MORE THAN ONE WAY TO ARTICULATE A VISION: A CONFIGURATIONS APPROACH TO LEADER CHARISMATIC RHETORIC AND INFLUENCE

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Abstract

Charismatic rhetoric represents an important tool for leaders to articulate their respective visions. However, much of the research to date on this construct has yet to consider how the eight separate dimensions of charismatic rhetoric may be used in conjunction with one another to form distinctive profiles of charismatic leadership influence. Thus, the present investigation explored the interplay of the individual dimensions using content analysis of the 1960-2012 United States presidential debates. Cluster analysis revealed the emergence of four distinctive rhetorical strategies, one of which was more strongly related to the prediction of influence success as measured by Presidential election outcomes. Results suggest conceptualizing charismatic rhetoric as a multidimensional profile construct represents a valuable area for subsequent research on charismatic rhetoric, and several possible directions are suggested.

Keywords: charismatic leadership, charismatic rhetoric, content analysis, cluster analysis

More than One Way to Articulate a Vision:

A Configurations Approach to Leader Charismatic Rhetoric and Influence

More than three decades ago, Pondy (1978, p. 87) described leadership as a "language game," a sentiment that has been echoed by more recent calls for the incorporation of communication into the study of modern leadership (e.g., Bennis, 2007). Scholars have explored this important issue by examining charismatic rhetoric as a salient perspective in the study of leadership and the organizational sciences. Indeed, as top-level leaders (e.g., executives and senior managers, as well as political leaders) are frequently unable to meet with their followers in face-to-face situations, rhetoric has been recognized as a vital method of demonstrating leadership in some contexts (Bligh & Robinson, 2010; Pfeffer, 1981; Pondy, 1978; Shamir, Arthur, & House, 1994; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Further, rhetoric is a critical method for charismatic leaders to influence followers to adopt their vision (Emrich, Brower, Feldman, & Garland, 2001; House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991).

Shamir and colleagues (1994) conceived of charismatic rhetoric as a multidimensional construct, and offered propositions regarding charismatic leaders' use of rhetoric to articulate their vision and generate follower support, which several subsequent studies have explored (e.g., Bligh, Kohles, & Meindl, 2004a; Davis & Gardner, 2012; Seyranium & Bligh, 2008). In some of these studies, the individual dimensions of charismatic rhetoric have been examined separately (e.g., Seyranium & Bligh, 2008). In other studies, the effects of an aggregate charismatic rhetoric construct have been tested, such that the dimensions are summed together for a combined level of charisma that is then examined in relation to important outcomes (e.g., Study 3 of Bligh, Kohles, & Meindl, 2004b).

Choices regarding the treatment of multidimensional constructs in empirical research have implications regarding the results generated from their use (Johnson, Rosen, & Chang, 2011; Johnson, Rosen, Chang, Djurdjevic, & Taing, 2012). For example, the use of an aggregate measure suggests that each dimension has an equal and consistent impact on the overall construct, and inherently assumes that more of each dimension of the rhetoric is preferable to an increased usage of a selective set of potential dimensions (Law, Wong, & Mobley, 1998). Although understanding how the charismatic rhetoric construct as a whole relates to key leadership outcomes is valuable, a simple summation of the dimensions precludes a more extensive understanding of how the individual dimensions relate to one another and to the key outcomes.

Examination of the use of individual dimensions allows for more fine-grained analyses of the dimensional relationships to the outcomes. However, this approach still precludes a more informed understanding of how the dimensions may operate in conjunction with one another to predict important leadership outcomes. Thus, researchers have advocated for the adoption of a configurational approach to many organizational phenomena in order to build upon the base of research examining the separate dimensions of constructs (e.g., Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Kipnis, Schmidt, Swaffin-Smith, & Wilkinson, 1984; Law, Wong, & Mobley, 1998; MacDougall, Baur, Novicevic, & Buckley, 2014; Short, Payne, & Ketchen, 2008; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). With a configurational approach, constructs are conceptualized as profile variables, and each dimension is explored in relation to the others, such that patterns of the dimensions can be detected. Such an approach provides the ability to make contributions to theory development by expanding or refining the construct and clarifying its characteristics (Bolino & Turnley, 2003).

A review of the charismatic rhetoric dimension intercorrelations from previous research reveals strong relationships between some dimensions and little to no relationship between others (e.g., Bligh et al., 2004a, b). This suggests the possible existence of rhetorical profiles, where leaders employ different levels of the charismatic rhetoric dimensions. Further, scholars have suggested that some dimensions may be more impactful in different contexts (Lim, 2002, 2008; Schroedel, Bligh, Merolla, & Gonzalez, 2013). Similar to earlier examinations of influence configurations (e.g., Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Kipnis et al., 1984), combining various dimensions into common configurations positions the use of charismatic rhetoric as employing different and unique strategies of rhetorical influence.

Recently, scholars (i.e., Davis & Gardner, 2012) have examined charismatic rhetoric of a single leader using a configurational approach and found support for differing patterns of use over time. In the present investigation, we seek to extend this line of research, and provide a more informed understanding of the patterns of usage of the dimensions of charismatic rhetoric across leaders. Specifically, we search for the existence of profiles of charismatic rhetoric among a sample of leaders, as well as the relative efficacy of rhetorical profiles in the prediction of influence success.

Because rhetoric represents a primary avenue through which leaders communicate and generate support for their visions, evidence of distinct profiles of charismatic rhetoric contributes to research on leader charismatic rhetoric by identifying a number of viable directions. For example, research on rhetoric could begin to examine how different combinations of the charismatic rhetoric dimensions are more or less effective for different leadership contexts. Further, because rhetoric is something that can be intentionally constructed and delivered, understanding how profiles relate to important outcomes provides insight leaders can use to

structure their communication in order to generate support for their vision. We begin with a brief overview of charismatic rhetoric as a multidimensional construct, and use this information to frame our research with two overarching research questions.

Conceptualizing Charismatic Rhetoric

A powerful vision is a description of an ideal future state (Carton, Murphy, & Clark, 2014) that becomes a symbol of future possibilities, which creates shared meaning and a common identity, as well as energizes and provides a challenge while linking the present with the future (Nanus, 1992). Indeed, in their review of visionary leadership, van Knippenberg and Stam (2014, p. 241) noted that the "communication of an inspiring vision is seen to lie at the core of the exceptional leadership that mobilizes the masses."

Charismatic leaders are individuals who are able to communicate their vision to followers, and encourage them to forsake their individual goals in order to accept the leader's vision as their own (House & Shamir, 1993). Shamir and colleagues (1993, 1994) posited that charismatic leaders are able to use their vision for the organization to link the interests and self-concepts of the subordinates to the goals and needs of the organization. By doing so, followers will experience greater intrinsic motivation, engage in self-sacrifice, and internalize the leaders' vision as their own (Howell & Shamir, 2005). Through their vision, then, charismatic leaders are able to exercise influence over the values, behaviors, and performance of others (House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991).

One way in which leaders can communicate their vision is through their use of rhetoric (Conger, 1991; Emrich et al., 2001; Shamir et al., 1994). Bligh and her colleagues (2004a, 2004b) noted that perceptions and attributions of leadership are increasingly formed through the use of rhetoric. In fact, rhetoric is thought to be the main way in which leadership is performed in

some contexts (Hart, 1987). For example, leaders of large organizations and nation states are unable to maintain direct relationships with all of their followers and, as such, must lead by inspiring and motivating through the use of rhetoric to communicate a vision (House, Spanger, & Woycke, 1991). Without rhetorical skills, leaders are less likely to be able to convey their vision effectively, and convince followers to rally in support. In turn, they are less likely to encourage increased subordinate performance, commitment, and satisfaction (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Gardner & Avolio, 1998; House, 1977; House & Shamir, 1993).

Dimensions of Charismatic Rhetoric

Initially conceptualized by Shamir and colleagues (Shamir et al., 1993, 1994), leadership scholars have identified distinct rhetorical dimensions used by charismatic leaders. Bligh and her colleagues (Bligh et al., 2004a) adapted the original conceptualization into eight dimensions of charismatic rhetoric, and validated dictionaries to measure the dimensions in subsequent studies (e.g., Bligh et al., 2004b; Bligh & Robinson, 2010; Seyranium & Bligh, 2008). A brief description of each dimension is included below.

Collective focus. Charismatic leaders employ more references to the collective organization and less to their personal self-interest (Shamir et al., 1994). In doing so, these leaders are able to create a sense of community and unity among the members of the organization. Charismatic leaders are able to utilize this feeling of unity to motivate employees to strive toward the accomplishment of collective goals while subjugating their personal interests (House et al., 1991). Employees will be more likely to trust the leader, take risks, and make sacrifices when they perceive the leader as similar to themselves (Cialdini & Trost, 1998; Fiske, 1998; House et al., 1998; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999).

Temporal orientation. Charismatic leaders will make more references to the connection between the past and the present (Bligh et al., 2004b). This allows a leader to explain why the organization is in the position it is currently in and substantiates a compelling vision for the future.

Follower worth. Charismatic leaders increase support and self-efficacy of followers by using language that highlights the value of followers to the leader and the collective (House et al., 1991). This motivational language and praise enables leaders to inspire employees to strive for what may otherwise be perceived as impossible goals (Schroedel et al., 2013).

Similarity to followers. Charismatic leaders build a sense of community and an all-for-one mentality by drawing attention to the benefits of communality while discounting differences between the leader and their followers (Bligh et al., 2004b). Charismatic leaders frequently highlight shared experiences between the leader and followers to create this perception (Schroedel et al., 2013).

Values and moral justifications. Charismatic leaders frequently refer to values and moral justifications in order to inspire employees (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Shamir et al., 1994). High-level values are a critical component of the core self-evaluations of followers, and are a fundamental building block in who an employee perceives him or herself to be as a person and as an employee. Through the use of language that both compliments and challenges employees' values, leaders are able to align the collective goals with the values of the employees.

Tangibility. Charismatic leaders frequently use flowery and grandiose language that creates an intangible and less concrete vision of the future (Conger, 1991; Willner, 1984). In this way, leaders are able to rally their troops more centrally around the vision itself and not

individual goals. Therefore, motivation is likely to continue to increase as the goals become more moving targets and less concrete. In doing so, employees will remain committed to the vision of the leader and not experience a reduction in motivation once the goals have been met. Tangibility is therefore a reverse measure such that a lower reference of tangibility implies less tangible goals, a key tool for charismatic leaders.

Action. In order for charisma to be effective, a leader motivates followers with a sense of direction and purpose. Therefore, a call to action is essential if the goals and vision are to be attained (Fiol et al., 1999; Shamir et al., 1993). Charismatic leaders are able to accomplish this by verbalizing a consistent, powerful, and meaningful vision as well as a confidence that the vision can be attained (Bligh et al., 2004a; Conger, 1991), exciting and motivating their followers (Bass, 1990).

Adversity. In order to establish a powerful new vision, employees must believe that the vision of the future is superior to their perceptions of the present. Charismatic leaders highlight the hardships and problems of the present to provide a contrast effect with their vision for the future (Conger, 1991). These leaders will frequently exaggerate the current negative conditions in order to promote a following of their vision less as a desire and more of a necessity.

Prior Empirical Research and Current Research Questions

In these and several other studies, scholars have examined the existence of the eight dimensions, as well as their change over time (e.g., before and after a crisis). An alternative to investigation of the individual components is to reconsider how the multidimensional construct of charismatic rhetoric is conceptualized. According to Law et al. (1998), multidimensional constructs may be conceptualized in one of three ways: by adopting a latent model, an aggregate model, or a profile model. Using a latent model, the charismatic rhetoric dimensions would be

informed by a deeper, overall charismatic rhetoric construct. Alternatively, an aggregate conceptualization would indicate that summing the individual dimensions forms the charismatic rhetoric construct. Finally, a profile model would suggest that the charismatic rhetoric construct is reflective of different configurations of the rhetoric dimensions.

A latent model perspective of charismatic rhetoric would indicate that charismatic leaders use relatively high levels all eight dimensions (Law et al., 1998). Scholars have argued that the latent model is not appropriate, as each dimension "represents an alternative means through which charismatic rhetoric might be introduced" (Bligh et al., 2004b, p. 225). Thus, some researchers adopted the aggregate model to test the effects of charismatic rhetoric, using the sum of each of the eight dimensions. However, the decision to aggregate does not allow researchers to examine the interplay of the underlying dimensions (Bolino & Turnley, 2003). That is, if the eight dimensions do not have consistent individual effects on predicting perceived leadership abilities, the oversimplification of the charismatic rhetoric construct may hinder a deeper understanding of the interplay among the dimensions, as well as their effectiveness as influence mechanisms.

Recently, Davis and Gardner (2012) explored one leader's charismatic rhetoric using a profile approach, and found evidence that a leader's pattern of rhetoric differed over time. More specifically, they found that crises are an antecedent to leader rhetoric use, but that the use of rhetoric differed by crisis. However, because their study only examined one leader, questions remain regarding the existence of rhetorical profiles across leaders, as well as the possibility of their relative efficacy. Therefore, we extend this line of inquiry on profiles of charismatic rhetoric, and investigate whether leaders use different patterns of rhetoric when articulating a

vision and attempting to convince followers to adopt that vision. Thus, the current research addresses the following research questions:

1. Do multiple distinct configurations of charismatic rhetoric dimensions emerge when leaders articulate their vision?
2. If leaders use multiple distinct configurations of charismatic rhetoric to articulate their visions, are certain configurations more effective than others?

Method

Sample

The study of leaders in the political arena has long been considered an appropriate representation of organizational managers (Emrich et al., 2001; House et al., 1991). In keeping with this perspective, House and Aditya (1997) suggested that United States (U.S.) presidents should be considered analogous to top managers. Several scholars have supported this claim by drawing comparisons between the challenges, skills, and responsibilities of top managers and political leaders (e.g., Bass, 1985; House & Aditya, 1997; Lord, Foti, & de Vader, 1984), including the "ability to create, articulate, and communicate a compelling vision" (Bass, 1985, p. 28). Further, Jacquart and Antonakis (2014) argued that social influence is a necessity for both political and business leaders. Thus, U.S. presidential candidates seem to comprise an appropriate sample for our investigation, as their rhetoric is inclusive of a broad vision for the country that likely is closely aligned with rhetoric of executives and senior managers attempting to influence others to adopt their vision for an organization.

We collected a census of United States presidential debates from 1960 to 2012, representing all of the general presidential debates in U.S. history. There were 11 elections in which general election debates were held during this period: 1960, and 1976-2012 (from 1964-

1972, strong incumbents with little incentive to debate and FCC equal-time rules resulted in no general-election debates). We identified debates from data compiled by the United States Commission on Presidential Debates and the American Presidency Project at the University of California, Santa Barbara.

Each election featured between 2-4 debates (average: 2.7), for a total of 30 debates over our 52-year sampling frame. Each of the 30 debates featured 2-3 prospective leaders (average: 2.1), for a total of 63 candidate appearances in 24 campaigns (e.g., Obama in 2008 campaign, or Nixon in the 1960 campaign). Within each campaign, there were an average of 2.63 debates, each of which was a different length of time from the outcome of interest (the election), and each of which provided an opportunity for prospective leaders to use rhetoric to influence followers. We examined the rhetoric from each debate individually; however, we nested these 63 candidate appearances into 24 campaigns to reflect the non-independence of debates within the same campaign.

Measures

Leader charismatic rhetoric. Our research questions examine configurations of charismatic rhetoric, and whether these configurations are associated with differences in influence success. The literature is clear that leaders may adopt different rhetorical strategies on different occasions throughout the process of influencing their followers (Conway et al., 2012). Thus, our theory suggests that charismatic rhetoric be measured at the debate level to enable rhetorical strategies used by each candidate to vary over the course of the election.

We used DICTION to measure charismatic language in leaders' debate transcripts. DICTION is a computer-aided text analytic software program that was developed and validated in the political science literature (cf. Hart, 2001), and has been used in previous studies to create

and assess measures of charismatic rhetoric (e.g., Bligh et al., 2004a, b). We measured charismatic rhetoric using the eight-dimensional conceptualization presented by Bligh and colleagues (2004b), and operationalized the dimensions using the dictionaries and procedures outlined by the authors. We controlled for the number of words spoken by each participant, and thus their ability to send their message, by standardizing the charismatic rhetoric dimensions on a per-word basis. Table 1 presents sample words and excerpts from the debates that reflect each charismatic rhetoric dimension.

Insert Table 1 about here

Influence success. Presidential candidates' seek to convince citizens to accept their vision for the country, and citizens indicate such acceptance by casting a vote for them on Election Day. Thus, we operationalized influence success as the number of popular votes received in the general election.

Control variables. We controlled for several potentially confounding factors. Prior work has found that the political parties favor different dimensions of rhetoric (Burden & Sanberg 2003; Schroedel et al., 2013; Spiliotes & Vavreck 2002). As such, we created two dummy variables for three groups of candidates - Republicans, Democrats, and Independents. Also, researchers have noted that the past to present link in the temporal orientation dimension is strongest in the incumbent party during strong economic periods and strongest in the challenging party during weak economic periods; thus, the need to control for whether the leader is a member of the incumbent party (Schroedel et al., 2013).

Debates that take place closer to the election may be expected to have a stronger effect on the outcome. Prior work has dealt with this by including a count variable of the order of a given rhetorical performance in a campaign (e.g., Conway et al., 2012). We build from this approach by including the number of days from each debate to the election (i.e., the results of which we used to operationalize influence success) as a control variable. This enables us to control for the possibility that followers may be influenced more by rhetoric from the most recent debate than by rhetoric in previous debates.

Data Analyses

To assess the extent to which multiple, distinguishable configurations or profiles of charismatic rhetoric exist in the data to represent the eight dimensions, we relied on cluster analysis. Cluster analysis is a methodological technique that groups data in a manner that maximizes within-cluster homogeneity and between-cluster heterogeneity (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). To identify clusters of charismatic rhetoric, we used a two-stage hierarchical/k-means procedure (Antonakis, Day, & Schyns, 2012; Mumford et al., 2000). In the first stage, we used a hierarchical agglomerative cluster analysis (Andrevski, Brass, & Ferrier, 2013; Ketchen & Shook, 1996).

To ensure that distance calculations were not skewed by the differing metrics of each dimension of charismatic rhetoric, we standardized each dimension to have a mean of zero and standard deviation of one. To identify the initial cluster centroids for the patterns, we conducted a cluster analysis using Ward's combination procedure to group observations based on Mahalanobis distances. We used Mahalanobis distances in the hierarchical analysis because it is robust to multicollinearity among the variables in the cluster analysis (Hair et al., 2010; Ketchen & Shook, 1996).

In cluster analysis, the researcher determines the number of clusters to be investigated (Hair et al., 2010). To let the number of clusters emerge from the data, researchers use statistical stopping rules that maximize the heterogeneity between clusters and the homogeneity within clusters (Hair et al., 2010; Milligan & Cooper, 1985). We used the Duda and Hart (1973) $J_e(2)/J_e(1)$ index, the associated pseudo T^2 statistic, and the Calinski and Harabasz (1974) pseudo-*F* statistic to identify the number of rhetorical patterns in the data. These statistics comprise the top two performing stopping rules out of thirty reviewed by Milligan and Cooper (1985). Using these stopping rules, the most appropriate cluster solution will maximize the $J_e(2)/J_e(1)$, minimize the pseudo T^2, and maximize the pseudo-*F* statistics. Each statistic was calculated for two through ten cluster solutions.

Results

Cluster analysis results. In order to evaluate Research Question 1, we used the above procedure, and found that a four-cluster solution best fit the data. Moving from a four to a three cluster solution caused the $J_e(2)/J_e(1)$ index to decrease from 0.91 to 0.55, the pseudo T^2 statistic to increase from 2.41 to 12.12, and the pseudo-*F* statistic to increase from 12.33 to 12.55. Although the pseudo-*F* statistic marginally improved when moving to a three-cluster solution, the large deterioration in the other statistics indicated that doing so involved the combination of two dissimilar clusters. Moving from a four- to a five-cluster solution caused the $J_e(2)/J_e(1)$ index to decrease from 0.91 to 0.74, the pseudo T^2 statistic to increase from 2.41 to 6.58, and the pseudo-*F* statistic to decrease from 12.33 to 10.48. Taken together, then, these results suggest a preliminary best fit for the data using four clusters. In the second stage, we used the centroids from the four clusters identified in the first stage to seed a non-hierarchical *k*-means cluster analysis (cf. Ketchen & Shook, 1996). The non-hierarchical analysis identified the final clusters.

A MANOVA analysis indicated the four patterns were statistically distinct (Wilk's Lambda = .02; $F(24, 151.4) = 18.95$; $p < 0.01$). We then repeated our cluster analyses using different distance measures and combination procedures and found that a similar four-pattern solution emerged in many of these analyses. We also conducted follow-up ANOVA tests on each dimension separately to determine whether there were significant differences in the usage of the dimensions across the four clusters. The results of these tests indicated that there are significant differences among the four clusters for seven of the eight dimensions (all dimensions were significant at $p < .01$ with the exception of 'Values' which was not significant). This finding is in line with prior theorizing which suggests values in the political arena may be preset such that they factor heavily into party affiliation (Schroedel et al., 2013). Therefore, four unique profiles of charismatic rhetoric emerged which indicates that leaders do use multiple distinct configurations of charismatic rhetoric to articulate their vision.

The standardized means of the dimensions of charismatic rhetoric within each cluster are graphed in Figure 1 below. Cluster 1 is highest in Tangibility, Collective Focus, and Action, and not lowest on any dimension. Cluster 2 is lowest in Collective Focus and Action, but not highest on any dimension. Cluster 3 is lowest in Follower Similarity, Follower Worth, Temporal, Adversity, and Tangibility, but not highest on any dimension. Finally, Cluster 4 is highest in Follower Similarity, Follower Worth, Temporal, and Adversity, and not lowest on any dimension.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Over the course of the debates, complex clusters emerge that are difficult to capture with small sound bites. In spite of this, for explanatory purposes, we would like to explain a number of the clusters that emerged in this analysis. When candidates used a strategy representative of Cluster 1, they did so in a way that was characterized by action orientation, creating a collective focus or sense of community and communal goal orientation. Also, candidates in this cluster used tangibility far more than members of other clusters. Thus, leaders employing this strategy communicate their vision in more concrete terms, providing a specific sense of the goals they believe are important. Gerald Ford, in his 1976 presidential campaign, relied on this rhetorical strategy in each of the three debates. In his second debate, President Ford stated "It's my strong feeling that we ought to sell arms to Iran for its own national security, and as an ally – a strong ally of the United States." This statement exemplifies the first cluster strategy by posing a very specific, action-oriented goal for the United States.

Further, while Cluster 1 represented the least used strategy (14%), it was mostly likely to be employed by incumbent candidates (67% usage) as well as Republicans (67% usage). We also found that Cluster 1 is a strategy that appears to be used to feel out the opponent. Specifically, of the nine debates in which it was used, six were the first debate of the election, and the remaining three were from the same candidates that had used it in the first debate (Jimmy Carter in debates 1 and 2 and Gerald Ford in debates 1 – 3 all within the 1976 election). Therefore, it appears to be a strategy to test the waters, possibly define the talking points for the remainder of the campaign, and learn the opponent's position before moving to a different strategy. It is also an older strategy with all but two of the debates in which the candidates used it taking place in the two earliest elections (1960 and 1976). Only George H. W. Bush engaged in this strategy after 1976 during the first debate in his successful 1988 campaign and failed 1992 reelection.

In contrast, challengers to an incumbent president were most likely to employ the strategy captured by Cluster 2 (which was the next least-used at 19%). It was used by seven candidates in nine campaigns with George H. W. Bush's usage in the second and third debates of his 1992 reelection attempt being the only times that a sitting president used this strategy – a reelection attempt that he lost to William Clinton. When candidates used the strategy in Cluster 2, their debate responses were characterized by personal (not collective) focus, and a low level of action, and not particularly high on any of the other dimensions. President George H. W. Bush relied on this rhetorical strategy in the last two debates of his 1992 re-election campaign. In the third debate, President Bush stated "I think everyone's paying too much, but I think this idea that you can go out and -- then he hits me for vetoing a tax bill. Yes, I did. And the American taxpayer ought to be glad they have a president to stand up to a spending Congress." This statement largely focuses on the beliefs of President Bush rather than focusing on the collective. Further, although there are brief mentions of accomplishment and aggression in this statement, there is a low overall level of action in this statement, as there are no definitive calls to a specific course of action.

Thus, it appears that candidates that use this cluster attempt to sell their vision by focusing on themselves, perhaps in an effort, as challengers, to describe how what they are offering is different, and better, than accepting the status quo from the incumbent. Also, the strategy in Cluster 2 appears to be more of a later-stage strategy. Only one debate was the first in the order of debates, six were the second debate, and five were the third debate. It is also an older strategy that emerged during the first year of debates in 1960 and being last used in 2004. While speculation, it could be that, as several of the earlier candidates in the study began with a strategy from Cluster 1 and then moved to one found in Cluster 2, that this second strategy and those in

Clusters 3 and 4 eventually overtook the need for Cluster 1. The split between the political parties was relatively consistent with five usages from the Democrats and seven from the Republicans.

Cluster 3 was the most-used cluster (37%) and, generally speaking, when candidates used this strategy, they used the least amount of charismatic rhetoric (i.e., they were below the mean and displayed the lowest usage for five of the eight dimensions). Further, they de-emphasized follower worth and similarity, as well as temporal orientation and adversity. Not surprisingly, our review indicated that candidates employing this strategy were not very effective in selling their vision to followers (i.e., they rarely won the election). Mitt Romney relied heavily on this strategy for each of the three debates in his 2012 campaign. In his first debate, Romney stated "Regulation is essential. You can't have a free market work if you don't have regulation. As a businessperson, I had to have – I need to know the regulations. I needed them there. You couldn't have people opening up banks in their – in their garage and making loans." In this statement, Romney differentiates himself from followers, focusing on experiences not shared by most of the population and portraying a scenario where followers might make bad decisions without regulation.

Cluster 3 is an enduring early- to mid-campaign strategy used by candidates throughout the entire time period of the election (1960-2012) and but reached its height in the 1980s and early 1990s when it was used in 15 debates, representing 65% of the total usages of the strategy. As noted, it is most commonly an early to mid-campaign strategy with 18 of the 23 (78%) usages taking place in the first two debates. The majority of usage (17 times – 74%) was from contestants of the non-incumbent party, which supports Schroedel and colleagues (2013) argument that there are differences in the parties based on current incumbency. This strategy was

not only used the most, but it was used by the most candidates (13) in the most campaigns (14). Of note, this was also the preferred strategy of all of the candidates that ran independent of any party affiliation (e.g., Ross Perot). The split between the Republicans (9) and Democrats (10) was very close with the remaining 4 from the independent candidates. Interestingly, while it was the most frequently used strategy, it appears to have not produced the hoped results. Of the 23 times that the strategy was used, only 8 (35%) were by the candidate that went on to win the election. In contrast, the users of the other three strategies did better with 44% of Cluster 1, 50% of Cluster 2, and 63% of Cluster 4 users winning their elections.

Finally, when candidates selected the strategy in Cluster 4, they used rhetoric reflective of the follower worth and follower similarity dimensions, as well as temporal orientation and adversity, and were highest on four of the eight charismatic rhetoric dimensions. Cluster 4 was the second most-used configuration (approximately 30% of candidates' debate strategy). Interestingly, this configuration appeared most often in more recent presidential debates - 74% of the debates in which the strategy was enacted were in the 2000 election or later. This supports Lim's (2002, 2008) prior assertion that political rhetoric has changed and evolved over time. As presidential candidates are advised by analysts and speech writers (Emrich et al., 2001; Schroedel et al., 2013) who have studied historical campaigns, this may not be surprising. That is, this may indicate that candidates are being encouraged to use more charismatic language. If true, this suggests the possibility that charismatic rhetoric can be learned, and that the use of these rhetorical dimensions is intentional.

Presidents George W. Bush and Barack Obama consistently used this strategy in their 2004 and 2008 campaigns, respectively. President George W. Bush exemplified this rhetorical strategy when he mentioned how he met with Missy Johnson after her husband had been killed in

Iraq. “You know, it’s hard work to try to love her as best as I can, knowing full well that the decision I made caused her loved one to be in harm’s way. I told her after we prayed and teared up and laughed some that I thought her husband’s sacrifice was noble and worthy.” Here, President Bush clearly conveys follower similarity and worth, while also addressing the adversity faced by the country. Barack Obama, a presidential candidate at the time, exemplified this strategy when he said: “You know, a lot of you remember the tragedy of 9/11 and where you were on that day and, you know how all of the country was ready to come together and make enormous changes to make us not only safer, but to make us a better country and a more unified country.” In a manner similar to George W. Bush, Barack Obama uses a reference to a shared adversity to connect with the followers and convey their worth with respect to how they handled this adversity. Candidates that went on to win or be elected as President using this strategy include William Clinton (1992, 1996), George W. Bush (2000, 2004), and Barack Obama (2008, 2012). Likewise, candidates that did not win the election also frequently use this strategy and include Bob Dole (1996), Al Gore (2000), John Kerry (2004), and John McCain (2008). Because of the large percentage of users going on to win the election, and since being the incumbent (seeking reelection) was shown to negatively predict switching strategies, it is worth noting that 12 of the debaters that used the strategy in Cluster 4 won the presidency and 7 were incumbents.

Table 2 presents the average frequency with which each dimension of charismatic rhetoric is used by candidates when they select the strategy of each cluster on a per-word basis. To assess whether the members of each cluster used each dimension with a different frequency than the population, we conducted a series of one-sample *t*-tests, comparing the mean for each cluster-dimension combination to the mean for that dimension in our sampled debates. The results of these *t*-tests are presented in Table 2.

Insert Table 2 about here

Configuration prediction of influence success. Once final cluster membership was established, we used random coefficient modeling to explore our second research question (i.e., whether the rhetorical profiles were related to influence success). Random coefficient modeling is frequently used in research where data are nested in a way such that observations at the lowest level of analysis are not independent due to their mutual association with an entity at a higher level (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). In our data, debates were nested within candidates' campaigns, making random coefficient modeling an appropriate technique for testing our second research question.

Leadership research frequently has examined the influence of charismatic leadership on time-lagged outcomes of interest (e.g., Conway et al., 2012; Jacquart & Antonakis, 2014). Similarly, in this study, we examine the influence of charismatic rhetoric on leaders' influence success – an election-level outcome. To align our theory and methods, our analyses must also relate the rhetoric used in individual debates to election outcomes (cf. Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). This is challenging empirically because a candidate's multiple appearances all predict a single outcome. We modeled this lack of independence by specifying that the debates by a candidate in an election be treated as interdependent in our random coefficient model by using a clustered estimator. This allows for intragroup correlation and relaxes the assumption of independence (e.g., Wooldridge, 2002).

We generated three dummy variables for the four clusters that compare the effect of membership in Clusters 1, 2, and 3, to the effect of membership in Cluster 4, and incorporated

the control variables into the random coefficient models. Table 3 presents means, standard deviations, and correlations. As displayed in Table 4, after controlling for the potentially confounding impact of the control variables as well as the eight individual dimensions, the Cluster 4 candidates significantly outperformed the Cluster 1 ($\beta = -1.62 \times 10^7$, $t = -2.28$, $p < .05$), Cluster 2 ($\beta = -1.30 \times 10^7$, $t = -2.39$, $p < .05$), and Cluster 3 candidates ($\beta = -1.40 \times 10^7$, $t = -3.24$, $p < .01$). Thus, in regard to Research Question 2, the results indicate that there is a difference in influence success efficacy among the distinct configurations of charismatic rhetoric.

Insert Tables 3 and 4 about here

***Post-hoc* analysis.** To provide a more comprehensive assessment of the efficacy of the four rhetorical strategies, we conducted a *post-hoc* analysis examining each cluster's marginal effect on influence success. Table 5 illustrates that the marginal mean for Cluster 4 was higher than that of the other clusters. Further, a pairwise comparison of the clusters' effects on influence success indicates that while Cluster 4 leads to stronger influence success than each of the other clusters. Clusters 1, 2, and 3 seem to be equifinal in their effects on influence success.

Insert Table 5 about here

Additionally, we conducted a *post-hoc* analysis that followed each candidacy over time to examine whether potential leaders tended to adopt and maintain a single charismatic rhetoric configuration or whether they tended to adopt different patterns depending on the occasion and environment (e.g., Conway et al., 2012), as predicted by Shamir and colleagues' (1993).

Examining 40 candidates' performances that followed a prior performance, we found that we could reject the null hypothesis that candidates do not switch from one rhetorical configuration cluster to another from debate to debate ($t = 5.65$, $p < .001$).

We also examined the factors that may predict this switching. We found that whether one performed better than one's opponent(s) in the prior debate did not significantly predict switching behavior ($\beta = -0.31$, $p = .701$). However, in a separate logistic regression, we found that incumbent leaders were less likely to switch rhetorical strategies from one rhetorical performance to the next ($\beta = -2.46$, $p < .05$).

Insert Tables 6 and 7 about here

Because these *post-hoc* analyses yielded mixed results, we also examined each participant's choice of rhetorical strategies by candidate and by year. As shown in Table 6, there are clear influences of both the candidate and the election year on the choices of rhetorical strategies (for Candidates: $\chi^2 = 89.73$, $p < .01$; for Election Years: $\chi^2 = 72.62$, $p < .001$), thus validating our choice to treat these factors as non-independent. Table 7 presents these counts of each of the four rhetorical strategies by Candidate-Year, and by Debate-Year. Again, a significant association is indicated (for Candidate-Year: $\chi^2 = 104.91$, $p < .01$; for Debate-Year: $\chi^2 = 116.85$, $p < .05$). The tabulation in Table 7 generally suggests that in some cases, debate-specific factors (such as topic, questions, moderator, location, timing) has a heavy influence on the selected rhetorical strategy (For example, 1960), where in others the pattern favors the hypothesis that candidate or campaign-year factors may have had a strong influence on candidates' rhetorical strategies (For example, 1980, 1984, as well as 2004 and 2008).

Discussion

The present research was guided by two overarching research questions. First, we wanted to know whether leaders differed in their use of charismatic rhetoric to articulate their vision, such that distinct configurations, or profiles, would emerge. Second, if distinct configurations did emerge, we wanted to know whether the configurations differed in their ability to predict successful influence (i.e., follower adoption or support of leaders' vision as indicated by election results). Overall, we found evidence of the use of distinct profiles of charismatic rhetoric, as well as differences in their ability to predict influence success. Specifically, significant differences were found in the overall strategies, indicating that unique and largely non-overlapping rhetorical strategies were implemented. Further, the members of Cluster 4 were more successful convincing followers to support their vision than were the members of the other three clusters.

Theoretical Implications

Early theorists argued that charismatic leaders' speech would be marked by greater use of charismatic rhetoric dimensions (Shamir et al., 1994). Thus, one might expect that leaders attempting to influence followers to adopt a vision would demonstrate high levels of each of these dimensions, and that leaders who exhibit greater levels of charismatic rhetoric would enjoy greater success influencing followers to adopt their vision. However, previous research in this area has found that leaders use different levels of the varying rhetorical dimensions. For example, Davis and Gardner (2012) explored leader charismatic rhetoric using a profile or configurations approach, and found evidence that a leader's pattern of rhetoric differed over time. Specifically, they found that crises serve as an antecedent to leader rhetoric use, but that the use of rhetoric tends to vary or differ by the particular nature of the crisis. However, because

their study only examined a single leader, questions remained regarding the existence of rhetorical profiles across leaders, as well as their potential relative influence effectiveness.

Our study built upon, and sought to extend, the investigation of charismatic rhetoric configurations by investigating whether multiple leaders use different patterns of rhetoric when articulating a vision and attempting to convince followers to adopt that vision. Our results indicate that leaders differ in the way they employ the rhetoric dimensions when articulating their vision, and several patterns, profiles, or configurations of usage emerged. Further, our results show that one configuration (i.e., Cluster 4) was a better predictor of influence success than the other configurations, when controlling for the eight individual dimensions. Together, these results suggest that a configurations approach could be a viable direction for leader charismatic rhetoric research.

Interestingly, a review of the individual dimensions of rhetoric that were statistically significant predictors of influence success provides further insight into the benefits of considering a configurations approach. That is, a review of the differences in rhetoric dimension usage between the clusters reveals that members of Cluster 4 (i.e., the most effective predictor of influence success) were above the mean level of usage for all but one dimension – Collective Focus. Consistent with Shamir et al.'s (1993) arguments, these results indicate that leaders who are successful articulating and selling their vision for the collective will employ each of the dimensions of charismatic rhetoric. However, a closer review of our results indicates that the efficacy of this level of usage may be surprising.

That is, Follower Similarity (i.e., a negative predictor of influence success), Collective Focus (i.e., a negative predictor), and Action Orientation (i.e., a positive predictor) all were statistically significant predictors of influence success. These results would seem to suggest that

configurations that used more Action Orientation, and less Follower Similarity and Collective Focus, would be the best predictors of influence effectiveness. However, this is not the case, as when candidates used the Cluster 4 strategy, the best configurational predictor of influence success, they actually displayed the highest use of Follower Similarity - a negative predictor of influence success. Further, candidates using the Cluster 4 strategy did not employ more of an Action Orientation, a positive predictor of influence success, than those who used the strategies of Cluster 1 or Cluster 3. These results provide additional support that it is the configuration of rhetoric dimension use, and not just the use of specific individual dimensions, that enables leaders to be effective influencing followers to adopt their vision.

Further, a review of the differences between Cluster 4 and the other clusters indicates that a compensatory rhetorical configuration may not be as effective as a more balanced configuration. That is, the Cluster 1 strategy includes a very high usage of Tangibility; however, this is one of only three dimensions for which their use was above the mean. Conversely, the Cluster 4 strategy includes a relatively balanced use of each dimension.

Similar, although less exaggerated, differences are evident when comparing Cluster 4 to Clusters 2 and 3. That is, Cluster 2 seems to have a pattern of dimension usage similar to that of Cluster 4 for Follower Similarity, Follower Worth, Temporal Orientation, and Tangibility. However, when candidates used this strategy, they were well below the mean usage for the Collective Focus, and Action Orientation dimensions. Finally, Cluster 3 includes levels of usage for the Values, Collective Focus, and Action Orientation dimensions similar to that of Cluster 4. However, when Cluster 3 was used, the candidates were much lower (i.e., the lowest of all clusters) for the Follower Similarity, Follower Worth, Temporal Orientation, Adversity, and

Tangibility dimensions. Thus, evidence indicates that attempting to compensate for low usage of some dimensions with extreme usage of a few others is not a viable influence strategy.

These results provide support for the value of a configurations approach to leader charismatic rhetoric. Specifically, an aggregate conceptualization of charismatic rhetoric would suggest that the best strategy is to employ the highest usage for all dimensions. However, this conceptualization precludes an understanding of the higher and lower relative usage of some dimensions. In contrast to this approach, a configurations conceptualization allows researchers to examine the interplay of dimensions to determine what patterns of usage may be statistically significantly linked to important outcomes. For example, the results of our investigation indicated that extreme usage, or avoidance, of some statistically significant individual rhetoric dimensions was less important than a balanced usage across these eight dimensions. Thus, the current results support the future investigation of leaders' charismatic rhetoric using a configurations approach.

Directions for Future Research

A configurations approach to charismatic rhetoric sheds greater light on the underlying processes and dynamics of charismatic influence. Future investigation using this perspective provides a fecund opportunity to develop, expand, and refine charismatic rhetoric theory. For example, in our sample of leader communication, four distinct strategies emerged. In this way, then, the results suggest that leaders use distinct strategies to articulate their visions and that they frequently change between multiple strategies. One initial direction for future research would be to examine whether this pattern of usage emerged in other samples of leaders' communications regarding vision (e.g., in CEO announcements of strategy shifts). Further, it would be interesting to examine whether similar patterns of usage emerge in leader communications other than those

focused on vision. A visual inspection of the profile graphs from Davis and Gardner (2012), a study on rhetoric surrounding crises, suggests differences are likely. Thus, an avenue for future research on charismatic rhetoric would be the development of theory regarding leaders' effective use of rhetoric across situations.

Further, leadership research has a long history of trait investigation, an area that currently is experiencing a "renaissance" (Antonakis, Day, & Schyns, 2012). Another area of possible research on charismatic rhetoric would be an examination of what traits and characteristics predict usage of different rhetoric dimensions. Further, this research could employ a profile approach and develop and test theory regarding traits and characteristics associated with certain patterns of rhetoric usage, similar to previous work on patterns or profiles of influence tactic use (i.e., Kipnis et al., 1984). Scholars have noted that effective influence requires a certain skill set, which has since been labeled political skill (Ferris et al., 2007; Pfeffer, 1981). Thus, charismatic rhetoric research would benefit from examining the effects of political skill on rhetoric use. For example, are higher levels of political skill associated with implementation of more efficacious configurations of charismatic rhetoric?

Ferris and colleagues (2012) have developed a stream of research regarding the ability of politically skilled individuals, including leaders (e.g., Ewen et al., 2013), to select situationally appropriate behaviors. Certainly, in such situations, both content of message conveyed and style of presentation are important. However, Awamleh and Gardner (1999) noted that the leaders' style or delivery of a message or vision is more influential on follower perceptions than message content. This would seem to further highlight the importance of examining leader style qualities (e.g., political skill of leaders) in the influence effectiveness of charismatic rhetoric profiles.

Limitations of this Research and their Implications

Our contributions should be viewed in light of our limitations. For example, there are tradeoffs that resulted from the selection of our methodology to analyze the 386,402 words within the presidential debates. To enable the extraction of meaning from this large dataset, while minimizing the potential for coder error, we choose to use computer-aided text analysis. This enabled objective and reliable coding based on precise coding rules, as well as a deeper linguistic analysis than human coders can achieve (Bligh et al., 2010; Morris, 1994). The advantages of reliability and large-scale analysis necessarily entail some trade-offs.

Computer-aided text analysis does not assess the tone or contextual meaning of words because it distills narrative data into a count of words and phrases associated with a construct (Morris, 1994). Also, delivery is not assessed because the analysis is based on transcripts, rather than recordings. Although prior comparisons of the effects of the content and delivery of rhetoric have been inconclusive (Den Hartog & Verbug, 1997; Holladay & Coombs, 1993, 1994; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991), Beyer (1999) suggested that a differentiating factor of charismatic leadership is the necessity of a vision that is filled with powerful content. Likewise, computer-aided text analysis also does not account for the relevance of the leader's vision for the followers, its relationship with the context, or its ethical implications. In this way, then, the analysis focused solely on the content of the vision via the words spoken at the expense of other important factors.

Importantly, benefits gained exclusively through delivery will quickly ebb without substantive content (Bligh et al., 2004b; Den Hartog & Verbug, 1997; Shamir et al., 1994). However, as noted above, Awamleh and Gardner (1999) argued that the leaders' style or delivery of a message or vision is more influential on follower perceptions than message content. Thus, there is the need for future work to resolve such differences of opinion by examining the relative

influence of content and process/delivery in leader influence effectiveness. Additionally, researchers should explore how leader style qualities, such as the political skill or emotional intelligence of leaders, may substitute or complement the impact of rhetorical strategies on influence effectiveness.

Further, our sample of leaders consisted entirely of males running for president of the U.S. The former represents a variable that limits the generalizability of our results, but that can be assessed in future examinations that explore the relationships between leader characteristics and charismatic rhetoric. That is, it is important to understand whether male and female leaders employ different patterns of charismatic rhetoric usage, or focus on certain dimensions more than others. Thus, another area of interesting research could focus on developing theory explaining possible differences in male versus female leaders' use of different charismatic rhetoric strategies. For example, as has been found with the gender differences in influence tactic use (i.e., relevant here, as charismatic rhetoric can be conceptualized as a form of influence), the same tactic of influence often is perceived and interpreted quite differently when demonstrated by males versus females (e.g., assertiveness; Ferris, et al., 2002). It might be the case that there are gender differences in how some of the eight charismatic rhetoric dimensions are perceived and interpreted, resulting in male and female leaders employing strategies of influence that include different weightings of some of these dimensions.

Consideration also should be given to the generalizability of the results based on the context. Whereas scholars frequently have made the comparison between political and organizational leaders (e.g., Bass, 1985; Emrich et al., 2001; House & Aditya, 1997; Jacquart & Antonakis, 2014), leadership influence in the political arena is often more visible, and the candidates must rely more heavily on follower sentiment than in organizations. Thus, although,

Lord, Foti, and de Vader (1984) found that two prototypical abilities of both political and organizational leaders were charisma and verbal skills, which collectively suggest the appropriateness of assessing leader charismatic rhetoric with a sample from the political arena, future research on leader charismatic rhetoric should attempt to explore organizational leaders' use of charismatic rhetoric to provide a more robust understanding of the construct.

Further, the use of U.S. presidents, as analogous to top organizational leaders, generates questions regarding leader and follower distance. As Shamir (1995, p. 21) noted, "there are also likely to be fundamental differences between the process of influencing a close circle of followers or subordinates who are in direct contact with the leader, and the process of influencing a larger social circle of followers who do not have direct contact with the leader." Clearly, our sample evaluated the charismatic rhetoric of only those leaders attempting to influence a large number of followers, almost none of whom have direct contact with the leader, suggesting a context of increased leader-follower distance (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Napier & Ferris, 1993; Shamir, 1995; Yammarino, 1994). Prior work on distance has acknowledged that interpersonal distance in organizations is an understudied phenomenon, and we need to know much more about it in order to inform a number of different issues in leadership and organizations.

Extension into more general contexts may also allow the greater isolation of level-specific factors that may be antecedents of rhetorical strategy choice worthy of future research (e.g., Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). In this study, we treated all performances by the same candidate in the same year (campaign) as non-independent. However, factors arising at the level of the debate – such as the candidate's position in the field, prior performances, underdog/front-runner status, etc. – may have theoretically meaningful influences on choice of rhetorical

strategy. One opportunity may lie in the analysis of primary debates where there are 8-12 participants in a single debate, and a near-term, observable outcome, such as opinion poll performance. Such a context would allow the use of hierarchical multinomial (i.e. polytomous) logistic regression (for example, using generalized SEM with a multinomial logit specification) to isolate level-specific (Election/Year, Candidate, and Debate) influences on the choice of rhetorical strategy.

Thus, questions remain regarding leaders' use of charismatic rhetoric with more proximal followers. That is, charismatic rhetoric may manifest in entirely different ways when leaders articulate their visions to proximal and distal groups of followers. For example, leaders may use follower similarity less frequently when communicating with more proximal followers, as the similarities are likely to be more established in those relationships based on the low social distance. Also, differences in charismatic rhetoric use may emerge in leader communications to more proximal followers due to differences in communication formality. That is, leaders are likely to use a less formal and structured communication style when communicating with more proximal followers, which may contribute to different emergent patterns of charismatic rhetoric.

Whereas most of the theory and research regarding leader distance has focused on social distance, which implies structural or physical distance (Shamir, 1995; Yammarino, 1994), Napier and Ferris (1993) also discussed the importance of 'psychological distance,' and its distinction and potential overlap with physical distance. So, it could be the case that physically distant leaders and followers could form close connections psychologically (i.e., increased psychological distance) as a function of the rhetoric these leaders use through image building, vision creation, and inspirational qualities in ways that make followers perceive less distance and greater closeness. To this point, Shamir (1995) developed a testable proposition that followers'

trust and confidence in leaders should be associated more with proximal leaders than with distant leaders. Interestingly, he found just the opposite in his exploratory study; that is, that followers reported greater levels of trust and confidence in distant, not close, leaders. Thus, it could be the case that although he differentiated leaders on distant versus close proximity, he did not study the psychological distance followers developed toward the leaders, which could have resulted in these contradictory findings.

We found that the candidates in the various clusters differed in their usage of all of the dimensions of charismatic rhetoric with the exception of values. In the political arena, values are usually closely tied with party affiliation (Schroedel et al., 2013). Although this may suggest that language focused on values and moral justifications are less important in politics, it may be just as likely that such rhetoric is so important that all candidates focus on it. An examination of the unstandardized means of the candidates' usage of the values dimension in comparison to the other dimensions, as shown in Figure 2, suggests that the candidates did engage in less values rhetoric in comparison to most of the other dimensions.

However, not all variables in DICTION are measured in the same way. For example, some variables are measured by counting the words from the affiliated dictionary(ies). Values is one such variable and is measured by summing the terms within the standard DICTION dictionary for inspiration as well as the dictionary that was created and validated by Bligh and colleagues (2004a, b) titled "religious terms". Others, such as collective focus, count words such as "we" and "us" and then subtract words such as "I" and "me". While still others are considered master variables and are measured by combining lower-level variables. Activity is an example of such a master variable and is measured by summing the usage of words from the dictionaries for aggression, accomplishment, communication, and motion, and then subtracting the usage of

words from the dictionaries for cognitive terms, passivity, and embellishment. As such, it is difficult to compare the usage of the various dimensions of charismatic rhetoric, which is why we standardized the results prior to plotting Figure 1. Future research should explore the impact of the values and moral justifications dimension of charismatic rhetoric in impacting influence effectiveness in the political arena as well as the organizational setting.

Finally, also with regard to context and potential generalizability issues, we might suggest future research that extends the present results to non-U.S. settings to see if leaders in other parts of the world use similar configurations of charismatic rhetoric. We need to acknowledge that leader behavior and rhetoric are presented against a cultural backdrop that structures the way followers perceive, make sense of, and interpret what the leaders say and do. Leaders from the same culture will be guided by the perceived leadership norms of that culture, and therefore act in certain ways (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002). Thus, such cultural contexts could produce different leader charismatic rhetoric configurations based to some extent on the cultural norms and expectations for leader communication and behavior in different contexts. For example, Bligh and Robinson (2010) studied Gandhi, and the extent to which he would be considered ‘charismatic.’ More careful examination of the text of Gandhi’s speeches might allow for a comparison of his charismatic strategies to the ones found here, in order to infer potential cultural context differences.

Practical Implications

Regardless of organization type and context, leaders seek to motivate others by conveying a meaningful vision for the future, and leadership scholars (e.g., Shamir et al., 1993) have noted that charismatic rhetoric is a powerful method through which leaders can present their vision to followers. However, the results of our exploratory study suggest that leaders’

charismatic rhetoric may align with certain profiles of usage. Additionally, our post-hoc analysis of the profiles of charismatic rhetoric indicates that leaders do not necessarily adopt a single rhetorical strategy. Finally, our analysis of the efficacy of the different profiles for predicting influence success suggests that one profile, or strategy, is more effective than the others. Together, these results translate to interesting practical implications for managers in organizations.

First, consistent with prior work (e.g., Davis & Gardiner, 2012), leaders' displays of profiles of charismatic rhetoric changed over time. Although Davis and Gardiner tied profile changes to specific events, our analysis tracked the changes across a series of presentations regarding leaders' vision for the future. Thus, the leaders' dynamic use of rhetoric over a relatively short (i.e., a few months) period of time indicates that profiles of rhetoric likely are not driven by leaders' individual differences, which suggests that they may be intentionally changed. For managers, this is important because it indicates that their use of rhetoric is very much in their control, such that they can intentionally tailor the articulation of their vision to include important elements of charismatic rhetoric.

Further, our analysis showed that a profile that included a more balanced usage of charismatic rhetoric dimensions was more effective for influencing followers. More specifically, although members of the most effective cluster were highest in their usage of some charismatic rhetoric dimensions, they were not highest in the usage of all dimensions. However, they displayed above mean usage of all but one (i.e., Collective Focus) dimension, and a review of their usage profile indicates a more balanced usage of the dimensions. In contrast, members of the other, less effective, clusters seemed to rely heavily on only a few of the dimensions. This may be due to the breadth of followers that leaders in our sample needed to influence. Thus, an

implication for leaders of large organizations would be to use elements of each dimension to articulate their visions so that they can be more effective influencing the broad base of followers.

Conclusion

The research was stimulated by our aspiration for a deeper understanding of the multidimensional charismatic rhetoric construct. More specifically, we sought to determine whether potential leaders differ in their use of rhetorical influence such that specific profiles, or configurations, would emerge. Further, we wanted to know if such configurations could be used to predict leadership outcomes. Our analysis of aspiring leaders' use of charismatic rhetoric revealed four distinct rhetorical strategies. Further, these strategies differentially predicted which leader would receive the greatest support. Therefore, we suggest that leadership research can be advanced by operationalizing charismatic rhetoric as a configuration of a number of dimensions, in addition to the exploration of the individual dimensions or their aggregation into a composite construct.

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Table 1 - Charismatic Rhetoric in Presidential and Primary Debates

Dimension	Example words	Examples in debates
Collective focus	Assembly, Residents, Society	I think it will depend in great measure upon what we do here in the United States, on the kind of **society** that we build, on the kind of strength that we maintain. (John F. Kennedy, 1960)
Temporal orientation	Take, Want, Took, Wanted	As Governor of California, I **took** charge of passing the strictest air pollution laws in the United States - the strictest air quality law that has even been adopted in the United States (Ronald Reagan, 1980)
Follower worth	Admirable, Leadership, Devotion	Now one of the reasons I was able to get so many **good** women to be part of that team was because of our recruiting effort. (Mitt Romney, 2012)
Similarity to followers	Anybody, Everybody, Family	…to inspire our people to reach for greatness, to correct our defects, to answer difficult questions, to bind **ourselves** together in a spirit of unity. (Jimmy Carter, 1976)
Values	Charity, Faith, Justice	I have a deep religious **faith**. Our family does. It is fundamental. It's probably the reason that I'm in politics. I think our **faith** tells us, instructs us, about the moral life that we should lead. (Walter Mondale, 1984)
Tangibility	Businessman, Factory, School	When we compare these two records in the areas that Senator Kennedy has - has discussed tonight, I think we find that America has been moving ahead. Let's take **schools**. We have built more **schools** in these last seven and a half years than we built in the previous seven and a half, for that matter in the previous twenty years. (Richard Nixon, 1960)
Action	Desperate, Loss, Outrage	America is strongest when we are **working** with real alliances, when we are sharing the burdens of the world by **working** through our statesmanship at the highest levels and our diplomacy to bring other nations to our side. (John Kerry, 2004)
Adversity	Contemptible, Fear, Never	The governor wants to divert 1 out of every $6 off into the stock market, which means that he would drain a trillion dollars out of the Social Security Trust Fund in this generation over the next ten years, and Social Security under that approach would go **bankrupt** within this generation. (Al Gore, 2000)

Table 2 – Charismatic Rhetoric Cluster Means

	Follower Similarity	**Follower Worth**	**Temporal Orientation**	**Adversity**	**Tangibility**	**Values**	**Collective Focus**	**Action**
Cluster 1	$2.67x10^{-1}$	$1.86x10^{-2*}$	$2.51x10^{-2**}$	$2.01x10^{-2**}$	$2.44x10^{-1**}$	$5.09x10^{-3*}$	$6.04x10^{-3**}$	$-3.64x10^{-3**}$
Cluster 2	$2.66x10^{-1}$	$2.33x10^{-2**}$	$3.29x10^{-2**}$	$2.58x10^{-2**}$	$1.43x10^{-1}$	$5.26x10^{-3}$	$-9.65x10^{-3**}$	$-2.08x10^{-2**}$
Cluster 3	$1.98x10^{-1**}$	$1.47x10^{-2**}$	$2.28x10^{-2**}$	$1.71x10^{-2**}$	$8.56x10^{-2**}$	$6.33x10^{-3}$	$3.35x10^{-3**}$	$-5.38x10^{-3*}$
Cluster 4	$3.14x10^{-1**}$	$2.77x10^{-2**}$	$3.80x10^{-2**}$	$2.74x10^{-2**}$	$1.51x10^{-1}$	$6.56x10^{-3}$	$-2.35x10^{-3}$	$-5.21x10^{-3**}$

*** *p* < .05 ** *p* < .01**

Table 3 - Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

#	Variables	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Collective Focus	0.00	0.01															
2	Temporal	0.03	0.01	-.41														
3	Follower Worth	0.02	0.01	-.42	.81													
4	Follower Similarity	0.26	0.06	-.25	.74	.75												
5	Values	0.01	0.00	-.06	.00	.18	.14											
6	Tangibility	0.14	0.07	.07	.26	.38	.59	.11										
7	Action	-0.01	0.01	.52	-.21	-.15	-.07	-.07	.10									
8	Adversity	0.02	0.01	-.37	.71	.73	.75	.11	.27	-.16								
9	Cluster 1	0.14	0.35	.29	-.21	-.13	.08	-.12	.65	.22	-.15							
10	Cluster 2	0.19	0.40	-.49	.18	.17	.09	-.12	.03	-.75	.28	-.20						
11	Cluster 3	0.37	0.49	.32	-.60	-.68	-.79	.08	-.62	.24	-.64	-.31	-.37					
12	Republican	0.48	0.50	-.10	.08	.02	.07	.23	.21	-.22	.01	.16	.10	-.13				
13	Democrat	0.46	0.50	.04	-.07	.08	.07	-.14	-.10	.14	.12	-.10	-.04	-.04	-.88			
14	Incumbent Party	0.46	0.50	-.28	.15	.20	.28	.20	.29	.00	.14	.17	-.04	-.30	.39	-.28		
15	Days Debate to Election	25.95	9.62	.20	.00	.01	.16	-.13	.24	.27	-.02	.31	-.12	-.21	.03	-.03	-.03	
16	Popular Vote	$4.65x10^7$	$1.35x10^7$	-.30	.27	.34	.23	.05	-.04	.13	.31	-.21	-.11	-.22	.12	.17	.18	-.01

N = 63; Correlations whose absolute value exceeds 0.24 are significant at $p < .05$

Table 4 - Results of Random Coefficient Models, Robust Clustered Standard Errors[a] for Rhetoric Configurations Predicting Influence Success (Popular Vote)

	Model 1	Model 2
Control Variables		
Republican	$3.08x10^{7**}$	$3.98x10^{7**}$
Democrat	$3.22x10^{7**}$	$3.71x10^{7**}$
Incumbent Party	$1.65x10^{6}$	$-3.11x10^{6}$
Days Debate to Election	$-2.24x10^{4}$	$-8.28x10^{3}$
Collective Focus		$-5.39x10^{6**}$
Temporal		$3.51x10^{6}$
Follower Worth		$-7.87x10^{5}$
Follower Similarity		$-7.62x10^{6*}$
Values		$-4.96x10^{5}$
Tangibility		$7.58x10^{5}$
Action		$5.49x10^{6**}$
Adversity		$7.48x10^{5}$
Configurations		
Cluster 1		$-1.61x10^{7**}$
Cluster 2		$-1.30x10^{7**}$
Cluster 3		$-1.41x10^{7**}$
Wald χ^2	52.56**	208.14**

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$; $N = 63$; 24 Campaign clusters (11 election-years, 24 candidacies).

Table 5 – Marginal and Comparative Effects of Each Cluster on Influence Success

	Marginal Mean	**Cluster 1**	**Cluster 2**	**Cluster 3**
Cluster 1	$4.03x10^{7**}$			
Cluster 2	$4.34x10^{7**}$	$3.14x10^{6}$		
Cluster 3	$4.23x10^{7**}$	$2.03x10^{6}$	$-1.11x10^{6}$	
Cluster 4	$5.64x10^{7**}$	$1.61x10^{6**}$	$1.30x10^{6**}$	$1.41x10^{6**}$

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

Table 6 – Rhetorical Strategy Choices by Candidate and Year

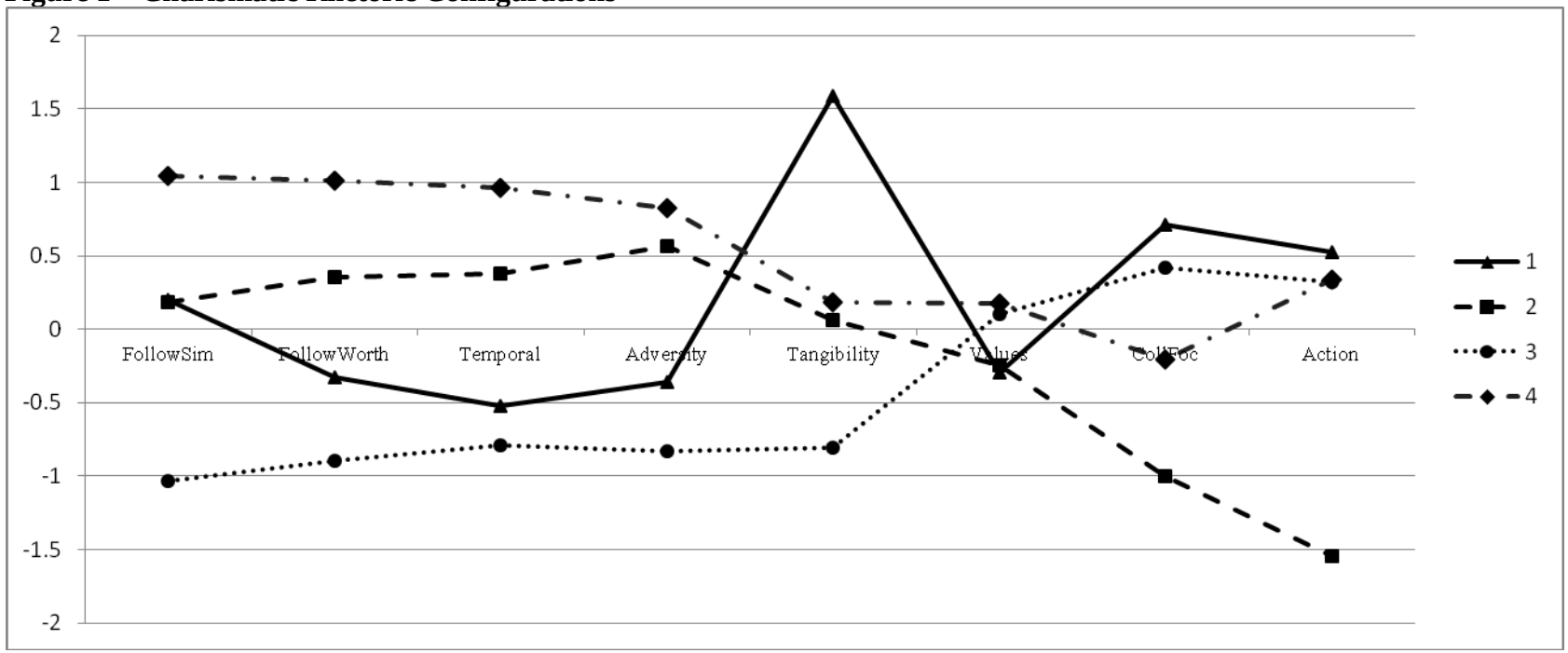
Candidate	1	2	3	4	Year	1	2	3	4
Anderson			1/1		1960	2/8	3/8	2/8	1/8
W. Bush		2/6		4/6	1976	5/6	1/6		
H.W. Bush	2/5	3/5			1980			4/4	
Carter	2/4	1/4	1/4		1984			4/4	
Clinton			2/5	3/5	1988	1/4	1/4	2/4	
Dole		1/2		1/2	1992	1/9	2/9	5/9	1/9
Dukakis			2/2		1996		1/4		3/4
Ford	3/3				2000		3/6		3/6
Gore		1/3		2/3	2004		1/6	1/6	4/6
Kennedy	1/4	2/4	1/4		2008			1/6	5/6
Kerry		1/3	1/3	1/3	2012			4/6	2/6
McCain			1/3	2/3					
Mondale			2/2						
Nixon	1/4	1/4	1/4	1/4					
Obama			1/6	5/6					
Perot			3/3						
Reagan			4/4						
Romney			3/3						

Values indicate number of uses of identified rhetorical strategy for each candidate or within each election-year out of total possible for each candidate or for each year (e.g. Anderson appeared in a single debate and used strategy #3, so in the 3 column, 1/1). For Candidates: Pearson $\chi^2 = 89.73$**; LR $\chi^2 = 95.49$** For Election Years: Pearson $\chi^2 = 72.62$**; LR $\chi^2 = 74.91$**

Table 7 – Occurrence (Count) of Rhetorical Strategies per Candidate and Debate by Year

1	2	3	4	Candidate	Year	Debate	1	2	3	4
1	2	1		Kennedy	1960	1	2			
1	1	1	1	Nixon		2		2		
						3		1		1
						4			2	
2	1			Carter	1976	1	2			
3				Ford		2	2			
						3	1	1		
		1		Anderson	1980	1			2	
		1		Carter		2			2	
		2		Reagan						
		2		Mondale	1984	1			2	
		2		Reagan		2			2	
1	1			H.W. Bush	1988	1	1		1	
		2		Dukakis		2		1	1	
1	2			H.W. Bush	1992	1	1		2	
		2	1	Clinton		2		1	2	
		3		Perot		3		1	1	1
			2	Clinton	1996	1				2
	1		1	Dole		2		1		1
	2		1	W. Bush	2000	1		1		1
	1		2	Gore		2		1		1
						3		1		1
			3	W. Bush	2004	1				2
	1	1	1	Kerry		2			1	1
						3		1		1
		1	2	McCain	2008	1				2
			3	Obama		2				2
						3			1	1
		1	2	Obama	2012	1			1	1
		3		Romney		2			2	
						3			1	1

Figure 1 – Charismatic Rhetoric Configurations



	Follower Similarity	Follower Worth	Temporal Orientation	Adversity	Tangibility	Values	Collective Focus	Action	Number of Members
Cluster 1	0.20	-0.33	-0.52	-0.36	1.59	-0.30	0.71	0.53	9
Cluster 2	0.18	0.35	0.38	0.56	0.06	-0.24	-1.00	-1.54	12
Cluster 3	-1.03	-0.89	-0.79	-0.83	-0.81	0.10	0.42	0.32	23
Cluster 4	1.04	1.01	0.96	0.82	0.18	0.17	-0.21	0.34	19