveness are displayed in Table 14.

Table 14

Repeated Measures t test for Dependent Samples for Follower Perception of Leader Communication Effectiveness

		Paired Differences					<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Confidence Interval of the				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	2007 EOS Score, Pre-Training - 2008 EOS Score, Pre-Training	-0.035	0.346	0.089	-0.226	0.157	-.388	14	.704
Pair 2	2007 EOS Score, Pre-Training - 2010 EOS Score, Pre-Training	0.100	0.414	0.107	-0.129	0.329	.937	14	.365
Pair 3	2007 EOS Score, Pre-Training - 2011 EOS Score, Post-Training	-0.075	0.393	0.102	-0.292	0.143	-.735	14	.474
Pair 4	2008 EOS Score, Pre-Training - 2010 EOS Score, Pre-Training	0.135	0.531	0.137	-0.159	0.429	.983	14	.342
Pair 5	2008 EOS Score, Pre-Training - 2011 EOS Score, Post-Training	-0.040	0.473	0.122	-0.302	0.222	-.327	14	.748
Pair 6	2010 EOS Score, Pre-Training - 2011 EOS Score, Post-Training	-0.175	0.385	0.099	-0.388	0.038	-1.759	14	.100

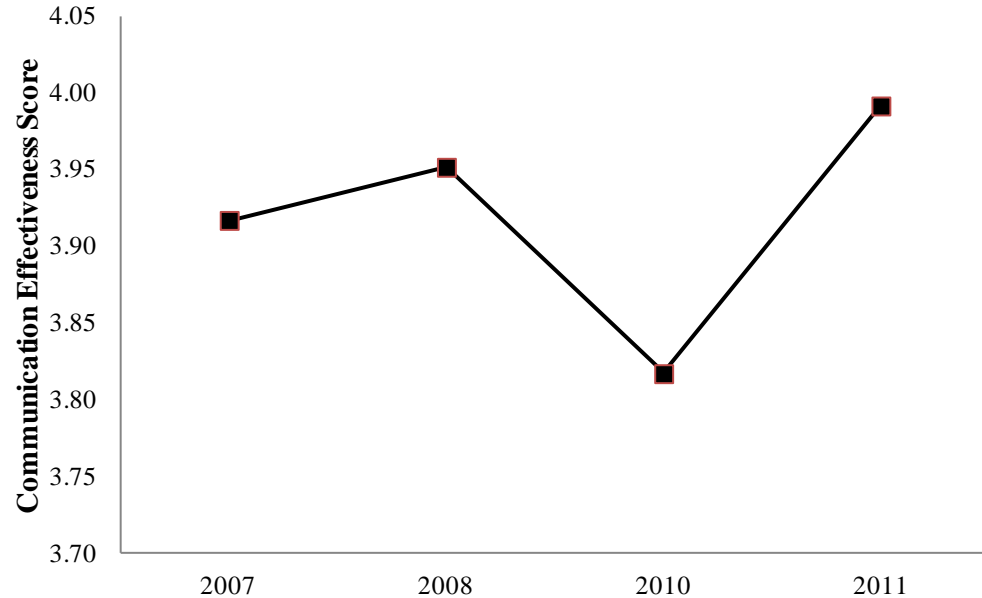


Figure 6. Time series graph of EOS scores. Followers did not rate leaders significantly more effective at communication following charismatic communication training than in years prior to training. Furthermore, because the 2011 EOS score ($M = 3.99$) appeared significantly greater than the 2010 EOS score ($M = 3.82$), a dependent t -test was conducted comparing 2010 EOS Pre-Training Score ($M = 3.82$, $SD = .573$), with the 2011 EOS Post-Training Score ($M = 3.99$, $SD = .446$), $t(14) = -1.759$, $p > .05$, $d = -.454$. However, no significant difference was found in employee perception of leader communication effectiveness between the 2010 pre-training and the 2011 post-training scores. Accordingly, for Research Question 3, these data analyses—a one-way, repeated measures, within-subjects ANOVA and a dependent t test—indicate that the null hypothesis, H_03 (There will be no difference in follower perception of leader communication effectiveness between the post-training evaluation period and the pre-training evaluation period), is accepted and, therefore the research hypothesis, H_13

(Follower perception of leader communication effectiveness will be higher for the post-training evaluation period than in the pre-training evaluation period), must be rejected.

Conclusions

The aim of this research was to describe the effects of charismatic communication training on leadership effectiveness in a commercial setting, under ordinary training conditions, thus providing the empirical evidence necessary to extend the body of knowledge pertinent to charismatic communication, and to aid organizations such as ERMH in improving leadership communication and to realize valued organizational outcomes. In this section, conclusions are organized to correspond to the research questions including how each conclusion supports the results of the dissertation.

Self-efficacy

This study found that leaders participating in charismatic communication training delivered in a real-world organization, under common training conditions, had significantly greater charismatic communication self-efficacy than leaders who received no training. These results were sufficient to reject the first null hypothesis (H01: There will be no difference in charismatic communication self-efficacy between participants in the training condition and those in the non-training condition). These findings demonstrate that, what Towler (2001) found to be true in a laboratory setting—that charismatic communication training resulted in greater leader charismatic self-efficacy, was also true when applied to actual leaders in a real-world organization under actual training conditions, a conclusion having valuable implications for future leadership training.

Charismatic Communication Ability

Previous research has established that charismatic communication behaviors influenced the extent to which someone is perceived as charismatic (Sheafer, 2008; Jones & Turkstra, 2011), however these studies were limited to the examination of political leaders (Jones & Turkstra) and participants with a history of traumatic brain injury (Sheafer). Further empirical evidence indicated that attention should be directed to the development of effective communication delivery skills in leaders (Howell & Frost, 1988; Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Holladay & Coombs, 1993, 1994), including those skills associated with charismatic communication (Levine et al., 2010; Towler, 2003). Yet, there were no empirical studies investigating the effects of charismatic communication skills training on leader effectiveness in healthcare organizations under common training conditions and constraints.

This study found that leaders participating in charismatic communication training delivered in a real-world organization, under common training conditions, demonstrated significantly greater charismatic communication ability than did leaders who received no training. These results were sufficient to reject the second null hypothesis (H_02 : There will be no difference in leader charismatic communication ability scores between participants in the training condition and those in the non-training condition).

Follower Perception

Results for Part A of this study, demonstrated that charismatic communication training resulted in improved leader self-efficacy and charismatic communication ability. Part B of this study then measured the effect of improved leader self-efficacy and charismatic communication ability on follower perception of leader communication

effectiveness. The 955 followers who participated in Part B of the study rated the communication effectiveness of leaders who had received training. This study found that no significant change occurred in follower perception of leader communication effectiveness following leader charismatic communication training, and therefore, the null hypothesis (H03: There will be no difference in follower perception of leader communication effectiveness between the post-training evaluation period and the pre-training evaluation period) must necessarily be accepted. It should be noted, however, that, although the results of statistical tests were not significant at the $p < .05$ level, the EOS score for leader communication effectiveness in the post-training period, exceeded those scores for all previous survey periods (see Figure 6). Further, comparing 2010 EOS Pre-Training Score ($M = 3.82, SD = .573$), with the 2011 EOS Post-Training Score ($M = 3.99, SD = .446$), $t(14) = -1.759, p > .05, d = -.454$, approached acceptance as significant with the actual significance level reaching $p = .10$. Further studies are needed to either confirm or refute the existence of a follower effect.

That follower rating of leader communication effectiveness was not significantly impacted by leader charismatic communication training, should come as no surprise. Factors such as leader opportunity to demonstrate communication effectiveness, to practice, refine, and exercise these newly acquired charismatic communication skills, the time necessary for followers to experience and form an opinion regarding leader communication effectiveness, as well as other intervening factors that may have influenced follower perception of leader communication effectiveness. Additionally, turn-over of both followers and leaders undoubtedly occurred during the four-year time period that EOS measurements were obtained. Indeed, it could be argued that the

populations of leaders and followers were substantially different during these time periods. Perceptions of leader communication effectiveness may have varied merely because different leaders were being evaluated. Additionally, followers might exhibit bias developed over time during previous leader-follower interactions. Simply put, followers have likely formed opinions about leaders and, intuitively, those opinions do not typically change quickly.

Implications and Recommendations

From these findings, a number of recommendations can be made not only to address the subject of leadership communication at ERMH, but other business and academic interests as well. Senior leaders at ERMH believed leadership communication within the organization would benefit from scholarly examination and applied research intervention. ERMH conducted annual employee opinion surveys (EOS) in order to obtain valuable feedback, identify organizational needs, and uncover opportunities for improvement. Results of the EOS, specifically the employee rating of leader communication effectiveness, provided important empirical evidence supporting the opportunity to improve leader communication effectiveness at ERMH (Morehead Associates, 2011). By examining the effects of charismatic communication training on leader communication effectiveness at ERMH, this study systematically addressed an identified workplace need to improve leadership communication and, by extension, may be useful in similar organizational settings. Results of this study also provided clear evidence that a charismatic communication course, conducted in a commercial setting, under ordinary training conditions, significantly improved leadership charismatic communication self-efficacy and ability. Such practical knowledge may aid organizations

such as ERMH in achieving valued organizational outcomes, associated with charismatic leadership such as profit, high return on investment, customer satisfaction, efficiency, and productivity (Avolio et al., 1998; Babcock-Roberson, & Strickland, 2012; Boerner et al., 2007; Conger et al., 2000; Dvir et al., 2002).

This study also advanced our understanding of charismatic communication in several ways. First, this study provided empirical evidence that charismatic communication training significantly improved leader perception of self-efficacy; the leaders believed they had the ability to communicate charismatically. Secondly, those leaders that received training believed that they acquired the behaviors necessary to communicate charismatically. Building on previous research by Howell, and Frost (1989), Kirkpatrick, and Locke (1996), and Towler (2001), all of whom conducted laboratory studies concerning charismatic communication, this study concluded that charismatic communication training can be effective in real-life organizations with actual leaders and followers.

This study also addresses issues left open by previous research studies such as Towler (2003) whose studies were conducted in educational or laboratory settings using actors and students as surrogates for leaders and followers. The current study builds on Towler's research by confirming these findings in an applied field study. Additionally, the current study extended the research of Frese et al. (2003) who reported on two field studies finding that charismatic communication training was successful in producing positive changes. Whereas the training course conducted by Frese et al. extended over 1½ days, the current study found that similar positive changes can be achieved utilizing a shorter two-hour training session more commonly found in health care organizations.

This study clearly documented that charismatic communication training, conducted in real-life organizations, under common training conditions, can have a significant positive effect on leader perceived ability to communicate charismatically.

Furthermore, this study was important for both its business and academic contributions by responding to researchers and experts who called for further research into charismatic communication (Frese et al., 2003; Towler, 2003; and Levine et al., 2010). Levine et al. argued that until the theories of charismatic leadership and all its components such as charismatic communication are tested in real-world settings, scholars and practitioners are left with an incomplete understanding of these important theories of leadership. Notably, this study was one of the earliest practical applications of the Charismatic Leadership Communication Scale (CLCS; K. J. Levine, personal communication, April 1, 2011), providing important information regarding the reliability and validity of the CLCS to subsequent researchers. And finally, this study identified and consolidated from several researchers those behaviors associated with charismatic communication, again providing important information for future research (A. J. Towler, personal communication, March 31, 2011).

Because this study did not provide clear evidence that leader charismatic communication training had any effect on follower perception of leader communication effectiveness, further longitudinally investigation is needed in order to establish if charismatic communication self-efficacy and behavioral ability are retained over time, and if self-efficacy and behaviors can be correlated with follower perception of charisma given greater time to establish the effect. Similarly, it would be interesting to conduct qualitative investigations, studying participant experience following charismatic

communication training. Such investigations may help determine if participants actually utilized the skills acquired during training, and, if so, what were their experiences. Future studies might further explore follower perception of leader communication effectiveness. For example, leaders could be filmed while conducting meetings, before and after training, and then these films could be shown to new audiences that could assess whether they noticed any difference in communication effectiveness. In this way, extraneous factors that could influence listener perception might be controlled.

Conceptual Framework

Finally, it is possible at this point, based on the review of literature and the findings stemming from the current study, to offer a conceptual framework describing the mechanisms giving rise to the expression of charisma. Charisma has been treated alternately as a personality trait, an acquired behavior, a consequence of the leader-follower relationship, a phenomenon related to process or context, and as some combination of all of the above (Northouse, 2010). Therefore, if charisma would be operationalized, its variables manipulated, and outcomes measured, it follows that a conceptual framework describing charisma must first be described in behavioral terms, and its effects clearly articulated.

Accordingly, a conceptual framework incorporating these multiple determining factors of charisma can now be fashioned. Figure 7 illustrates the four factors: (a) traits, (b) skills or behaviors, (c) relationships, and (d) context, shaping the expression of charisma.

Determinants
of Charisma

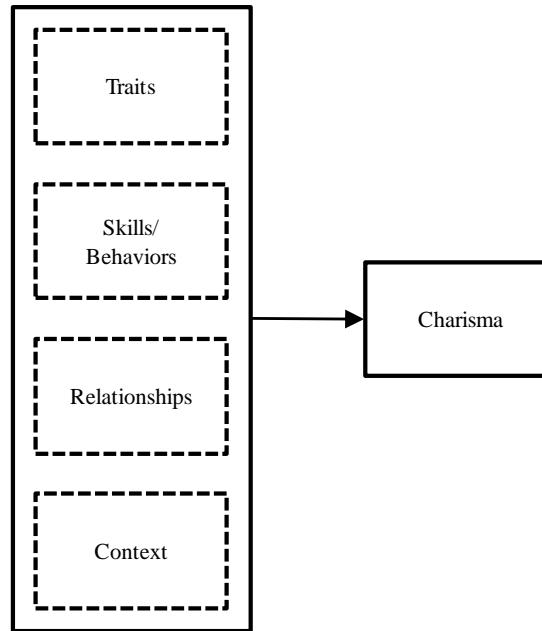


Figure 7. A multi-factorial framework describing the expression of charisma. Charisma has been describe alternately as (a) a trait or distinguishing quality of one's personality—something you either have or don't have from birth (Bryman, 1992; Weber, 1947); (b) a behavior, a learned or acquired attribute (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Friedman et al., 1980; House & Shamir, 1993); (c) in terms of interpersonal relationships, arising out of the interpersonal and social interactions between the leader and follower, emerging as a result of association with others (Avolio & Yammarino, 1990; Bryman; Choi, 2006; Conger & Kanungo, 1994; Dow, 1969; Searle & Hanrahan, 2011; Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Shamir et al., 1993); and finally (d) in terms of contextual factors such as a crisis, environmental uncertainty, and business unit culture (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Trice & Beyer, 1986; Shamir & Howell, 1999; Jacobsen & House, 2001). Others have

offered a hybrid or blended approach encompassing all of the above factors (Avery, 2004; Behling & McFillen, 1996; Conger & Kanungo, 1994; Walter & Bruch, 2009). Indeed, Conger and Kanungo (1994) noted that charismatic leadership is a multidimensional phenomenon where individual components or combinations of components may have differing effects. This notion gives rise to viewing charisma as multifactorial—its expression arising through the action of multiple factors. A multifactorial approach lends itself well to the current study that focused on the behavioral skills that contribute to the attribution of charisma.

This study focused on the relationship between the independent variable, charismatic communication training, and the observed effects or dependant variables, leader self-perception of efficacy and leader charismatic communication ability. Figure 8 illustrates the relationship between these variables to the multi-factorial framework describing the expression of charisma.

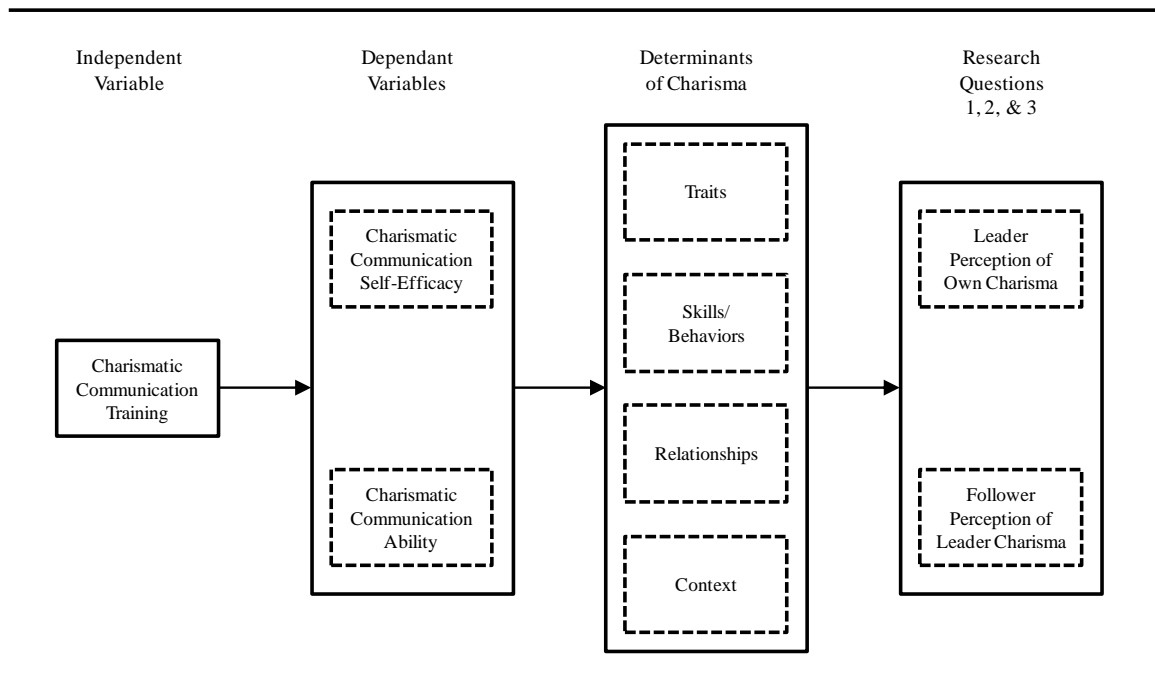


Figure 8. A conceptual framework describing the influence of charismatic communication training on the perception of charisma. Based on the notion that multiple factors interact in ways that can heighten or attenuate the perceptions of charisma or charismatic behavior, this conceptual framework seeks to link systematically the influence of charismatic communication training with the determinants or factors influencing the perception of charisma. The current study suggests that leader charismatic communication training results in behavioral patterns that, in turn, generate consequences that act to amplify the perception of charisma. Future research should examine, longitudinally, follower perception of leader charisma as well as the remaining three factors influencing the perception of charisma; traits, relationships, and context. Still, there are limitations to this conceptual framework that must be pointed out.

One weakness of the proposed conceptual framework is its over simplification of the charismatic phenomenon, that is to say, perhaps the expression of charisma is, at base,

more a unified whole configuration, a gestalt, that cannot be derived from the summation of its component parts. At this point, a fully developed theory of charismatic communication is not offered, rather a conceptual framework is proposed that may serve to guide ongoing efforts to understand, test, and apply such a theory to leadership communication, and to provide information in order to draw implications for leadership training and organizational policy. The conceptual framework presented here provides an approach to analyze the expression of charisma that can be useful in identifying future empirical studies and thus providing important tests and insights in order to contribute to the construction of a comprehensive theory of charisma arising from scrutiny, elaboration, and competing views.

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Appendix A

6-Item Charismatic Communication Self-Efficacy Scale

6-Item Charismatic Communication Self-Efficacy Scale (© 2001)

I am interested in how confident you feel about your effectiveness in leadership communication. In response to each of the items below, state how confident you feel on a scale of 1 = very unconfident and 7 = very confident.

		Very Unconfident					Very Confident	
1	Your ability to give a speech while being video taped	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Your ability to communicate in a confident and animated style	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Your ability to motivate others through communication	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Your ability to give speeches that are inspiring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Your ability to talk about your own experiences while making a speech	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Your ability to inspire others with you vision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix B

15-Item Charismatic Leadership Communication Scale

15-Item Charismatic Leadership Communication Scale (© 2007)

Circle one response for each of the following 15 items

I am interested in how you feel about leadership communication. Please rate each statement below regarding your behavior when communicating to others.

		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	I can empathize with others	1	2	3	4	5
2	I know when to talk and when to listen.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I am poised.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I am a skillful speaker.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I maintain eye contact during communication.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I can put others at ease.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I am enthusiastic.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I use powerful language.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I am persuasive.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I am comfortable when engaged in public speaking.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I understand what people want.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I understand what people need.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I smile often.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I ask others to share ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I ask others to share their opinions.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C

Charismatic Communication Demographic Questionnaire

Charismatic Communication Demographic Questionnaire

Please complete the following questions.

All personal identifying information is for tracking purposes only and will remain confidential.

- 1 Name (please print) _____
- 2 Ministry/Facility Name _____
- 3 Gender (circle one) F M
- 4 Title/Position _____
- 5 Years employed at PLC _____
- 6 Years in current position _____
- 7 Total years in supervisory role (all employers) _____
- 8 In what year were you born? _____
- 9 Highest educational level (circle one) High School Some college Bachelor's degree Master's degree Other
- 10 How do you communicate with subordinates? (Circle one response for each item)

<i>a</i>	<i>One-on-one in-person conversations</i>	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
<i>b</i>	<i>Phone communications</i>	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
<i>c</i>	<i>Written communication (memos)</i>	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
<i>d</i>	<i>In-person Small groups (less than 10 individuals)</i>	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
<i>e</i>	<i>In-person Medium groups (10 to 20 individuals)</i>	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
<i>f</i>	<i>In-person Large groups (greater than 20 individuals)</i>	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
<i>g</i>	<i>Other (please describe)</i>	_____				

Appendix D

Charismatic Communication Training Curriculum

Course Curriculum

Name of Providing Organization:	Paul Fabbi, Doctoral Candidate, Olivet Nazarene University
Title of educational activity/session:	Charismatic Communication Skills: Improving Leadership Communication Effectiveness

Objectives	Content	Time Frames	Presenters/ Content Specialists	Teaching/Learning Strategies and Learner Feedback
List each objective in learner oriented/measurable terms which consist of one action or outcome. NOTE: The verb, "understand" is not measurable.	List each topic area to be covered and provide a description of the content (three or four examples) to be presented in sufficient detail to determine consistency with objectives and appropriate amount of time allotted. It must be more than a restatement of the objective.	State the time frame in minutes for each content area. (Reminder : Specify time assigned to evaluation and questions/ answers)	Identify the presenter/content specialist for each objective/content area.	Note or list the teaching methods, including materials and/or resources. (Reminder: Questions and answers are considered teaching/learning strategies and/or learner feedback.). Use ditto marks or type "same as above" if the teaching strategies are the same for each content area.
Learners will be able to define charismatic communication	Welcome! Introductions Housekeeping information Course Pre-Test Charismatic Communication is sharing vision and making an emotional	20	Paul Fabbi	Direct instruction PowerPoint

Objectives	Content	Time Frames	Presenters/ Content Specialists	Teaching/Learning Strategies and Learner Feedback
	<p>connection with your audience</p> <p>While some communication is aimed at changing what listeners think, charismatic communication is aimed at changing what listeners feel. Aimed at the heart rather than the head.</p> <p>Put another way, charismatic communication is the ability to communicate emotionally (related to the notion of "emotional intelligence") and relationship skills that allow charismatic individuals to make deep connections with others. These oratorical skills are positive, optimistic, and emotionally expressive.</p>			
<p>Learners will be able to differentiate between charismatic communication and ordinary public speaking</p>	<p>For clarity, it is important to distinguish between charismatic communication skills and conventional public speaking skills. The majority of public speaking training programs focus on clarity in communication and include such items as good structure of speech, use of rhetorical questions, simple and easy sentences, clear pronunciation, relaxed posture, artificial pauses, eye contact, body gestures, facial expressions, and animated voice tone.</p> <p>Charismatic communication builds upon this foundation of conventional public speaking skills and is characterized by the use of enhanced verbal and non-verbal techniques to engage followers.</p>	4	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint
<p>Learners will be able to describe the benefits of communicating charismatically</p>	<p>Charismatic Communication Skills has been shown to improve Leader Communication Effectiveness resulting in improved Employee Commitment & Performance, resulting in improved Organizational Outcomes</p> <p>Charismatic Communication skills are particularly effective when communication vision and thus are particularly valuable in organizations such as Provena Life Connections that are mission, vision, and values driven.</p> <p>Charismatic Communication skills are also consistent with other leadership approaches utilized by Provena Life Connection such as the Studer Group</p>	4	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint

Objectives	Content	Time Frames	Presenters/ Content Specialists	Teaching/Learning Strategies and Learner Feedback
	principles. Charismatic Communication skills would be an effective communication approach in alignment with the Studer Group Flywheel.			
Learners will be able to recall and describe the 3 basic elements of any communication situation	Sometimes called the Rhetorical Triangle, these are the 3 basic elements of any communication situation: - Ethos: Credibility -Trust - Pathos: Emotions - Imagination - Logos: Structure - Logic	4	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint
Learners will be able to list the 6-Verbal Charismatic Communication Skills	Verbal communication skills refer to content or What is communicated. Verbal Charismatic Communication Skills <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Visionary statements • Emotional appeal • Autobiography • Metaphors/Analogies • Story telling • Raising self-efficacy These powerful, emotional appealing techniques increase communication effectiveness and follower commitment to vision	4	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint
Learners will be able to list the 6-Non-Verbal Charismatic Communication Skills	Non-Verbal communication skills refer to the delivery or How something is communicated. Non-Verbal Charismatic Communication Skills <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voice tone • Eye contact • Facial expressions • Sitting and pacing • Posture • Personal risk and sacrifice 	4	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint
Learners will be able to describe what is meant by Visionary Statements and give examples	Visionary Statements refer to verbal pictures, descriptions, or shared mental images, and are characteristically brief, clear, future oriented, and desirable. - Example: Joseph Campbell	7	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint
Learners will be able to	Emotional Appeals persuade an audience by using emotions with the goal	7	Same as	Direct instruction

Objectives	Content	Time Frames	Presenters/ Content Specialists	Teaching/Learning Strategies and Learner Feedback
describe what is meant by Emotional Appeal and give examples	of arousing the passions within the audience to move them to act - Example: Sarah McLachlan		above	PowerPoint
Learners will be able to describe what is meant by Autobiography and give examples	Rhetoric is the art of persuasive communication, and autobiography is one of its instruments. More than the story of one's life, autobiography is a rhetorical device used to express emotions and thoughts to other people with the goal of influencing them. Connecting emotionally requires connecting and communication your own personal emotions. That is what makes autobiography more powerful than just plain biography; because it is personal, with all the related emotions. In charismatic communication, it is not merely what happens, but how one reacted, felt, inviting the audience to identify, experience to appreciate it. The primary focus of any autobiography is to dig deep into one's mind, letting go of experiences. In this way, the rhetorical act of autobiography becomes therapeutic. - Example: Dr. Don Berwick	7	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint
Learners will be able to incorporate visionary statements, emotional appeals, and autobiography into a speech	Each learner will be given a short, pre-written speech. Working independently, each learner will enhance this speech by imbedding visionary statements, emotional appeals, and autobiography	7	Same as above	Independent study
Learners will be able to deliver a speech in which they have incorporated visionary statements, emotional appeals, and autobiography	Working in small groups, each learner will share their enhanced speech describing their imbedded visionary statements, emotional appeals, and autobiography	7	Same as above	Interactive instruction Small group exercise Experiential learning
Learners will be able to share lessons learned from preparing a speech incorporating charismatic communication techniques	Debrief following small group exercise	3	Same as above	Discussion Question and answer

Objectives	Content	Time Frames	Presenters/ Content Specialists	Teaching/Learning Strategies and Learner Feedback
Learners will be able to describe what is meant by Metaphors/Analogies and give examples	<p>Analogies, metaphors, not only make your speech more interesting, but often allow you to make an emotional connection by tapping into emotions already felt by your audience. This is the concept of transference: The transfer of a word or feeling from one context into another.</p> <p>Through the use of metaphors and analogies, emotions associated with one object (person, place, thing) unconsciously shift to another. The power of metaphors is in the way that they change the subject by bringing new thinking and ideas, extending and changing the way that a person thinks about something.</p> <p>- Example: If you speak about gang violence, you might plainly state that “We have a problem in our city...” On the other hand, you might say “We have a cancer in our city...” The latter analogy draws on your audience’s pre-existing feelings about cancer, and makes them want to eradicate the cause!</p>	7	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint
Learners will be able to describe what is meant by Storytelling and give examples	<p>Stories play a crucial role in human learning. People hear stories and remember those that resonate deeply with them.</p> <p>Stories motivate people to make significant and lasting behavioral changes</p> <p>Anatomy of a story:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draw from personal experience • Use gestures and movement • Expressive voice • Emotional expression • Collect stories <p>- Example: Year One – Shaman scene</p>	7	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint
Learners will be able to describe what is meant by Raising self-efficacy and give examples	<p>Raising self-efficacy</p> <p>Self-efficacy determines how much effort people will expend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles or adversity. When beset with difficulties people who entertain serious doubts about their capabilities slacken their efforts or give up altogether, whereas those who have a strong</p>	7	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint

Objectives	Content	Time Frames	Presenters/ Content Specialists	Teaching/Learning Strategies and Learner Feedback
	sense of efficacy exert greater effort to master the challenges. High perseverance usually produces high performance. - Example: George Patton speech			
Learners will be able to incorporate Metaphors/Analogies, Storytelling, and Raising self-efficacy into a speech	Each learner will be given a short, pre-written speech. Working independently, each learner will enhance this speech by imbedding Metaphors/Analogies, Storytelling, and Raising self-efficacy	7	Same as above	Independent study
Learners will be able to deliver a speech in which they have incorporated Metaphors/Analogies, Storytelling, and Raising self-efficacy	Working in small groups, each learner will share their enhanced speech describing their imbedded Metaphors/Analogies, Storytelling, and Raising self-efficacy	7	Same as above	Interactive instruction Small group exercise Experiential learning
Learners will be able to share lessons learned from preparing a speech incorporating charismatic communication techniques	Debrief following small group exercise	4	Same as above	Discussion Question and answer
Learners will be able to describe ways to matching Voice Tone to your emotion:	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Match Your Vocal Delivery to the Emotion: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Match Your Vocal Delivery to the Emotion: Vocal delivery is one clear clue to how you feel about what you are saying. Your tone, volume, pace, and other vocal qualities should mirror your emotions. b. Examples: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. Anger might be accompanied by a loud, defiant voice. ii. Sadness or despair might call for a softer voice. iii. Optimism or excitement might be matched by a quickened pace. iv. Example: Toy Story Staff Meeting c. Example: Joseph Campbell http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=h7eqSf7Lmao 	7	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint

Objectives	Content	Time Frames	Presenters/ Content Specialists	Teaching/Learning Strategies and Learner Feedback
	<p>i. Notice how Campbell's head is relaxed and set back as he speaks. His eyes are defocused. His hands reach out and seemingly touch some unseen screen on which a brilliant variety of movies play. He uses not notes when discussing this complex topic. He just talks about the scene playing in his head. He makes you see, hear, and feel it along with him.</p>			
<p>Learners will be able to describe what is meant by Connecting with Your Eyes</p>	<p>Connect with Your Eyes</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "To share an emotion, you've got to feel it too." 2. Eye contact isn't a scorecard. Your aim isn't to collect check-marks from each person who you look at over the course of your presentation. 3. Meaningful eye contact is about connecting with one person at a time. Your eyes should express your frustration, your contempt, or your joy. In the ideal case, the person you're looking at will mirror your emotion back to you. That's connection! 	3	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint
<p>Learners will be able to describe what is meant by Facial expressiveness</p>	<p>Facial expression can convey the feelings of the presenter, anything from passion for the subject, to depth of concern for the audience.</p> <p>Unfortunately, under the pressure of delivering a group presentation, many people lose their facial expression.</p> <p>Try to match your facial expression with the feeling you want to impart to the audience.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Match Your Gestures to the Emotion • Your body is another clue for the audience to gauge your emotions. If you are telling a story about love or joy, your body shouldn't look like a mannequin. If you are revealing your own disappointment in a story, your shoulders should probably droop, and you shouldn't be smiling. • Some speakers find it difficult to do this because they are speaking about past events where the emotions have dulled with the memories over time. The emotions were felt then, but aren't as 	3	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint

Objectives	Content	Time Frames	Presenters/ Content Specialists	Teaching/Learning Strategies and Learner Feedback
	<p>easy to summon now. You've got to show the audience how it felt in the moment. Remember that they are hearing this story for the first time.</p> <p>- Example: Toy Story – Staff Meeting</p>			
<p>Learners will be able to describe what is meant by Sitting and pacing</p>	<p>Pacing and sitting Move towards your audience when making a key points and move back during transitions and pauses. If you are trapped and cannot move then make full use of your hands and head, leaning forward to indicate approach.</p> <p>- Example: Wizard of Oz, Wicked Witch “My little Pretty”</p>	3	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint
<p>Learners will be able to describe the importance of and proper Posture when speaking</p>	<p>How you appear to the audience will have an impact on their reaction to what you are going to tell them. Your objective is to be comfortable and controlled while you are presenting. (no matter how you really feel!).</p> <p>Stand up straight and face the audience head-on. Keep your posture open with arms relaxed and hanging down at your sides. If your arms are crossed in front it may make you seem defensive. Hold your head up high with your chin up. Having your chin raised gives you the aura of being in control; chin down connotes acquiescence. Visual signals that make you appear not to be in control will detract from your presentation.</p> <p>Reading from prepared notes or a script contributes to the problem of lowering your chin. One way to eliminate this is to use 8 ½ x 11 inch paper. Write on only the top two-thirds of the page so your eye doesn't move down or you drop your chin.</p> <p>When you are seated, you want to look energized and confident. You don't want to lean or slouch or appear too comfortable or relaxed. Proper seated posture when you are presenting (or just want to look good at a meeting) is sitting straight up in your chair, spine straight, with your feet flat on the floor</p>	3	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint

Objectives	Content	Time Frames	Presenters/ Content Specialists	Teaching/Learning Strategies and Learner Feedback
	and hands open on the table.			
Learners will be able to describe what is meant by Personal risk and sacrifice	Charismatic leaders may engender trust through visible self-sacrifice and taking personal risks in the name of their beliefs. - Example: Be the first to volunteer for a tough assignment - Example: Indicate the personal risk or contribution that you will make	3	Same as above	Direct instruction PowerPoint
Learners will be able to incorporate the following into a speech: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voice tone • Eye contact • Facial expressions • Sitting and pacing • Posture • Personal risk and sacrifice 	Each learner will be given a short, pre-written speech. Working independently, each learner will enhance this speech by imbedding <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voice tone • Eye contact • Facial expressions • Sitting and pacing • Posture • Personal risk and sacrifice 	7	Same as above	Independent study
Learners will be able to deliver a speech in which they have incorporated the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voice tone • Eye contact • Facial expressions • Sitting and pacing • Posture • Personal risk and sacrifice 	Working in small groups, each learner will share their enhance speech describing their imbedded <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voice tone • Eye contact • Facial expressions • Sitting and pacing • Posture • Personal risk and sacrifice 	7	Same as above	Interactive instruction Small group exercise Experiential learning
Learners will be able to share lessons learned from preparing a speech incorporating charismatic communication techniques	Debrief following small group exercise	3	Same as above	Discussion Question and answer

Objectives	Content	Time Frames	Presenters/ Content Specialists	Teaching/Learning Strategies and Learner Feedback
Learners will be able to identify elements of Charismatic Communication	Volunteer learners will present their prepared speeches to the entire class who will identify elements of Charismatic Communication followed by a discussion of communication effectiveness of each/	7	Same as above	Experiential learning Discussion Question and answer
Learners will be able to identify methods to continually improve and refine their communication effectiveness	<p>Mastering Charismatic Communication Skills takes time and practice. Here are some ways to practice and refine what you have learned:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use the Ethos, Pathos, Logos memory aid. When preparing for a communication opportunity, consider how each of these will be addressed. Then consider what charismatic communication skills are appropriate and think about how these can be incorporated into the communication • Refine your own style by observing other speakers, noting their use (or non use) of Ethos, Pathos, Logos. • Collect stories, anecdotes, and communication forms and techniques and make these part of your own personal communication style. 	7	Same as above	Lecture PowerPoint
	Posttest Adjourn	10		
		TOTAL 120 minutes		