

Charisma and the clinic

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Abstract

Here we argue that ‘charisma’, a concept widely taken up within geography and the environmental humanities, is of utility to the social studies of medicine. Charisma, we suggest, draws attention to the affective dimensions of medical work, the ways in which these affective relations are structured, and the manner in which they are intimately tied to particular material-discursive contexts. The paper differentiates this notion of charisma from Weber’s analyses of the ‘charismatic leader’ before detailing three forms of charisma - ecological (which relates to the affordances an entity has), corporeal (related to bodily interaction) and aesthetic (pertaining to an entity’s initial visual and emotional impact). Drawing on interview data we then show how this framework can be used to understand the manner in which psychologists and neuroscientists have come to see and act on autism. We conclude the article by suggesting that examining charisma within healthcare settings furthers the concept, in particular by drawing attention to the discursive features of ecologies and the ‘non-innocence’ of charisma.

Key words

Charisma – Affect – Posthumanism – Autism - Weber

Introduction

Within geography and the environmental humanities significant recent attention has been directed towards the concept of ‘charisma’. Derived from the work of geographer Jamie Lorimer (Lorimer 2006; Lorimer 2007; Lorimer 2008a; Lorimer 2008b; Lorimer 2009; Lorimer 2015), charisma refers to:

23 the features of a particular organism that configure its perception by humans and
24 subsequent evaluation. It is a relational property contingent upon the perceiver and the
25 context... (Lorimer n.d.).

26 Charisma, then, relates to the ease with which a particular entity is perceived and the
27 affective responses (such as interest, disgust, fascination, or joy) experienced by the observer
28 upon that reception. Importantly, charisma is significantly related to context, it ‘emerges in
29 relation to the parameters of different technologically enabled, but still corporeally
30 constrained, human bodies, inhabiting different cultural contexts’ (2007: 916). Whether an
31 entity is salient or silent, generates strong or weak affective responses, or whether those
32 responses are positive or negative is, then, not entirely determined by inherent properties of
33 the organism but, rather, upon by the whole ecological setting within which that organism is
34 immersed and perceived.

35 It has been widely argued that an entity’s charisma plays a crucial role in processes of
36 knowledge production. Firstly, charisma partially determines *what* comes to be studied, with
37 charismatic entities receiving the most attention (Lorimer 2006). Secondly, charisma partially
38 determines *how* an entity is studied with affective responses suggesting particular courses of
39 action (Greenhough & Roe 2011). Finally, charisma determines *where* entities are studied
40 with work being undertaken in contexts where relevant properties for study are the most
41 prominent (Ellis 2011). Importantly, charisma is also valuable in elucidating how particular
42 affective relations assume a ‘consistent’ form and pattern within given socio-technical
43 assemblages (Lorimer 2007: 914), and the concept has been used to this end across more-
44 than-human geography and the environmental humanities (e.g. Bennett 2010; Ellis 2011;
45 Greenhough & Roe 2011; Johnson 2015). Perhaps due to the original focus upon the
46 nonhuman, however, the concept is yet to be engaged within a medical context.

47 In this article we suggest that charisma is a concept of potential utility to the social studies of
48 medicine by showing how individualised affective encounters can be linked with larger
49 ecological, material-discursive, and socio-technical structures or ecologies. There has been a
50 well recognised ‘turn’ to affect, emotion, and the body (Ahmed 2004; Thrift 2004) which has
51 been taken up within the social studies of medicine (e.g. Fitzgerald 2013; Kerr & Garforth
52 2016; Murphy 2015; Silverman 2012), and an increasing recognition that posthuman and
53 nonhuman perspectives have much to offer analyses of the medical and human sciences
54 (Andrews et al. 2014; Greenhough & Roe 2011). We argue that ‘charisma’ furthers these
55 endeavours by offering a valuable route into grasping the interrelations between affect and
56 ecology and how it is the objects of medical research come to be seen and acted upon in the
57 manner that they are.

58 In the following sections we describe key similarities and differences between the theory of
59 charisma being drawn upon here and Max Weber’s work on the charismatic leader (1968),
60 with which those in the social studies of medicine may be more familiar. In the body of the
61 paper we further elucidate the proposed tri-partite structure of charisma and do so with
62 specific reference to the case of autism. Drawing upon interviews conducted with leading
63 psychologists and neuroscientists, we show that autism is perceived as particularly
64 charismatic by researchers, that this shapes research trajectories, and that autism’s
65 charismatic features become salient within particular ecological settingsⁱ. Finally, in the
66 conclusion, we argue that not only does charisma offer important conceptual insight for those
67 studying affective and context-dependent aspects of medical work but also that studying
68 charisma within medical settings provides conceptual insight that has thus far not been
69 achieved with geography by, in particular, highlighting the ‘non-innocence’ of charisma.

70 1.2 *Differentiating Weber*

71 While the conception of charisma being drawn upon here has its roots in geography and the
72 environmental humanities, the term also has a sociological lineage - most notably in the work
73 of Max Weber (1968). Affinities with this sociological heritage are noted (Lorimer 2007:
74 915; Lorimer 2015: 152) but it is crucial to recognise that the concept worked with here
75 differs in significant ways. Given these changes it is important to note their nature and how
76 this contemporary body of thought differs from that previously used in the social studies of
77 health (e.g. Bacon & Borthwick 2013; James & Field 1992; Scott-Samuel & Smith 2015).

78 The primary concern of Weber was the ‘charismatic leader’. What demonstrates a leader’s
79 charismatic qualities is that the instructions they give out are not followed because of the
80 inherent rationality of their arguments; it is *they* who make their arguments seem believable
81 rather than the fact that the arguments are inherently so (Dow 1969: 135). Neither are these
82 leaders followed on the basis of tradition; these individuals come to occupy powerful political
83 positions but it is not simply on the basis of these positions that they are followed. Rather, it
84 is specifically *personal* characteristics which make a leader charismatic (Adair-Toteff 2014:
85 6).

86 There are similarities between Weber’s conception of charisma and that provided by Lorimer.
87 Firstly, ‘followers’ are drawn to the charismatic actor, whether that actor is Winston
88 Churchill or a particular nonhuman animal. Secondly, Lorimer, like Weber, juxtaposes
89 charisma with rationality. Just as Weberians may see Churchill as having something *more*
90 than rational argument, Lorimer sees scientific or environmental work as involving *more* than
91 rational problem solving. Finally, Lorimer like Weber sees charisma as a ‘value-free term’
92 (Dow 1969: 316); charismatic actors are not necessarily ‘good’ – both dictators and
93 cockroaches have an undeniable charisma – neither will everyone respond to them in the
94 same way – a subject may be charismatic for many but not all.

95 There are, however, important differences between the work of Weber and Lorimer. Firstly,
96 and obviously, Lorimer is concerned with research *subjects* rather than *leaders* so charisma
97 for Lorimer is not about following orders. Secondly, for Weber, the importance of charisma
98 is time-limited. 'People who seem to have charismatic authority appear primarily during
99 periods of great unsettledness and upheaval' (Adair-Totef 2014: 7) and, ultimately, charisma
100 is absorbed into the 'institutions of a community', giving way to traditional and rational
101 forms of authority (Dow 1969: 306). This is not so for Lorimer: the charismatic qualities of
102 actors play a permanent role in logics and epistemologies of science. For Weber, charismatic
103 authority is extraordinary and to be juxtaposed with the 'everyday' forms of rational and
104 traditional authority. By contrast, Lorimer's charisma does not *give way* to rational action but
105 is, rather, a permanent (if frequently unacknowledged) part of the knowledge creation
106 process.

107 This usage, as well as the broader analytical purchase of Lorimer's conception of charisma,
108 should be contextualised in relation to the broader project of departing from anthropocentric
109 epistemologies and ontologies, which has been central to the environmental humanities and
110 more-than-human geographies. Affect has played a vital role in this context, as a site of trans-
111 species communication (Despret 2004, 2013, 2016; Roe and Greenhough, 2014) that can
112 foster epistemic surprise by creating room for nonhuman actors to challenge or even redefine
113 existing understandings of their capacities (Hinchliffe et al, 2006; Haraway, 2008).

114 However, though much of this work has focused on human-animal engagements, it is
115 important to note that both Lorimer and other geographers who have engaged with charisma
116 have sought a *symmetrical* framework; that is, a framework which may be readily applied to
117 humans and nonhumans alike (Greenhough & Roe 2011; Lorimer 2007: 915). Thus, while
118 the majority of work on charisma has examined nonhumans, there is no reason why this must
119 be the case. The key question for those interested in healthcare is one of utility and not

120 applicability. In the following sections we attempt to demonstrate this utility by showing how
121 adopting the framework offered here can aid in the understanding of how researchers act
122 upon autism spectrum conditions as an especially informative example.

123 **Analysis**

124 Charisma, in the sense being deployed here, is understood as having a tri-partite structure and
125 we here detail that structure by drawing upon data obtained through interviews with
126 neuroscientists and psychologists who research autism. Autism consists of a dyad of, firstly,
127 socio-communicative impairments and, secondly, restricted interests and repetitive
128 behaviours (American Psychiatric Association 2013). While a good deal has been written
129 about affect in relation to autism (e.g. Fitzgerald 2013; Fitzgerald 2014; Moore 2014;
130 Silverman 2012), we do not want to suggest that autism is unique amongst clinical entities in
131 the applicability of charisma; quite the contrary, we are arguing for its general utility. Of
132 course, the charismatic qualities of autism are particular to it, and we comment and draw
133 attention to these particularities, but the intention is to stress that general utility of the concept
134 for the social study of health via its ability to make visible the highly mundane affects of
135 medical work and to link these affective responses to broader ecological and socio-technical
136 structures.

137 While we encourage the division to viewed heuristically, there are three different types of
138 charisma in this framework: ecological (which relates to the affordances an entity has),
139 corporeal (related to bodily interaction) and aesthetic (pertaining to an entity's initial visual
140 and emotional impact). These forms of charisma all refer to affective relations that emerge
141 within specific material-discursive assemblages. In clinical settings we suggest that each form
142 of charisma offers purchase for understanding why particular phenomena emerge and are
143 comprehended and responded to in (relatively) consistent ways across particular sites or

144 through particular practices, to the extent that they seem ‘obvious’ even though in other
145 socio-cultural contexts (or at other historical periods) these phenomena are not visible at all
146 or responded to quite differently.

147 *Ecological charisma inside and outside the clinic*

148 An entity’s ecological charisma is determined by the ability to apprehend it within a
149 particular context (a context which we take here to include both material and discursive
150 features of the environment). Thus, ecological charisma relates to ‘the anatomical,
151 geographical, and corporeal properties of an organism that configure the ease with which it is
152 perceived by a human subject in possession of all their senses’ (Lorimer 2015: 40).
153 Organisms which are diurnal, land-based, and of a reasonable size will consistently be more
154 charismatic to humans than those which are nocturnal, sea dwelling, and minute. An entity’s
155 ecological charisma is, therefore, relatively stable across time and space; an observation that
156 extends to clinical entities, some of which are easy to apprehend while others reveal
157 themselves in contexts which are not suited to the medical gaze, if at all.. This point is
158 important: Despite a degree of stability, ecological charisma is not a rigid feature of an entity
159 but is instead an emergent property that arises from a structured engagement with its
160 environment – an environment which includes those who encounter and perceive that entity
161 (Lorimer 2007: 914).

162 That some entities become easily recognisable only when they are observed within a
163 particular context, and without need for systematic diagnostic activities, is well recognised in
164 some fields and referred to as an organism’s ‘jizz’ (a corrupted acronym of ‘general
165 indication of size and shape’). Comprehending an organism through a gestalt ‘jizz’ requires:

166 an apprehension of a coalescence of its attributes, and as part of a broader set of
167 ecological relationships, rather than through the arduous study and memorizing of an
168 organism's distinct diagnostic characteristics. (Ellis 2011: 770)

169 This gestalt based, context determined, form of identification is most readily associated with
170 plane spotting, birdwatching (Lorimer 2007; Lorimer 2008a; Macdonald 2002) and various
171 sub-fields of botany (Ellis 2011). Studies have, however, reported similar forms of seeing
172 within a diverse range of clinical settings. Shaw, for example, notes that a 'diagnostic
173 intuition' is essential to practice within a genetics clinic (Shaw 2003: 50). Featherstone and
174 colleagues capture the essence of this gestalt perception with their notion of the 'spectacle of
175 the clinic' noting that in any particular case a 'well-respected and experienced genetic
176 specialist has the status to pronounce on whether a 'look' that fits a particular syndrome is
177 present' (Featherstone et al. 2005: 562).

178 Autism makes a particularly interesting case study through which to examine ecological
179 charisma because it demonstrably requires a very particular material-discursive ecology to be
180 seen but, once within that ecology, is particularly evident. Throughout interview, it was
181 simultaneously claimed that autism is both instantly recognisable *and* somehow eludes
182 scientific description. This, we suggest, is because autism is most easily seen within a
183 particular ecology which facilitates recognition of its 'gestalt'. This is well demonstrated in
184 the following extract from a Professor when they are asked how they feel about a particular
185 diagnostic technique, the Autism Diagnosis Observation Schedule or ADOS, which is used
186 within their laboratory:

187 It's probably the best thing we've got. I mean, I like the child versions better than the
188 adult version. I think that the adults that are very able, that have done a lot of
189 developing... Especially the ones that come in here because they travel around on their

190 own, a lot of them live independently, and I think that some of them don't meet
191 criteria using ADOS and they're clearly autistic. (Professor, interview 20)

192 What we are drawing attention to, here, is the claim that an individual can be 'clearly' autistic
193 and yet failed to 'meet criteria' within a diagnostic setting. The Professor makes a similar
194 point later in the interview in relation to a complaint about a lack of scientific publications
195 concerning aging in autism:

196 Professor: ...I mean if you look at the number of papers that are published on adults
197 there are really not that many.

198 Interviewer: And why do you think that is?

199 Professor: Well from my experience it's because ((laughs)), well certainly on the
200 auditory work we've done it's that they don't really perform very differently to adults
201 without autism. (Professor, interview 20)

202 What seems to be being described here is a struggle to make autism visible with conventional
203 diagnostic tools which attempt to quantify the condition. Nonetheless, the Professor is in no
204 doubt that their participants are 'clearly autistic'. Understanding how an individual comes to
205 be *seen* as autistic, we suggest, therefore requires a broader appreciation of contemporary
206 ecologies *outside* of the laboratory for it is within these ecologies which autism is, apparently,
207 evident.

208 The belief that autism is best seen in a 'social setting' and that the only hope of seeing autism
209 within the laboratory is to introduce this ecology is further considered by a Lecturer, below:

210 I think the problem with autism is that when you're capturing something about a
211 social dynamic and it's about somebody's abilities falling down within a social
212 setting, well experimentally that's quite difficult to replicate. So I suppose the other

213 way of looking at it is if you can think better about capturing real life in an
214 experimental setting because they're bad at recognising emotion when it's in the
215 context of something very dynamic that's happening in a short period of time in a real
216 life interaction, whereas if you give something and they have five seconds to work it
217 out and it's a still image they're going to be fine. So there's so much data that's
218 contradictory and not well understood and I think a big problem is that, it's something
219 about the social context that we just don't have inherent in an experimental task.
220 (Lecturer, interview 11)

221 Again, within this extract the Lecturer considers the possibility of 'capturing something about
222 a social dynamic' within a laboratory setting. Experimentally, this social dynamic is
223 something which is 'quite difficult to replicate', indeed it may be that the 'social context' is
224 something that just isn't 'inherent in an experimental task'. Understanding autism, therefore,
225 requires a consideration of the ecology within which it possesses charisma, for it is this
226 charisma which makes autism evident and of interest to researchers. What makes autism an
227 interesting case is that while certain other diagnostic classifications may become evident
228 *within* a techno-scientific ecology it is in a broader socio-cultural milieu that autism is most
229 readily identified and acted upon. Yet, while autism is especially striking in this regard, a
230 growing body of work has illustrated the broader applicability of this argument. Within
231 patient-centred medicine, for instance, the domestic has gained prominence as a privileged
232 site wherein particular disorders can not only be made visible but measurable and consistent,
233 in ways that feed back into clinical developments (e.g. Gardner 2016).

234 *Aesthetic charisma's role in diagnosis*

235 The second and third sub-types of charisma, aesthetic and corporeal charisma, involve
236 relational properties that emerge when 'shared structures of feeling bubble up within

237 particular constellations of people, technologies and other nonhumans’ (Lorimer 2015: 45).
238 These forms of charisma, therefore, are bound up with particular ‘affective logics’ that ‘guide
239 how people react in relation to particular species and landscapes’ (Lorimer 2015: 45) and, we
240 would suggest, when engaging with particular clinical phenomena in specific contexts.

241 Aesthetic charisma refers to entities that are visually striking and prompt ‘strong emotional
242 responses’ in those who engage with them (Lorimer 2007: 918); in conservation work, for
243 instance, this could refer to charismatic megafauna such as ‘cute and cuddly’ pandas or
244 ‘fierce and deadly’ tigers (Lorimer 2015: 46). Responses that are manifested as aesthetic
245 charisma are generated by:

246 ...the distinguishing properties of an organism's visual appearance that trigger
247 affective responses in those humans it encounters. Aesthetic charisma requires
248 ecological charisma but is not determined by it. (Lorimer 2015: 49)

249 The emotional responses generated by aesthetic charisma, in other words, are to an extent tied
250 to an entity’s ecological charisma (as in, its relatively stable affordances within a particular
251 environment), but are mediated by particular socio-cultural norms, structures and settings;
252 features that may be viewed as pathological in one setting may be viewed quite differently, or
253 disregarded entirely, in another.

254 Aesthetic charisma also has a distinct hierarchy, with entities and ecologies that generate
255 strong emotional responses having resources directed towards them, whilst less-charismatic
256 entities (or those whose charisma evokes negative affects) are neglected or even seen as
257 expendable (Clark 2015: 30-32). This framework thus offers scope for reflecting on the
258 attention and resources directed towards specific medical conditions and explains why a
259 certain actor consistently generates awe and attracts resources whilst another is ignored and
260 marginalised.

261 As discussed previously, autism is most charismatic within dynamic, social contexts and far
262 less so during attempts at quantification and measurement. What is clear, moreover, is that
263 when autism is seen within particular contexts it can prompt emotional and visceral reactions
264 in researchers that prompt action. These emotional responses are discussed in more detail
265 below (in relation to corporeal charisma) but are also evident in the following extracts. Here a
266 Postdoctoral Researcher was asked ‘...is there anything else which you’d like to add or that
267 you think we’ve not discussed, any bits of your research which you think are interesting?’
268 The response was the following:

269 ‘One thing I did do is get a second rater to look at my videos and code them in terms
270 of quality and quantity of facial expression use and thinks like that. And he was a very
271 proficient sign language user [the children in the study were deaf]. And I didn’t tell
272 him which groups were which, I just kept everything kind of anonymous, well, as
273 anonymous as you can when you’re looking at someone, but he didn’t know the group
274 information at all. And I asked him, just out of interest can you tell me who you think
275 is in the ASD group? And he was able to, even though they’re not coming up as
276 massively different in a lot of their communication, he was able to say they were
277 autistic children and they were the ones who didn’t have autism. So there is
278 something that seems to be there that doesn’t necessarily come up that makes you
279 have that kind of gut instinct. And I know that’s only one person looking at videos but
280 there was something I felt I couldn’t put my finger on with those children. You knew
281 just looking at their communication, something that comes across. And I’ve heard this
282 with quite a lot of people talking about individuals with autism, that you just get this
283 kind of, you know but you don’t know, you can’t really put your finger on what it
284 specifically is. (Postdoctoral Researcher, interview 19)

285 Key elements of aesthetic charisma are evident here. Tied to the above discussion on
286 ecological charisma, it is evident that autism is most charismatic *sui generis* and that
287 ‘grasping the whole renders it more than, and quite distinct from, the sum of its parts’ (Ellis
288 2011: 772). As discussed above this is clearly an important part of autism science’s
289 epistemology, ‘there is this something that seems to be there that doesn’t necessarily come
290 up’ and ‘you know but you don’t know’ and this is related to a visceral, emotional ‘gut
291 instinct’.

292 This description of autism’s aesthetic charisma is similar to that offered a Professor who,
293 again, argues that autism is ‘instantly recognisable’ without recourse to particular diagnostic
294 techniques:

295 There’s no denying that within this great range of the autism spectrum there’s a big
296 chunk where autism is enormously recognisable. I mean, what people will say fairly
297 flippantly is that the person in the reception can tell you whether they’re going to get a
298 diagnosis or not. Or, you know, from seeing them walking down the street towards
299 the reception door they can tell. So there’s a sort of sense that autism, the core autism
300 is really very, very recognisable. (Professor, interview 18)

301 In this extract, the Professor claims that ‘a receptionist’ would be able to identify correctly
302 individuals with autism before they have spoken or before they have even entered the room.
303 This experience that autism is ‘enormously recognisable’ understandably leads a great
304 number of researchers to the conclusion that ‘there must, must be something in it.’
305 (Postdoctoral Researcher, interview 9). Again, we suggest that thinking these extracts through
306 with reference to ecological and aesthetic charisma help us to understand how clinicians,
307 researchers, and diagnosticians know and then act on autism. Such a conclusion is supported
308 in the following extract from a further Professor:

309 Clinically, I think there is something quite striking because it seems to be the thing
310 that lots of us who've been involved in clinical work with children with autism for
311 more than twenty years, and research for the best part of twenty-five years, clinically
312 there is a sort of notion that when you see that constellation of developmental and
313 behavioural characteristics together, you know, it seems to one like a thing, it belongs
314 in some nosological system. So some notion that the medical model is demonising
315 individuals in a way that is going to be disadvantageous to them, to some sort of
316 notion that disorders like autism are primarily a social construct are both rather silly, I
317 think. I think probably most sensible people wouldn't hold either of those extreme
318 sort of views. (Professor, interview 17)

319 Twenty years of clinical 'experience' leads to the conclusion that autism is 'a thing', that to
320 claim that autism is a 'social construct' is 'rather silly' and something that 'sensible people
321 wouldn't think'. When one sees the 'constellation' of symptoms align, and once one has
322 experienced that charisma, denying its reality, even in the face of diagnostic uncertainty and
323 unquantifiability, becomes untenable.

324 *Corporeal charisma*

325 Corporeal charisma is distinguished from other forms of charisma by being generated by
326 particular 'proximal encounters' (Lorimer 2015: 44), wherein 'affections and emotions [are]
327 engendered by different organisms in their practical interactions with humans' (Lorimer
328 2007: 921). This form of charisma, therefore, engages with recent work that has shifted the
329 focus away from the visual towards other sensory, embodied experiences that produce
330 affective engagements (e.g. Ahmed 2004; Myers 2012; Thrift 2004). The primary differences
331 between corporeal and aesthetic charisma, however, emerge from where the 'encounters take
332 place rather than on the basis of any qualitative difference' (Lorimer 2015: 45).

333 In line with an increasing body of work that has emphasised the role of the body in
334 generating knowledge (Gardner & Williams 2015; Myers 2012; Warin 2014), this form of
335 charisma also plays a significant role in certain forms of expertise. Lorimer, for instance,
336 suggests that charisma manifests itself in two different aspects of expert knowledge. First,
337 there is an account of ‘epiphany’ which refers to the sort of ‘common autobiographical
338 reference made by many of the conservationists’ that refers to their first moment of being
339 affected by their future object of study (Lorimer 2007: 921). He notes that these accounts are
340 frequently ‘made sensible through retrospective narration as shaping subsequent professional
341 or voluntary practice’ (Lorimer 2015: 51). While an epiphany seems to be (and on a certain
342 level is) a moment of being affected, therefore, framing it in terms of corporeal charisma is a
343 means of connecting the personal to a particular pattern of response (governed by ecological
344 factors) and as something that is made intelligible through future socio-technical
345 arrangements and a subsequent accumulation of expertise. A slightly different facet of
346 charisma, dubbed *jouissance*, is understood in terms of the more everyday forms of affective
347 labour that are negotiated in subsequent, more mundane, work with a given entity.

348 That corporeal charisma plays an important role in the epistemology of autism is well
349 demonstrated in the following extracts. In the first, a Senior Lecturer describes their first
350 contact with autism as a teenager volunteering in a psychiatric hospital:

351 That experience of working with these children with autism stuck in my mind, I just
352 found it very, very compelling and fascinating. Of course there wasn’t nearly as much
353 know then about autism as there is now, but there’s just something about the kind of
354 mysterious nature of the way they are and I remember, this is from way back when I
355 was an undergraduate, but I remember this kind of experience of having this child
356 take me by the hand and use my hand to get things that he wanted. (Senior Lecturer,
357 interview 2)

358 In the second extract a professor describes one of their first experiences working with autism:

359 I went and during the summer holidays collected data for them [two researchers] from
360 people with autism. Children mainly, some adults, who had extraordinary memory
361 skills and then other children and adults with autism who were matched for ability but
362 didn't have memory skills. And so that was my first experience of really what autism
363 was, as opposed to reading about it. And it really blew my mind actually ((laughs)),
364 how different the reality was. And to go into some of the special schools and see, you
365 know, a playground full of children all moving and making sounds, often very
366 unusual sounds, and not usually playing together and not responding to you in the
367 way you would expect, you know, and ordinary child, or a child with intellectual
368 disabilities to. And it's just completely fascinating. And after that I thought that
369 autism was utterly fascinating but so upsetting... (Professor, interview 18)

370 These extracts are strikingly similar to both each other and to descriptions of corporeal
371 charisma. Firstly, these descriptions are both very much premised upon proximity; the
372 researchers cannot be 'there without being there' (Despret 2013: 53) and knowledge is
373 articulated as going beyond the visual. In the first instance, the fact that the Senior Lecturer
374 was taken by the hand and that the child used their body to achieve their goals is central to
375 the story and an embodied empathy is core to understanding (Despret 2013: 69). For the
376 Professor, the ability to 'see' autism was premised upon being physically in the presence of
377 those with the condition; this was crucial and contributed to the realisation of how 'different
378 the reality was' from what they had read in books.

379 Intimately tied to this physical proximity is the affective, non-rational, nature of the
380 experiences. The Senior Lecturer refers to their meetings as being unquantifiable and
381 emotional and as 'compelling', 'fascinating', and 'mysterious'. Likewise, the Professor

382 describes the moment of encounter as ‘utterly fascinating but so upsetting’. Crucially, these
383 bodily, inarticulatable experiences have, retroactively, been made sense of on the basis of
384 these interviewees’ expertise and knowledge about autism: articulated as a moment of
385 epiphany. These epiphanies can be juxtaposed with the everyday experience of *jouissance* –
386 which can be seen within the affected encounters described elsewhere in the autism literature.
387 Chloe Silverman, for instance, discusses ‘love as a form of labor’ in the everyday care
388 practices and commitments that are undertaken not only by parents, but also psychologists
389 and clinicians who research autism (Silverman, 2012: 3). Des Fitzgerald, similarly,
390 foregrounds the way that the ‘search for a neurobiology of autism, is traced through the
391 feelings, and the body, of the unapologetically individual and familiar autism neuroscientist’
392 (Fitzgerald 2013: 138). It is these everyday somatic engagements, coupled with moments of
393 epiphany, that constitute corporeal charisma as understood within clinical and medical
394 settings.

395 **Discussion**

396 In this article, and working through the example of autism, we have argued that the concept
397 of charisma has much to offer sociological studies of health and illness. Adopted from the
398 work of geographer Jamie Lorimer, which has received wide uptake within geography and
399 the environmental humanities, charisma ‘encompasses both the ecological and the affective
400 dimensions to a body's behaviour’ (Lorimer 2007: 915) and has been described as being
401 crucial in determining how and where we come to know particular objects of investigation.
402 We have here systematically elucidated the tri-partite nature of charisma as discussed in the
403 literature (with particular focus upon ecologies, aesthetics, and corporeality) through
404 reference to autism and sought to show how charisma allows new understandings of how this
405 contemporary diagnostic classification comes to be seen and worked on by medical and
406 scientific practitioners.

407 As discussed, studies examining charisma play close attention to affect. Examining the role
408 of affect has, of course, already been an increasing area of interest within healthcare settings,
409 with a burgeoning body of work focusing on the affective properties of individuals; drawing
410 attention to the role of corporeal relations; and foregrounding affective labour (Fitzgerald
411 2013; Kerr & Garforth 2016). What charisma offers analyses of healthcare contexts beyond
412 these existing examples, we suggest, is a sense of how particular affective relations emerge as
413 consistent patterns of response, within a particular ecological setting, and over time and
414 space. Charisma goes beyond studies of affect, therefore, as it does not purely characterise
415 affect as being a property of individual biology (see Leys (2011) and Wetherell (2015) for a
416 critical discussion); neither does it solely refer to the process of being (or learning to be)
417 affected (Despret 2013). Nor, can charisma be attributed to the affective environment of a
418 particular site (Friese 2013; Kerr & Garforth 2016) but, rather, demands that attention be paid
419 to the entire assemblage.

420 Charisma shifts the focus onto how affective relations become tangible and assume a distinct
421 logic, within particular ecological settings, and marked by particular material and discursive
422 factors. The example of autism makes this broader utility clear for, while existing studies
423 have shown that autism epistemologies are radically shaped by the affective responses of
424 parents and researchers (Fitzgerald 2013; Silverman 2012) what has not been foregrounded is
425 that these affective responses are intimately tied to particular ecological settings. This
426 observation most readily applies temporally (for autism was neither seen nor felt until the
427 mid-twentieth century) but also spatially: Interviewees described spaces where autism is seen
428 and felt more readily than others. Strikingly, the laboratory was described as a space where
429 autism is hard to grasp whereas individuals can be seen as ‘clearly autistic’ in other spaces.

430 It is not just a question, however, of asking what charisma can contribute when related to
431 healthcare settings. Exploring the dynamics of this affective, relational, contextually

432 determined account of charisma within a healthcare context, also offers important conceptual
433 elaborations. First, within accounts of ecological charisma, at present, there is an emphasis on
434 the material and biological properties of organisms and physical environments. Indeed, this
435 emphasis has been reinforced by the concept's uptake across geography and the
436 environmental humanities. The broader conceptual context that underpins this relational,
437 more-than-human account of charisma, however, is contingent on a collapse between the
438 material and the semiotic (e.g. Despret 2004; Despret 2013; Barad 2007; Haraway 2008).
439 Sociological studies of medicine have, of course, long drawn attention to the importance of
440 symbolic (Pickersgill 2012), discursive (Wallis & Nerlich 2005), and classificatory
441 (Timmermans 2014) work and, thus, entanglements between the material and the semiotic
442 seem likely to receive well needed attention within such settings. If these concerns were fed
443 back into accounts of nonhuman charisma in conservation contexts, then further emphasis on
444 the discursive could prove useful in asking questions about, for instance, the role of
445 nationalism, use-value, and other decidedly cultural constraints in contributing to the
446 different forms of charisma attached to particular entities.

447 Second, while work in geography has previously discussed the 'non-innocence' of charisma
448 (e.g. Clark 2015), non-innocence has primarily been articulated through those who have been
449 'left behind', the non-charismatic species that have been ignored in conservation efforts (e.g.
450 Lorimer 2006). What healthcare settings foreground is the potential non-innocence of
451 charisma for charismatic organisms themselves. Analyses of healthcare have long detailed –
452 whether through processes of medicalisation or subjectification (Callon & Rabearisoa 2004;
453 Ussher 2004) – the ambivalence of falling under the gaze of medical professionals. If
454 medical attention is, at times, unwanted then charisma may be likewise. Analyses of charisma
455 within healthcare settings can thus contribute to a growing body of literature (e.g. van Dooren
456 2014; Giraud & Hollin 2016) which problematizes oft celebrated affective and relational

457 engagements and draws attention to the inherent violence in care-work. Insights from the
458 clinic may contribute to this body of work, moreover, by shifting the emphasis towards the
459 ambivalent implications of charisma for entities deemed especially charismatic.

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ⁱ The main purpose of this article is a theoretical intervention and, as such, methodological details pertaining to the interview data is not provided here. Full information has, however, been published in Hollin and Pilnick (2015: 280).