THE GOOD, THE BAD, AND THE RHETOR
Rhetoric in Management Guru Literature

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May, 2009
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The above illustration of Lady Rhetoric was used as the frontpiece for Donald Clark's 1957 book 'Rhetoric in Greco-Roman Education', which is where the following description of the piece below is adapted from. Lady Rhetoric above, presented in a woodcut from the medieval encyclopaedia Margarita Philosophica (1504), is one of the seven Learned Ladies allegorically described in relation to the Seven Liberal Arts which are explored by Martianus Capella in his Marriage of Philosophy and Mercury, which was written before 400 B.C. and was one of Capella's writings that were of immense cultural influence down to the late Middle Ages.

In the woodcut above, an accurate statement of Greco-Roman rhetoric is reflected. The sword and lily extending from the Lady's mouth allegorically represent the two traditional functions of rhetoric: to attack and defend by verbal arguments, and to embellish speech with verbal adornment. The beauty of her gown and the charm of her coiffure represent beauty of style as first taught by Gorgias, a Greek philosopher. The words embroidered on the hem of her robe function to remind us of the colours, or figures of speech, and the enthymemes and exempla, types of deductive and inductive argument. At the top of the picture one can see Aristotle, who represents rhetorical and natural philosophy. Justinian, next to him, represents the use of rhetoric in supports of law; Seneca the moral philosophy and the educational system of the Roman schools of rhetoric, and Sallust represents history. Rhetoric is embraced by the Zone of Justice, and the presence of Virgil with a laurel crown emphasizes the rhetorical influence on the style of poetry. In the foreground one can see Cicero, who is clearly defending Milo in a court of law, and the Senatus Populusque Romanus seen at the right bottom represents a scene of deliberative rhetoric.
**ABSTRACT**

**Title:** The Good, the Bad and the Rhetor  
Rhetoric in Management Guru Literature

**Date of Seminar:** June 2\textsuperscript{nd} 2009  
**Course:** BUSM 18 D level – Degree Project in Managing People, Knowledge and Change  
**Authors:** Louise Nass, Nichola Jones and Vesna Mirkoska  
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**Keywords:** Management gurus, rhetoric, ethos, pathos, logos, binary, analog, ambiguity tolerance, decision making, freedom of choice

**Thesis Purpose**  
The study starts from one basic assumption, on which the research question is contingent upon. The basic assumption is that management gurus utilize persuasion strategies to appeal to the reader. To test this assumption the Aristotelian triad is used. However, the latter rests on a problematic premise, since the Aristotelian triad of ethos, pathos, and logos has so far solely been applied to examination of oral speech, as will be explained in the Method section. This study, however, challenges the premise by presuming that the triad may also be identified in written discourse. Once the assumption proves true, which means that ethos, pathos and logos are identified within the objects of study, the research question may be derived: to what extent can this triad be evaluated and qualified to account for the persuasive appeal?

**Methodology:**  
This thesis employs the qualitative study of text as ‘mute evidence’, and applies rhetorical criticism as an analytical method and partly recognizes the second hermeneutical cycle within Hermeneutics

**Theoretical Perspective:** NeoAristotelianism, classical rhetoric, combined selectively

**Empirical data:**  
The empirical data consist of written material, or artifacts

**Conclusion:**  
The study concludes that the Aristotelian triad applies also to written discourse but the extent to which it accounts for the effect may be qualified restrictively due to the nature of ethos, pathos and logos. Moreover, the study argues that the artifacts construct a preferred audience which favours binary models over analog and prefers non-ambiguity in messages
Acknowledgements

Nichola, Louise and Vesna would like to thank their Supervisor, Dr. Peter Svensson for providing the tickets to this, for us, unexplored land. Also, for keeping his cool, staying calm and steering the ship when we would miss the coordinates.

Vesna would like to dedicate this study to the memory of her beloved father who despite being widely read somehow disregarded Aristotle’s hint: that some audiences cannot be instructed even with the sheer force of intellect...

Vesna Mirkoska          Louise Nass   Nichola Jones
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When the sun bashfully appeared through the clouds in Lund, after a week of rain, I was immediately tempted to go outside the library. Having sat on the threshold of a house, I closed my eyes and lifted my head facing the sun. No sooner than I opened my eyelids, two girls were standing in front of me.

“I believe that I am God's child and that he loves me” said one...the other coyly repeated the same words and asked: “Would you like to know more about this?”

Usually disposed for communication due to curiosity for people, this time I resisted the temptation saying that I am in the middle of my thesis writing and I just have to take a small break on the sun. Wishing me luck with the thesis they left me there...

I realized that this was in essence an invitation to see their world, and Weaver would aptly observe “We have no sooner uttered words that we have given impulse to other people to look at the world or some small part of it in our way”. McCloskey would go as far as to say: there is no word uttered without rhetoric.

It is with this reflection that the authors of this study invite the reader on this journey with the passion to retain him or her until its very end.

(V.M, 23 May 2009, Lund)
A guru, (venerable) or ‘dignified in Sanskrit, is a personal spiritual teacher or guide who has himself attained spiritual insight (Encyclopaedia Britannica). The term ‘guru’ has undertaken an intriguing status passage as it has entered the English language (Jackson 1996). Generally used to describe an influential teacher or mentor, the term has now entered popular every day discourse (Roszak 1969), and in contemporary ‘media speak’, the title ‘guru’ is given to anyone who is recognized as having developed a distinctive lever of expertise in one of a number of ever-expanding spheres of human endeavour, such as fitness gurus, computer gurus, and management gurus (Jackson 2003).

The chapter reviews the guru phenomenon in academic research, focuses more extensively on few prominent research aspects and respective authors, and locates the study within current research. In particular the chapter provides a brief statement of purpose of the study.

1.1 GURU PHENOMENON IN ACADEMIC RESEARCH

In 1997, Peter F. Drucker would wittily observe with a dose of sarcasm "I have been saying for many years that we are using the word ‘guru’ only because ‘charlatan’ is too long to fit into a headline." Only three years prior to this observation the management guru phenomenon had already been more extensively embraced in academic research. By 2001, when Drucker would amusingly be ranked ‘number one management guru’, the authors and articles elaborating closely on various aspects of the phenomenon would proliferate.

Although the management guru phenomenon has emerged little over two decades ago, long before that period influential management thinkers were already present. Among the most prominent thinkers that influenced management was Weber. Although Weber is most notably associated with sociology, Weber can be referred to as a ‘management writer’ and his work includes studies on different forms of authority and the effects on individuals social, religious and working lives. According to Huczynski, “The interest here is not directly upon the validity of Weber’s ideas but upon the appeal that bureaucracy, as a management idea, has had for managers over the years through to the present day.”(Huczynski, 1993:12). This illustrates that Weber’s management concepts have had
profound impact on managers throughout the years. Next, the ideas of Frederick Taylor and the idea of scientific management also resonated highly within management theory. Later, management’s attention would move to Fayol and administrative theory; to the concept of Human Relations and the Hawthorne studies; and to Neo-human relations including Maslow’s pyramid of needs and Theory X and Y.

Prior to elaborating on guru research, it is the aim of this study to explore the techniques of rhetoric, in particular the Aristotelian techniques of persuasion, if any, deployed by management gurus in their most notable publications. Firstly, the authors of the study were bemused by the status of popularity understood here as large selling figures of their books. Therefore, the purpose is to examine and possibly propose that a share that may account for the popularity of their literature rests in the rhetorical tactics utilized. Secondly, it was an opportunity to give way to curiosity and observe whether the ‘three means of proof or persuasion’ as set in antiquity may apply to modern popular management literature and to what extent. The challenge was enhanced even further by the fact that the method in this study applied solely to the examination of oral speeches and never on written discourse. From this point onwards, the Chapter will more thoroughly present some aspects of the guru phenomenon in research.

Demonstrably, some influential thinkers discussed above made a strong imprint on management theory but they were subsequently followed by a steady procession of management thinkers with the interest in management theory going in overdrive in the 1980s as the Western world and America in particular, attempted to come to terms with the rise of Japan, the spread of computers, and radical changes in working patterns (Micklethwait and Woolridge 1996:5).

However, articles and books on the phenomenon of management gurus have only recently emerged. In particular, four authors have extensively examined and researched the guru phenomenon.

In 1993 Andrzej Huczynski closely and extensively examined the management guru phenomenon. With his book ‘Management Gurus: What makes them and how to become one’, (1993) he opened the guru debate by covering the guru concept comprehensively. The key question he posed was ‘what is the secret of success of management gurus and how can it be emulated?’ Other topics he covered were the historical context of management gurus, the requirements managers had in relation to guru ideas, the promotion and public presentation of guru ideas, and the succession of ‘management fads’.
According to Huczynski a distinction needed to be drawn “between the task of critiquing the management ideas themselves and that of conducting an analysis to explain their popularity” (1993:7). A related question he thus explored was why certain management ideas gained huge popularity, while others remained unknown to the larger public. By taking a historical perspective and examining the appeal of the theories of bureaucracy, scientific management, administrative (classical) management, human relations and neo-human relations, Huczynski found that all well known management gurus had certain characteristics in common, amongst which simplicity, step-by-step implementation, and universal applicability (1993). Furthermore, he categorized management gurus into three categories: “academic gurus”, “consultant gurus”, and “hero managers”. In particular, Academic gurus are those who have an affiliation with an academic institution, such as Henry Mintzberg, Rosabeth Moss Kanter, William Ouchi, or Michael Porter for instance. Consultant gurus write and advise independently, such as Tom Peters, and hero managers are, or have been, corporate leaders or self-made who pass on their practical experience, such as Jack Welch or Bill Gates.

Several years later, Grint made important contribution to the explanation of management gurus and management fashions. By taking on a post-modern view, Grint endeavours to discomfort those who believe there is a single reality or a single model which is mutually agreed by all and hence a basis for coherent management action (Grint, 1997 in Franklin, 2004). According to him, “the assumption that the world is both certain and knowable encourages us to look for — that is discover — facts that exist, rather than to consider the extent to which we do not so much discover as create the world through our efforts” (1997:21). He argues that the binary logic underlying popular management ideas does not exist, and that reality is much more complicated and “fuzzy”.

Moreover, Grint divides management ideas into being focused on either logic or emotion, and having a focus on either the individual (internalist) or on exogeneous factors (externalist), which results in five approaches. The rational approach suggests that the reason for management gurus and their ideas is that they actually work. The structural approach suggests that it is because management ideas fit the environment and strategy of an organization at a certain point in time. The distancing approach argues that popular management theories are used to distance managers from their subordinates. The institutional approach suggests that management ideas are taken on as a result of factors outside the organization, and because managers feel pressure to do so because others are
doing it (the so called bandwagon effect). Finally, the charismatic approach centers the attention on the guru himself and suggests that managers turn to the charismatic guru for guidance as an act of faith. In this line of thought Jackson argues that the distancing and institutional approaches are not distinguishable (2001).

Furthermore, another comparison between management gurus and their ideas was made by Brad Jackson. In his 2001 book ‘Management Gurus and Management Fashions’, he offered an alternative approach to identifying common themes between management ideas by using the research method of Fantasy Theme Analysis. In his analysis of three leading guru theories of the 1990s (Hammer and Champey and their re-engineering movement; Covey and the effectiveness movement; and Senge and the learning organization), he found that all theories use rhetoric to communicate a different fantasy theme, such as ‘finding the true north’ or ‘getting control but not controlling’. Moreover, in contrast to Huczynski’s earlier guru categorization, Jackson argues that “there does not appear to be a hard and fast rule about what exactly is a management guru, nor is there any agreement on how many management gurus there really are” (Jackson, 2001: 13). According to him ‘guru status’ is a social creation, which is ordained by media attention and implies current (or at least relatively recent) wide-ranging popularity and influence among practitioners, consultants, and academic audiences. Ultimately, the most definite one can be is to say that “guruship is in the eye of the beholder” (Jackson, 2001: 13).

Lastly, a fourth author to identify common elements of different guru ideas is Ten Bos (2000), who focused on the relationship between fashion and utopia in management thinking. He identified different common utopian elements in management concepts, such as unity, totality, and over-reliance on science and technology, which show close similarity to the twelve characteristics identified by Huczynski (1993). However, Ten Bos’ main critique is that “management fashion has not been able to dispense itself from utopian tendencies, and that this, and not its fashionability is the reason for its hollowness”. Instead, Ten Bos argues that “we should take management fashion more seriously to come to grips with organizational and managerial reality” (2000:7).

Finally, numerous guides about the management guru phenomenon have appeared, describing well known management gurus and their most notable publications (see for example Kennedy 1991; Boyett and Boyett 1998; Brown, Crainer, Dearlove and Rodrigues 2002; Hindle 2003; etc.). In conclusion, upon providing a brief account of the most prominent authors dealing with the management guru, the discussion will attempt to consider several
predominant aspects in academic research. Moreover, after casting a short overview of guru criticism the final section handles some communication aspects, both on written and oral artifacts as embraced in research and locates the study within this area.

1.2 ASPECTS OF RESEARCH

1.2.1. Management Ideas as Products
A particular focus of Huczynski’s book ‘Management Gurus’ concerned how management ideas were transformed into products and then marketed, how their buyers consumed them, and how these ideas were then diffused within and between organizations (Huczynski, 1993). Another author to elaborate on this theme as well is Abrahamson (1996). In his view, management fashions can be studied like any other commercial product. Looking at this process, he identifies four stages of the supply side of management ideas, which he labels creation, selection, processing, and disseminating. Several other authors have also described the workings of the ‘supply’ side of management ideas, or its commodification. For example, du Gay explored a Foucauldian framework through which the production and consumption of management knowledge may be explained, whereas Collins (2003) regarded management ideas as similar to branded goods which were consumed by their ‘end users’.

1.2.2. Popularity of gurus and their ideas
Another prominent dimension in research concerns the popularity of gurus and their ideas. Firstly, Huczynski (1993) suggested that the gurus’ popularity could be explained by the fact that gurus recognize, understand, and cater to the needs and preoccupations of managers. Given the uncertain world managers have to function in, gurus have acknowledged and responded to the manager’s need for a measure of predictability. Secondly, he proposed that managers sought status and recognition (Huczynski, 1993). Watson (1994) and Jackson (1996) also examined management guru popularity and both agreed with this argument. For instance, Jackson (1996) stated that by using common sense and simplified principles and trends, gurus provide support by helping managers make sense of their environment, fulfilling the managers’ need of maintaining or taking control of the situation.

On a different note, some authors explored different factors that account for guru popularity. Mickletwaith and Woolridge (1996) argued that it was mainly the changing
environment organizations find themselves in nowadays that could explain the appeal of management gurus, since the death-rate of organizations is much higher than it was before, jobs are changing, and knowing about only your own industry is no longer sufficient for managers. All of this tends to drive managers back into the gurus’ arms (Mickletwaith and Woolridge, 1996).

Finally, another stream of theories handles their popularity by investigating how guru ideas contribute to the creation of managerial identity. In that context, gurus are regarded as legitimising managers’ actions and stabilizing his or her sense of self and identity. By doing so, gurus can reassure and reduce the feeling of insecurity which is an inevitable part of managers’ daily activities, and can shape managers’ understanding of their roles and their position of standing at times of change (see i.e. Jackson 1996; Du Gay 1996; Judge and Douglas 1998; Clark and Salaman 1998). In other words, gurus not only constitute the organizational realities managers find themselves in, but also ‘create’ the managers themselves (Clark and Salaman 1998). A similar argument is described by Collins (2003), who suggested that management buzzwords offer managers the ability and opportunity to restructure images of social reality. According to him, the gurus’ buzzwords constitute and restructure the world. Apart from the research reviewed above, particular aspects of the management gurus have been subjected to criticism as well. The following section briefly addresses the crux of such criticism.

**1.3 GURU CRITICISM**

Already in the 1980s, McGill complained that fashionable management myths often consist of hopelessly simplistic solutions that undermine managers’ understanding of the real complexities that pertain to their work (McGill, 1988 in Ten Bos and Heusinkveld 2007). According to McGill, such management myths have “drawn managers away from the realities of modern management and fixed them in patterns of feeling and thought that are inappropriate to contemporary organizational life” and are simply “wrong” (McGill 1988: 202).

Other critics (Hilmer and Donaldson, 1996; Mickletwaith and Woolridge, 1996; Hoopes, 2003; Sorge and van Witteloostuijn, 2004) have used even more dire words to describe management guru ideas, and argued that they are “dangerous”, “amoral”, “conceited”, “sick”, or “idiotic” (Ten Bos and Heusinkveld, 2007). Moreover, a number of authors has stressed the irrationality or even anti-managerial aspects of what, according to
them, can only be seen as dangerous management “fads” or “hypes” (i.e. Donaldson, 1996; Ramsey, 1996; Micklethwait and Woolridge, 1996; Hilmer and Donaldson, 1996; DuGay, 2000; Sorge and van Witteloostuijn, 2004). Some authors, for instance, Hoopes even claim that the ‘story of the pioneer gurus matters today because they helped to create unrealistic hopes for democracy and moral legitimacy in the workplace that continue in our time (Hoopes, 2003).

Apart from the rational approach described above, authors have criticized management ideas from a more critical perspective, in particular the reinforcement of certain dominant social categories. Instead of focusing on the dubious relationship of management ideas with the formal-rational goals of the organization, they have questioned the “alleged tendency both to privilege the interests of certain groups within and outside organization (e.g. top managers, stockholders, consultants, or even cultural norms of American religious fundamentalists and nationalists (Grint, 1994; Grint and Case, 1998)), and to undermine the “quality of life” of those who are subjected to the implementation of fashionable concepts by for instance making working conditions “more stressful” (Knights and McCabe, 1998, p. 184, in Ten Bos and Heusinkveld 2007: blz)”.

Particular authors have accused guru-led management ideas of endorsing the hidden political agenda of managers (Barley and Kunda, 1992; Boje and Winsor, 1993; Knights and Murray, 1994; Willmott, 1994; Grint, 1995; Alvesson and Willmott, 1996; ten Bos, 1997), tempting some of the critics to suggest that totalitarian or “Orwellian” motives pervade fashionable trends such as cultural management (Kunda, 1992; Willmott, 1993). However, “underlying these seemingly far-fetched suggestions is a deep concern about the emancipation of workers and employees” (Ten Bos and Heusinkveld, 2007: 307).

Finally, Micklethwait and Woolridge have identified a number of defects when looking at management guru ideas: they are incapable of self-criticism, use unclear terminology, are mostly common sense, and ‘faddish’. As the largest or ‘true’ problem they see the fact that different management ideas contradict each other.

Upon reviewing the criticism aspects, the next section concentrates on the aspects of research that handle speech acts and text reproduction by management gurus and locates the study within that framework.
1.4 COMMUNICATION ASPECT OF RESEARCH

1.4.1. Speech acts
Huczynski in his ‘Management Gurus’ examines the communication of guru ideas to the (management) public (1993). Most of the focus within this area has been concentrated on the verbal communication of management ideas, such as guru seminars and presentations. Within this subject, Clark and Salaman (1998) have developed a new line of reasoning in explaining the appeal of management gurus, arguing that one should see gurus as modern day witch doctors, and what they do, as a performance. In other words, they see the management guru as a performer that persuades his or her audience to believe his or her ideas, which could help to explain the strong appeal of guru ideas regardless of the criticism they receive. This has also been described by Ten Bos and Heusinkveld (2006), who argue that that gurus are important characters in a domain in which presentation rather than truthfulness is crucially important.

A decade after the ideas of Clark and Salaman, Timothy Clark and Greatbach conducted an empirical study to closely examine the live presentations of management gurus. In the book ‘Management Speak’ (2008), they focused on how gurus package and manage their message to generate a huge audience response. In particular, they closely inspect the use of humour and storytelling within the gurus’ presentations. On that note, Clark and Greatbach (2008) argue that the most renowned gurus are highly skilled in using a small range of persuasive communication techniques.

1.4.2. Written Text
Research on communication of guru ideas has largely focused on verbal communication, and neglected written communication (Huczynski, 2006). However, the written communication of guru ideas, i.e. in books, has still received some attention: several authors focused on the topic of manufacturing of guru books in order to create maximum appeal for the audience (Furusten, 1999; Clark and Greatbach, 2004). Moreover, Collins (2000) looked at the use of marketing and a specific vocabulary in management books, and argued that the effect of such created language was to minimize critical enquiry and instead manufacture a ready made view of the world. Finally, Magretta (2002) and Hancock and Tyler (2004) focused on the use of catchphrases and discourses, arguing that these had originally begun to appear in self help manuals and lifestyle magazines.
The use of a certain discourse by management gurus or for management ideas has also been explored by several authors. For example, Grint and Case (1998) stated that the Business Process Reengineering movement used an aggressive military discourse to gain appeal to the audience (see also Jones 1994, Willmott 1995).

However, within the subject of written management guru communication, the use of rhetoric as ‘means of persuasion’ in written text has received less attention. One author to touch upon this subject has been Kieser (1997), who focused on written communication and argued that we use rhetoric whenever we communicate, and noted that rhetoric was fundamental to guru theorizing as an aesthetic appeal to the public.

Next, as described above, Jackson explored their rhetoric by using the Fantasy Theme Analysis so as to identify recurring themes in different management guru ideas. However, he used different data of which books were only a small part of the empirical material.

1.4.3. Locating the study

Despite the publications mentioned above the management guru phenomenon has still received only limited attention by the academic community, and the attention it has received has been called “incomplete and dismissive” (Jackson 1996: 572). According to many authors, the theories and work of management gurus is generally considered to be too philosophically impoverished, theoretically underdeveloped, and empirically emaciated to warrant serious academic scrutiny (i.e. Burrell, 1989; Carroll, 1983; Hitt and Ireland 1987, Thomas 1989).

However, by focusing mainly on the quality of the gurus’ work, academics have overlooked the most significant aspect of the guru phenomenon: “why have they become so popular, and what needs to they fulfil?” (Jackson 1996). In other words, much of the attention for the phenomenon has been directed to the management concepts themselves, while the reasons for the underlying appeal and popularity of the ideas has received attention mainly in treating the historical context and its effect on the receptiveness of guru’s ideas.

Moreover, as described above only two authors have examined management gurus’ messages in the light of rhetoric: Jackson (1996, 1999, 2000, 2001), who used fantasy theme analysis to look at three different management gurus’ concepts, and Kieser (1997), who focused on the aesthetic aspects of rhetoric to explain the gurus’ appeal.
Finally, it is the aim of this study to consider the techniques of rhetoric, deployed by management gurus in their most notable publications, due to the authors’ bewilderment with the popularity of guru literature and their curious attitude towards antique rhetorical techniques. This study therefore, purports to trace the receptiveness of the ideas, or how the substance of messages may emerge in recognizable patterns. The patterns may well be self-serving as when embarking on the analysis the authors had already a particular pattern in their mind and that is the Aristotelian triad.

In particular, this study starts from one basic assumption, on which the research question is contingent upon. The basic assumption is that management gurus utilize persuasion strategies to appeal to the reader. To test this assumption the Aristotelian triad is used. However, the latter rests on a problematic premise, since the Aristotelian triad of ethos, pathos, and logos has so far solely been applied to examination of oral speech, as will be explained in the Method section. This study, however, challenges the premise by presuming that the triad may also be identified in written discourse.

Once the assumption proves true, which means that ethos, pathos and logos are identified within the objects of study, the research question may be derived: to what extent can this triad be evaluated and qualified to account for the persuasive appeal?

The study aims at providing a tentative answer to the above research question, by means of analyzing six artefacts extracted from six works from the respective number of management gurus. The final chapter or the conclusions of this thesis will attempt to provide some tentative response to the research question.

1.4.4 Disposition
The structure of the thesis extends over several chapters and specific sections therein. Chapter one is followed by an overview of rhetoric in chapter 2, with particular emphasis on the classical theory and an overview of contemporary debates in the discipline. Further, the particularities of the methodology and method used are elaborated in the chapter 3 on method, which is followed by the analytical section in chapter 4. Finally, the study ends with the conclusions drawn from the findings in chapter 5, and attempts to provide reflections on the subject matter. Finally, several tentative proposals for further research are offered.
CHAPTER 2  RHETORIC

But rhetoric is fancy talk, isn’t it?
(Fellow economists honestly puzzled by the use of rhetoric as quoted by McCloskey (1994))

In social judgements, politics and justice we never have complete knowledge. There are no irrefutable demonstrations, no incontrovertible truths. Here is the domain for persuasive arguments (Oatley and Jenkins, 1996:282).

In classical rhetorical theory, “the faculty of discovering all the possible means of persuasion was defined as rhetoric” (Aristotle, Rhetoric). Through time it has received a variety of attributes, from “sophistry”, “queen of the liberal arts” and “loaded language” to “purple prose”, or amusingly “the world’s second oldest profession” and the recent description of it as “purposive communication” (Sloane, 2001:ix).

To grasp the intricacy of rhetoric, this Chapter aims to first briefly address its genesis within the Western civilization, present the Canons of classical rhetoric and dwell on the Rhetoric of Aristotle and the triad of ethos, pathos and logos. The second section deals with the changing perception of rhetoric and the notions of ethos, pathos and logos through time. In that regard, some contemporary definitions are briefly presented. The chapter ends with the outline of a contemporary debate which concerns the relation between rhetor, rhetorical audience and rhetorical situation.

2.1 GENESIS

The Sophist in Plato’s ‘Gorgias’, claims to have gone with his brother to the bedside of a sick man who had refused medical assistance, and persuaded the man “by means of no other art than rhetoric” (Tindale, 2004: 29). Although Sophists were widely engaged in the teaching of rhetoric there is a recognized difficulty in attributing the teaching of rhetoric as it was later understood by Plato and Aristotle. Schiappa for that matter argues that the origins of rhêtorikê should be traced no earlier than in the works of Plato (Tindale, 2004).

Nevertheless, the standard account for the rhetorical theory is ascribed to Corax and Tisias, and with this attributed to the authority of Aristotle. In effect, some 150 years before Aristotle, Corax from Sicily wrote the first treatise on rhetoric limiting its use to the conduct of legal dispute. At the time, Greek Law required every free man to speak for himself at court and thus needed training in speech. However, it would be Aristotle who would devise a systematic approach to rhetoric around 330 BC (Clark, 1957).

Interestingly, to return to the Sophist, at the end of the fifth century BC, they developed Handbooks of Rhetoric and earned very well from the teaching of it. However, in
doing so they limited the use of rhetoric to personal gain, which was what prompted Plato and Aristotle to develop more philosophical treatises on subject matter.

As he defines it, rhetoric is ‘the faculty of discovering the possible means of persuasion in reference to any subject whatever. (Rhetoric I, 14-ii.2). His ‘Rhetoric’ is divided in three Books where the Second Book examines in detail the three means of proof: ethos, pathos and logos.

Aristotle claims a close link between Rhetoric and Dialectic or the art of logical discussion. He finds rhetoric particularly useful in cases where the audiences are incapable of being instructed even with the most expert knowledge and arguments. Aristotle furthermore claims that in such cases the modes of persuasion and argument must draw on widely held views, or notions possessed by everybody when dealing with a popular audience in particular (Clark, 1957).

As referred to in Chapter 1, this study will examine the Aristotelian triad consisting of ethos, pathos and, logos, and will apply the first Canon of classical rhetoric - Inventio. The first Canon will be further explained in section 2.1.2. However, to understand the appeals it is noteworthy to provide a concise explanation as they were understood by Aristotle. On this note, it must be stated that the study refrains from any qualifications attached to these notions and preferences as to their interpretation due to their complex nature, as will be discussed both below and in the final chapter.

2.1.1 Ethos, Pathos, and Logos

Ethos, pathos and logos are the three ‘pisteis’ or means of proof that Aristotle identifies. Ethos, is the appeal to character, pathos is the appeal to emotions and logos, appeals to the reason. In the Rhetoric he states:

“Now, the proofs furnished by the speech are of three kinds. The first depends upon the moral character of the speaker, the second upon putting the hearer into a certain frame of mind, the third upon the speech itself, in so far as it proves or seems to prove.” (I.ii.7-8)

In particular, when discussing the appeal to ethos he asserts that three qualities induce belief in the appeal to ethos, namely ‘good sense’, ‘virtue’, and ‘goodwill’. Respectively, these refer to ‘phronesis’, or the practical wisdom of the orator, ‘arête’, which pertains to the
rhetor’s moral virtues, and ‘euonia’, which demonstrates the good intentions towards the audience. Aristotle claims that speakers who possess all those three ‘will necessarily convince his hearers’ (II, i.4-7).

Further, Aristotle defines pathos, or the appeal to emotion, as ‘all those affections which cause men to change their opinion in regard to their judgments (II. i. 8-ii). A detailed explanation of various emotional states is provided in the Second Book of ‘Rhetoric’.

Lastly, Aristotle considered logos, or the appeal to ‘truth or apparent truth’, the most important part of the triad. In his treatise the ‘Prior Analytics’, he asserted: “Every belief comes either through syllogism or from induction”. In the ‘Rhetoric’ he demonstrated how the logical processes could be adapted to a popular audience through the use of ‘enthymeme and example’. Moreover, he states that rhetoric is called upon for hearers that ‘cannot take in at a glance a complex argument or follow a long chain of reasoning’ (Clark, 1957:47). He concludes that rhetorical arguments must draw on what is usually true, that is, from probabilities or ‘from opinions which are generally accepted’. Such conclusions Aristotle called “approximately true” (Clark, 1957:47).

The three ‘pisteis’ were handled in a Canon recognized as ‘Inventio’. The Canons of classical rhetoric were developed long before Aristotle and were implicit in his work. The section below briefly defines each of the canons and parts of speech accordingly.

2.1.2 Canons of classical rhetoric

In the first century BC and implicitly contained in Aristotle’s work is the division of the rhetorical act. Crassus in ‘De Oratore’, describes the five parts as commonplaces (Clark, 1957):

Inventio – To find out what he should say
Dispositio – To dispose and arrange what he has found
Elocutio – To adorn with language
Memoria – To memorize it
Pronuntiatio or actio – To deliver it

For a more detailed explanation refer to Foss (2004).
2.1.3 Five parts of speech

Moreover, the speech was also divided in several parts, and the division into six parts provided by the Latin Ad Herennium was followed by many authors. The division is adapted from Clark (1957):

1. Exordium: an opening to render the audience attentive and friendly
2. Narratio: A statement of facts coloured in the speaker’s favour
3. Divisio or partitio: a forecast of the main points the speaker plans to make
4. Confirmatio: Affirmative proof
5. Confutatio: Refutation
6. Conclusio or peroratio: Conclusion

Finally, for relevance to this study is the First Canon: Inventio for it deals more explicitly with the three means of proof: ethos, pathos and logos, and the Canon will be applied on the part of speech called Exordium. More details for the methodology are contained in the Method Chapter.

The following section handles some traditional and contemporary aspects of rhetorical theory and illuminates its volatile definitions over time. Moreover, some aspect of ethos, pathos and logos are embraced chronologically as well.

2.2 BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW AND CONTEMPORARY DEVELOPMENTS

2.2.1 Historical overview

Two hundred years after the ‘Rhetoric’ of Aristotle, no significant treatise of rhetoric survived. It would be in 100 BC that the Roman ‘Ad Herennium’ would be written. As the Romans were borrowers, they adopted the main principles from the Greeks. Cicero and Quintillian were the major contributors to rhetorical theory of the time. In the middle ages, as Christianity became more powerful, rhetoric was condemned as a pagan art. However, it did remain as part of the Trivium in education and mainly treated matters of style and letter writing. Furthermore, two streams characterized the approach to rhetoric in Renaissance. The humanists believed that rhetoric, and not philosophy is the primary discipline as humans gain access to the world through language. The second trend or the rationalists, had little patience for rhetoric since they focused on scientific truths. Francis Bacon, an eminent rhetorician of the time considered the duty of rhetoric as applying reason
to imagination for the better moving of the will (Foss et al., 2002:10). Further, the modern period was marked by three trends namely, the epistemological, the belletristic and the elocutionist. Campbell and Whately embody the epistemological approach which combined classical rhetoric and psychology and provided audience-centred approaches to the subject matter. The belle lette movement and Hugh Blair as its representative, focused on the aesthetic aspects of literature rather than its informative value. Finally, the elocutionary trend, represented by Austin and Sheridan produced prescriptive treatises on how to manage voice and gesture in delivery (Foss et al., 2002). Contemporary approaches to rhetoric embrace a variety of scholars and Foss et al. (2002) address some of the most prominent streams of thought.

2.2.2 Contemporary reflections on rhetoric

In contemporary rhetorical theory, I. A. Richards focused on the meaning creation in symbols, and Ernesto Grassi elaborated on the revitalization of humanism as rhetorical philosophy. Next, Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca reveal the classical rhetorical approach to argumentation and understand rhetoric itself as argumentation, Stephen Toulmin considers the nature of everyday argumentation, and Kenneth Burke postulates rhetoric as the foundation of humannes and a main motive for human action. Moreover, Habermas upholds the rationality immanent in speech acts, whereas Baudrillard links rhetoric with consumerism. Finally, Foucault regards rhetoric as a discursive formation.

To illustrate, some contemporary definitions approach rhetoric as a ‘mode of altering reality...by creation of discourse (Lucaites et al., 1999:219). Moreover, the rhetorical event may be seen as an incident that produces and reproduces the identities of subjects’ (Lucaites et al., 1999:243). Foss (2004:6) defines rhetoric as human use of symbols to communicate and claims that in some cases for persuasion and in some rhetoric is an invitation to understanding. Pejoratively, the term is commonly used to mean empty, bombastic language that has no substance (Foss, 2004). However, of particular interest are the changing meanings of the triad over the centuries. The discussion will briefly address the latter in the following section.
2.2.2.1 Ethos, pathos, logos through time

**Ethos**
Ethos assumed several competing and frequently contradictory meanings throughout the history of rhetoric for it was contingent upon the changing notion of character and selfhood. As part of the entechnic pisteis, and despite the instability of the definition noted by scholars, ethos was deemed by Aristotle to be constructed solely by and within speech. No previous reputation of the speaker would have mattered since it was the only manner in which the ‘polis’ could uphold the ‘equality of the unequals’. The polis successfully fostered the ‘ethos without identity’ and such ethos in its turn protected the polis (Jasinski, 2001).

Furthermore, the Roman concept of ethos was much broader and inclusive (Sloane, 2001). The tradition of mas maiourum highlighted the dignity, achievements, and reputation of the speakers. Similarly, the Christian notion of ethos, considered ethos as comprising also the life of the speaker which had great weight in determining whether he is heard as opposed to any grandiose language used (Sloane, 2001). Medieval authors displayed no significant contributions to ethos but from the eighteenth through the nineteenth century, literature expressed the ‘cult of the selfhood’ where audiences did not matter as much as self-expression of the author who would convey ‘the stirrings of his or her own heart’ (Sloane, 2001).

The twentieth century saw ethos as used interchangeably with ‘voice’. Vogel (1973) suggested that words are embodied presence and through the text ethos denotes the bodily presence – as if ‘hypostatizing the author’s living speech’. By contrast, poststructuralist theory declares the death of the author, where writing is the destruction of every voice (Sloane, 2001). Finally, post-modern ethos welcomed back the Aristotelian concept of pisteis, and saw ethos as an ‘artistic proof’ since one argument claims that modern society enables rhetors to shape and reshape their self-images infinitely through various media.

In conclusion, the most recent model of ethos is in fact an ethical co-presence of ‘self and other’ (Sloane, 2001: 276), where ethos is a collaboration, treating the audience as an equal participant and valuing its welfare over the speaker’s personal advantage (Sloane, 2001).

**Pathos**
The concern of pathos has ‘occasioned the greatest amount of controversy’ (Sloane, 2001: 554). Prior to Aristotle, it enjoyed a high standing at the exclusion of other aspects in
rhetoric. For Aristotle, pathos provided enthymematic resources for drawing conclusions. The Romans displayed an open affinity for pathos and pathetic extravagance was encouraged. From the middle ages through Renaissance, pathos was relegated to ‘volition’ and to the ‘disordered movements of the soul’ respectively. The seventeenth century placed pathos at the centre of rhetoric and after the divorce of argument and pathos following Descartes, rhetoric becomes only appeal to the passions whereas reasoning is assigned to argumentation (Sloane, 2001).

The twentieth century welcomed the resurgence of pathos as ‘human concerns cannot be reduced to the constraints required by formal logic’ (Sloane 2001: 567). Also, Perelman and Tyteca would observe that logical arguments in social disputes of politics are never void of pathos, and that the concept is invariably present.

Logos
According to Jasinski, logos is one of the most complex terms that contemporary rhetorical studies inherited (Jasinski, 2001: 350). Therefore, a brief chronological overview may suffice to grasp its intricacy.

As discussed, Aristotelian rhetoric considered logos as an ‘artistic proof’ and the most important of the triad. The logical appeal for the Romans was a technique for inserting a speech into a mould which was already credible. In the middle ages Christianity adopted ‘logos’ as the ‘word’, expressing the relations between Christ and Father (Sloane, 2001:462-3). In late humanism there was seldom any focus on argument and logical means of proof, whereas by contrast during the eighteenth and nineteenth century, forms of argument received much attention. During modernity, logos underwent an investigation of the relations concerning logos, argument, rhetoric, and language as understood in the previous century.

Upon addressing the changes in meaning of the triad, the final section aims to reveal some current debates on the role of the rhetor, the rhetorical audience and the rhetorical situation.
2.2.3 Rhetorical Audience, Rhetorical Situation, and Rhetor

Current debates

As early as 46 B.C in his ‘De Partitio Oratoria’, or ‘The Classification of Rhetoric’, Cicero divided his subject in three aspects: the speaker (vis oratoris), the speech itself (oratio), and the speech situation (quaestio), which handles the nature of the case and the audience (Clark 1957: 69).

Moreover, according to Lucaites et al. (1999), rhetoric is a discourse that addresses pressing needs in particular situations, in contrast to philosophy, science, and art (Lucaites et al. 1999: 213). Over the last fifty years, one of the most prominent debates concerned the relation between the rhetorical situation, the rhetor, and the rhetorical audience. The thrust of the debate is outlined below.

Firstly, in his essay ‘The Rhetorical Situation’, Blitzer argues that human relations operate in the context of rhetorical situations governed by exigencies, which are social, political, economic and ethical urgencies that invite discursive response. Moreover, Blitzer defines exigence as an ‘imperfection marked by urgency; a defect, an obstacle, something waiting to be done, a thing which is other than it should be’. An exigence which cannot be modified is not rhetorical. In any rhetorical situation there will be at least one controlling exigence which functions as the organizing principle: it specifies the audience to be addressed and the change to be affected (Blitzer in Lucaites et al. 1999: 221).

Furthermore, a situation is rhetorical insofar as it needs and invites discourse capable of altering its reality: “discourse is rhetorical as long as it seeks to function as a fitting response to a situation” (Blitzer in Lucaites et al. 1999: 221).

As a response, Vatz swiftly challenged this view in ‘The Myth of the Rhetorical Situation’ by arguing that exigencies are not a product of objective situations but are rather created by the rhetor himself. Rhetoric, Vatz asserts, is antecedent, not subsequent to a situation’s impact (Vatz in Lucaites et al. 1999: 228). Therefore, meaning is not discovered in situations, but created by rhetors.

Finally, Barbara A. Biesecker challenged both views and problematized the very nature of speaker and audience by arguing that the rhetorical situation is a complex interactive process that ‘produces and reproduces the identities of subjects and constructs and reconstructs linkages between them’. She argues that rhetorical discourses may be read as processes entailing the production of audiences (Lucaites et al. 1999: 243).
Finally, Lucaites et al. (1999: 215) conclude that the notion of the rhetorical situation has become more fluid in contemporary rhetorical theory than in earlier periods. Moreover ‘the rhetorical audience is a complex and fluid idea’, according to Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca (1969: 21). They argue that the conception of audiences may always be modified, and that the rhetorical audience is not a passive receptor but actively creates the discourse.

In summary, this chapter provided a brief overview of the genesis of rhetoric and its variations through time, explained ethos, pathos and logos and finally reflected on the relation between speaker, audience and message reflecting thereby on some current debates in rhetorical theory. The following section provides an exhaustive account of the qualitative methodology deployed for the analysis along with the method of identifying and selecting the analytical corpus.
This chapter is divided in three main parts. Firstly, the study is contextualized in the framework of qualitative research methodology. Next, in a reverse order the results of the method are provided and subsequently, the method for obtaining them is explained as detailed as possible. A separate section elaborates on the analytical method of Rhetorical criticism, or more specifically the aspects of Neo-Aristoteliansim to be applied specifically for this study and finally, an overview of other approaches within rhetorical criticism are briefly addressed. In conclusion, some implications pertaining to the study are addressed.

3.1 QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY AND METHOD

Embarking on text analysis is primarily a highly complex endeavour. In qualitative research it would be qualified as an interpretation of “mute evidence” or exploring written texts and artifacts. Texts may be qualified as part of a diverse category of material culture which ranges from written texts to material symbols. Such evidence unlike the spoken word endures physically and thus can be separated across space and time from its author, producer or user (Denzin and Linkoln, 1994:393). In reference to written text, Smith (1974, 1990) and Atkinson and Coffey (1997) pointed out, that much of social life in modern society is mediated by written texts of different kinds. For instance, the practice of modern health care is impossible without patient records and legal practice depends on laws.

Documents for that matter require contextualized interpretation. In that regard, Western social sciences have long privileged the spoken word over the written and the written over the nonverbal (Derrida, 1978). But as Derrida has shown, meaning does not reside in a text but in the writing and reading of it. Thus, there is no true meaning of a text
outside specific historical contexts. Words are spoken to do things as well as to say things—they have practical and social impact as well as communication function (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994:394).

Therefore, hermeneutics, as a qualitative methodology, must be brought into the discussion, for several reasons. Primarily, the study of text presupposes interpretation. The latter ‘permeats any research process from the beginning to end’ and even in empirical research, ‘interpretation rather than representation of reality’ becomes crucial (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2000:9). The researchers bear a certain frame of reference and all interpretations are laden with their particular paradigms. The fact of not being a tabula rasa is both fortunate and unfortunate. On the one hand, the production of texts or any artifact for that matter would not be possible without any meaningful framework but on the other, the ‘frames of reference are also imbued with temporality and thus interpretations maintain a relative rather than an absolute autonomy’ (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2000).

Moreover, hermeneutics, despite its variations, places the text in a hermeneutical cycle of parts and whole. For the purposes of this study, such a task will not be undertaken. However, the cycle between pre-understanding and understanding is indeed required for any interpretative effort. Firstly, none of the interpretations made would be possible without any preunderstanding of a certain context conveyed through the text. The authors of the study are therefore aware that the interpretations rest on something recognized as ‘mutual cognitive environment’ as defined by Sperber and Wilson (1986). Sperber and Wilson argue that our differences preclude generalizations, we represent the world differently and our perceptual and inferential abilities vary; therefore our cognitive environments differ (Tindale, 2004:22). However, claiming that it is possible for certain facts and assumptions to overlap between individuals they infer that ‘mutual cognitive environments’ are possible. The discussion whether they are created by dominating sources or other notions is of no interest here. To illustrate, in order to interpret Harvard University as an appeal to authority there must be a common understanding of its elite standing.

In a similar vein, the interpretations in this study certainly reflect the context within the pre-understanding and understanding cycle but do not attempt to place the study in a historical context primarily because of the scope. However, by doing so, it is understood that some of the content within the messages may be robbed of richness and completeness of understanding.
Furthermore, once transformed in a written text the gap between author and reader widens and the possibility of multiple reinterpretations increases. However, this research does not dwell on the multiplicity of meanings within the texts but rather seeks to establish possible parameters of persuasive messages that follow a certain pattern, and subsequently focuses rather on how substance sometimes organizes itself in recognizable patterns.

Furthermore, in many cases, qualitative researchers who use written texts as their materials do not seek to follow any predefined protocol in executing their analysis. By reading and rereading their empirical materials, they try to pin down their key themes and, thereby, to draw a picture of the presuppositions and meanings that constitute the cultural world of which the textual material is a specimen. An informal approach may, in many cases, be the best choice as a method in research focusing on written texts. In projects that use solely texts as empirical materials, however, the use of different kinds of analytical procedures may be considered (Denzin and Lincoln, 2004).

Given the above stated, and considering the fact that this study will handle solely written text a particular approach to analyzing the material will hence be deployed. Considering that the process had two major stages, the first being the identification of gurus and the subsequent selection of authors and respective books, here the order will be reversed in that results will be outlined first followed by an exhaustive account of the method behind the process.

3.2 SELECTION OF AUTHORS AND RESPECTIVE BOOKS

Upon identifying the ranking lists elaborated at length in the next section, the analytical corpus of management gurus and respective books had to be selected.

Several factors influenced the selection process and in their interaction a very interesting set of authors emerged. It was decided, however, that the selection would be conducted mostly from the top 20 thinkers. By exception, if a guru matching the required category (academic, consultant, self-made) could not be identified among the top 20 the entire list of 50 was searched. As ranking lists differ from year to year and vary between ranking agencies the benchmark was always Accenture’s survey from 2003 as it was deemed as having applied more objective measures and criteria1

1 http://www.easy-strategy.com/strategy-gurus.html#d.
Firstly, it must be emphasized that the selection was performed on the basis of Huczynski’s categorization of management gurus, namely gurus with academic, consultant and self-made status (Huczynski, 1993).

Secondly, a very important factor in the selection was the scope to be covered by the analysis. Namely, management gurus write on a variety of topics and the selection had to be both efficient and representative of a meaningful category. Therefore, to a certain degree the selection was primarily based on elimination, or not considering books that deal with more technical managerial or economic matters. Interestingly, some authors claim that even the most scientific economic discourse deploys persuasion (McCloskey, 1994). Nevertheless, such evaluations were deemed to require extensive knowledge and both practical and theoretical competence in economics or technical managerial matters. Hence, it was decided that such themes will not be pursued.

Subsequently, out of the elimination process a meaningful category rapidly emerged dealing with some aspects of human behaviour or at least touching upon such notions. At this stage, sliding back and forth between the first and the second criterion enabled an efficient albeit rather complex decision of delimiting the corpus to be reached. To assist the process, official websites of gurus were consulted as well as the links from ‘Thinkers50’, the ‘Guru Index’ and Management Guru Guides. Thirdly, as much as the context allowed, an attempt was made to cover books from different decades. Finally, the analytical corpus was designated and the table below lists the selected management gurus and respective books. It must be noted however, that Rosabeth Moss Kanter was included in the list certainly for fulfilling the other criteria but also for the curious fact that she was the only ‘female guru’ among the top ranks. Figure 1 below outlines the selected works and respective management gurus.
In conclusion, what follows is a lengthier account on the specific search techniques that enabled the identification of the selected management gurus in the first place.

### 3.3 Identifying Management Gurus and Rankings

The first stage deployed in the process of identifying management gurus was to search for possible rankings. In that respect, the first search was performed on the Internet with the key words: ‘management guru ranking’.

Thus, the first ranking that appeared was that of Accenture, the international consultancy firm.\(^2\) Accenture conducted a study on management gurus to identify and rank them and published the results in May 2002. Accenture defined them as business intellectuals but they are better known as management gurus or business experts. Moreover, they are considered as thought leaders, providing the latest and best business thinking.

In 2003, the Institute of Strategic Change within Accenture issued a revised ranking list based on the sum of the following criteria, as demonstrated in figure 2 below:

\(^2\) [http://www.accenture.com/xd/xd.asp?it=enweb&xd=ideas], outlook\_1.2003\_outlook\_topfifty\_guru.xml

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACADEMIC GURUS</th>
<th>CONSULTANT GURUS</th>
<th>SELF-MADE (HERO) GURUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Fig. 1
Upon consulting the Accenture ranking list, the second ranking on the item list was scrutinized. The second most prominent guru ranking appeared to be the Thinkers50 ranking. The Thinkers 50 list was carefully examined in order to compare the ranking scores. As stated previously, ranking criteria are diverse and hardly comparable, but the results are comparable.³

To identify the most popular management gurus, the Thinkers50 research team deployed a somewhat different method for generating the guru ranking. They emailed hundreds of business people, consultants, academics and MBA students throughout the world. After sifting through more than 1,200 votes a list of contenders was compiled. The result was a short-list of 80 names. A Google search was then undertaken to establish the number of references for each of those on the list, and factored into the ranking. Finally, they were assessed against 10 criteria. Each guru was marked against criteria on a scale of 1 (low) to 10 (high). The table displaying their criteria is attached as Appendix 1.

Ranking lists were available for 2001, 2003, 2005, and 2007. These ranking tables were carefully inspected and compared between each other and against the Accenture ranking. It was concluded that all rankings, more or less, contained the same names but sometimes in different ranking order.

Next, to support further that finding, a more thorough search indicated several other rankings of management gurus. For instance, a listing compiled by a ‘BusinessWeek’ Online

³ http://thinkers50.com/?page=homeAssembling the 50.
survey included 514 companies. Out of the 514, 210 replied, for a response rate of 41%.
Companies were asked to rank the best providers of executive education and to list the “10 professors or management gurus” they considered “the most effective at teaching or facilitating learning.” Professors, authors, and speakers with too few mentions were disqualified. Furthermore, a ranking from ‘Wall Street Journal’ did not contain the ranking criteria but was very recent, being compiled in May 2008.

Finally, the online search was supplemented by consulting information from random links to newspapers featuring their names and from management guru guides, that provide their brief biographies and notable publications. Once the results from different resources and against different criteria were compared, they corroborated the tendency for the same names to top the ranking lists. Following the selection process, it must be noted that this method emerged in essence as a dynamic interaction between online search, consultation of books that arrived at various points in the first stage and some form of intuitive search and decisions that enabled the selection of this analytical corpus. At times the process required complex iteration and linking criteria specified in both stages.

Finally, as already addressed in section 1, dealing with Qualitative Methodology, a specific analytical method was devised in order to address the rhetorical techniques in this study. Next, a brief overview is provided concerning the analytical method applied and its specific advantages and delimitations.

3.4 ANALYTICAL METHOD

As referred to in Chapter 1, the focus of this study will be to explore the rhetorical techniques, if any, employed by management gurus in their most popular, notable publications. Given that the empirical material consists solely of written text, it is required therefore to contextualize the analytical method so as to produce a more comprehensible and structured analysis. Hence, Rhetorical Criticism was selected as the ‘gaze’ though which the texts would be explored.

4 http://www.businessweek.com/bschools/content/oct2001/is20011015_3309.htm
5 http://online.wsj.com/article/SB12099465248566323.html?mod=Careers
Admittedly, one lens may cloud some other way of seeing, and as Morgan (1986) remarks ‘Ways of seeing become ways of not seeing’ and such partiality is recognized within the study.

As regards the particularities of rhetorical criticism, Foss (2004) argues that it is not a process confined to a few assignments in a rhetorical or media criticism course. Rhetorical criticism is an everyday activity we can use to understand our responses to symbols of all kinds and to create symbols of our own that generate the responses we intend (2004:xii). Moreover, Hart (2005) argues that rhetorical criticism firstly documents social trends and provides general understanding via the case study method. The critic operates like an anthropologist who finds in the smallest ritual a complete depiction of tribal history and culture examining texts that promise to tell a story larger than themselves (Hart, 2005). Furthermore, rhetorical criticism produces metaknowledge (explicit understanding of implicit realizations). Hart (2005) asserts that we are all persuaders of a sort even if our rhetorical successes never partake of literary greatness. It is ecological in that it invites us to retain messages in order to recycle them for the understanding of new messages and finally, rhetorical criticism invites confrontation with other worldviews. One cannot understand others unless one appreciates how they reason and behave (Hart, 2005:27). Rhetoric brings us face to face with otherness (2005:28).

Prior to explaining the particular perspective, it must be stated that rhetorical criticism embraces a wide variety of approaches: cluster criticism, fantasy-theme approach, feminist criticism, generic criticism, ideologcal, metaphor criticism, narrative, pendatic, role criticism, and the dramatistic criticism model are some of the most contemporary approaches actively used in the discipline. On this note, their particular advantages will be examined briefly in a special section which deals with the perspectives that the selected approach for this study clouds or delimits.

In particular, rhetorical criticism is defined as a qualitative research method designed for a systematic investigation and explanation of symbolic acts and artifacts for the purpose of understanding rhetorical processes (Foss, 2004:6). As already discussed, the study handles solely written text and for the purposes of clarity artifact will be used as ‘any object of study’ (Foss, 2004:7), since both live acts and written traces are considered artifacts. Therefore the analysis is further restricted to the Exordium or the Introduction of each of these books as a particular artifact or unit of analysis for reasons discussed in the following section.
As already elaborated, this study adopts a specific perspective in order to bring to life the persuasion techniques within the artifacts. The most convenient method within the field was the Neo-Aristotelian approach. This traditional method was the first formal method of rhetorical criticism established in 1925 by Herbert A. Wichels in “The Literary Criticism of Oratory”. In that regard, a critic based the analysis on the classical canons of rhetoric: invention, arrangement, style, delivery, and memory. In addition, he or she was required to identify details on the speaker’s life, public character, and the audience for the speech at the time. The method was ‘limited in subject matter and purpose’ and rhetorical criticism ‘became the study of speeches’ (Foss, 2004:26). Neo-Aristotelianism was thus never applied on written or non-discursive rhetoric. (Foss, 2004:26). Although it served to differentiate the discipline from literature and literary criticism, today it is rarely used. The main criticism to this approach concerns its basic assumption that rhetoric should be seen as reasoned discourse where emotional and psychological appeals exist but they are of secondary value.

Given the above stated, this analysis selectively applies some features from this method but it differs structurally from this criticism model. Firstly, for the purposes of the analysis the method is applied to written discourse. The latter is the challenge of this study: to set this particular gaze to an artifact to which this method originally had not belonged and explore the implications.

This study deploys the First Canon – Invention, in order to identify the three means of persuasion, ethos, pathos and logos in the Exordium (Introduction) but disregards the other Canons and does not delve at large into the historical context or the audience. Another peculiarity for the study is that it unconventionally takes into consideration the praises extended to authors and their work at the front or back cover of the book. Such praises are colloquially recognized as blurbs. The praises are treated as part of ethos, as a particular form of ‘external’ aid to the construction of the authority and excellence of the author and his book.

In conclusion, the study employs the general steps valid for all approaches in Rhetorical criticism such as selecting an artifact, performing the analysis, and reporting on the findings (Foss, 2004:12). Most notably, the analysis will not purport any particular qualifications as to ethos, pathos and logos due to their highly complex nature and variable meanings. Lastly, the section below provides the reasons for selecting the Exordium (Introduction) as an object of study.
3.4.1 Exordium as Artifact

The decision to concentrate specifically on the Exordium warrants particular attention. Below is an explanation of the reasons behind selecting the Exordium as an artifact. Namely, the ‘Rhetoric’ of Aristotle, Book III, recognizes the importance of the Introduction in capturing the attention of the audience.

“The exordium is the beginning of a speech, as the prologue in poetry and the prelude in flute-playing; for all these are beginnings, and as it were a paving the way for what follows (iii,xiii, 3-xiv). …For as flute players play first some brilliant passage they know well and then fit it on to the opening notes of the piece so in speeches of display the writer should proceed in the same way; he should begin with whatever takes his fancy and then strike up his theme…”…exordia provide a sample of the subject, in order that the hearers know beforehand what it is about, and that the mind may not be kept in suspense, for that which is undefined leads astray; so then he who puts the beginning, so to say, into the hearer’s hand enables him, if he holds fast to it to follow the story.(iii,xiv,5-7)”

Moreover, Aristotle remarks the following:

“You may use any means you choose to make your hearer receptive; among others, giving him impression of your character, which always helps to secure his attention. He will be ready to attend anything…important, surprising or agreeable…”

“At the beginning every one listens with most attention…”

Furthermore, the importance of the Introduction is also emphasized in the Latin ‘Rhetorica Ad Herennium’. In line with the above discussion, the first Book of this tetralogy states:

“Exordium est principium orationis, per quod animus auditoris constituitur ad audiendum”.

In loose translation it means ‘the introduction is the beginning of the speech by which the audience’s animus is prepared to become receptive of the speech’. Animus is left in original as it interestingly subsumes a range of meanings: mind, intellect, soul, feelings, heart, spirit, and the like.

In brief, given the mindfulness by the audience at the very beginning of a speech, it may be presumed that the selected authors might utilize the same strategies in the
Introductions so as to animate the reader. Herein lies the challenge of this study for as already outlined in the statement of purpose, this 'gaze' belonged originally to oral speech and never on written discourse. Understandably, by focusing solely on the Exordium, the books cannot be assessed in terms of persuasion techniques or tactics in their entirety and it is impossible to tell whether such means of persuasion would persist throughout the book or lose their bearing altogether. However, it may be assumed that the Introduction is replete with rhetorical means that ought to account for the persuasive appeal. Finally, the section below addresses some very important issues such as other possibilities for analyzing the artifacts and some possible implications of this study.

3.4.2 The Rhetorical Gaze

Units of analysis focus attention on certain dimensions of an artifact and not others. They are scanning devices that focus on particular kinds of information about an artifact, directing and narrowing the analysis in particular ways, revealing some things and concealing others (Foss, 2004:12). Given that the analysis will proceed from the neo-Aristotelian model but from a different perspective, the possible interpretations of the artifact emerging from some other approaches that will be clouded in this study merit some attention. What follows is a brief overview of the 'gaze' of a variety of approaches based on a categorization by Foss (2004).

To begin with, through cluster criticism, mainly developed by Kenneth Burke, the worldview of the rhetor is discovered through charting the symbols that cluster around the key symbols in an artifact. Several key terms are selected on the basis of frequency and intensity and they serve to discover the rhetor’s universe. Secondly, the fantasy theme method created by Ernest G. Bormann provides insights into the shared worldview of groups. References to settings, characters and actions are coded and rhetorical visions are then constructed. Furthermore, feminist criticism depicts how women and men, femininity and masculinity are presented in the text and examines the aspects of domination. Next, the generic approach attempts to examine various artifacts to inspect if a genre exists, and ideological critics discover the dominant ideology or ideologies embedded in an artifact and the ideologies that are muted respectively. In addition, the metaphor approach identifies and categorizes the metaphors in an artifact, whereas narrative criticism identifies and analyzes the narratives within artifacts and evaluates them in terms of coherency, fidelity.
and useful lifeskills. Finally, pendatic criticism, rooted in Burke's notion of dramatism labels the agent, act, scene, purpose and agency thus discovering the dominant term and providing insight into what dimension the rhetor sees as the most pertinent.

In conclusion, prior to addressing some possible shortcomings it must be noted however, that the inferred conclusions in this study concern solely the designated analytical units and do not claim any generalizability of its findings as regards persuasion tactics and models, since an extensive research is required to corroborate or refute in full the tentative conclusions made by this study. Rather, it contributes to rhetorical criticism by means of what Zarefsky called 'the theory of the particular case' which allows a theory that 'more fully encompasses the case than do the alternatives’ (Foss, 2004:20). The contribution aims rather at identifying new relationships among concepts and makes an attempt to shed some light on human communication (Foss, 2004:18). Finally, the study clearly recognizes the advantages of the selected approach but is also cognizant of its limits.

3.5 IMPLICATIONS

This section summarizes the implications of the study and in particular, it adresses some issues that are already dispersed in the text. Primarily, while deciding the coordinates of this study several starting points may account for some possible shortcomings. Firstly, the interpretative frames of reference of the authors certainly mark the analytical section. Specifically, the interpretation of ethos and pathos, in all probability reflect a certain attitudinal or cultural conditioning. Also, the theory approach already presumes some triad to exist and pre-shapes the interpretation self-servingly. Moreover, not focusing on the historical context hermeneutically might bear the risk that some persuasive tactics are derived and depend upon the compelling context itself and not so much on the skill of the rhetor. Classical rhetoricians would recognize this as ‘kairos’, or seizing the moment in the context to propel an idea. Next, the Aristotelian ‘gaze’ which originally applied to oral speech may be limiting but that is considered more as a challenge than a shortcoming for this endeavour. However, neo-Aristoteliansim may cloud some other very interesting rhetorical approaches already discussed in this chapter. In addition, the focus on Exordium may not account for the persuasive bearing of the entire work as such. Moreover, the notion of Exordium in speech was taken to mean the First Chapter of a book, in the absence of an
Introduction. Finally, the scope of the study, designed as an explorative endeavour, does not aim to qualify ethos, pathos and logos in terms of intensity and some external validity primarily because of their complexity and the various definitions. To conclude, in cases of analysis of oral speech, the material is usually attached as an Appendix but for the sake of brevity this analysis provides a description of the artifact i.e the Summary of each Introduction. Hence, the study may indeed seem quantitatively large but the intention was to offset the loss of direct exposure to the text on the part of the reader by providing as many examples as the circumstances allowed.
CHAPTER 4 ANALYSIS

The analytical units are divided in three parts. First, a brief biography is provided for each author followed by a summary of the introduction or introductory chapter accordingly. Next, excerpts demonstrative of ethos, pathos and logos are supplied and each selection pertaining to any one of them is complemented by a brief explanatory note. Finally, the review section briefly summarizes the findings and attempts to offer a succinct and condensed view of the underlying ideas in the artifact. Upon completion of the analytical part, the following and final section draws some conclusions pertaining to the findings and attempts to reflect on few not so readily discernible structures within the text that might aid the persuasive appeal.

Finally, when pondering on the order of analytical units, there were many opportunities. The analysis retains the categorization of Huczynski, but presents the analytical units in a cyclical order, starting from Covey as a self made or hero guru, followed by Hamel, the consultant, and Drucker, the academic guru. Then the order is reversed for the final three, Kanter, as an academic guru follows, then Peters, as the consultant and finally, Welch as a hero guru.

Below is the order of the analyzed artifacts by author:

I Stephen Covey
II Gary Hamel
III Peter Drucker
IV Rosabeth Moss Kanter
V Tom Peters (and Robert J. Waterman)
VI Jack Welch (and S. Welch)
Stephen Covey – The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People

Category: Self-made (hero) guru

Stephen Covey was born in 1932 in Salt Lake City, Utah. He studied Business Administration and graduated from Harvard before becoming a world-known management guru after publication of his best selling book ‘7 Habits of Highly Effective People’ in 1989. The book shot to number 1 on the New York Times Bestsellers list and stayed there for 250 weeks, selling over 6 million copies. In his book, Covey promotes what he calls ‘the character ethic’: aligning your values with universal and timeless principles, which he sees as external natural laws in contrast to values, which he sees as internal and subjective (Covey 1989). This results in seven habits.

Covey reached a huge global audience with his bestseller, and as the Economist noted ‘has sold himself with a brashness that makes the over-excited Tom Peters look like a shrinking violet’. Another commentator observed that Covey ‘has a knack of dressing up spiritual principles in pinstripes’, referring to Covey’s Mormon background. However, the simplicity and accessibility of Covey’s ideas, such as ‘put first things first’ and ‘think win/win’ are often seen as key elements in their success (Thinkers 50). In 2004, Covey published a sequel to his bestseller with ‘The 8th Habit: From Effectiveness to Greatness’, which focuses on inspiring others in ‘the knowledge worker age’. He is ranked number 17 in Accenture’s Top 50 Business Intellectuals.
3.1 Summary

‘Inside out’

The author commences by demonstrating his 25 years experience in working with people in all sorts of environments, such as work, academia and family settings and briefly describes some of the problems those people shared with him. Dysfunctional marriages, weight loss problems, work issues and issues related to upbringing children are among the few he cites.

The discussion resumes with him recounting a personal experience concerning his son. Claiming that success is supremely important first in his role as parent, he presents the problem. Namely, he describes his son as academically and physically weak and inappropriate and recounts the positive mental attitudes techniques him and his wife applied to psych him up in order to help him. However, after careful consideration of their deepest feelings, they realized that they were reinforcing the incapacity of their son by acting as if he were to be protected. Finally, they understood that it is their own perceptions that need to change.

‘The personality and Character Ethic’

Next, the author establishes the stark contrast between the personality and character ethic. Upon stating that he read hundreds of book on the topic of success and happiness published in the States from 1776 onwards he demarcates the literature of the past 50 years as offering superficial and quick fix techniques that focus on positive mental attitude and human relations techniques. He criticizes the literature on personality ethic for producing manipulative and deceptive techniques. By contrast, the character ethic that predominated in the first 150 years advocated that true success and enduring happiness depend on the integration of integrity, humility, fidelity, temperance, courage, justice, patience, industry, simplicity and modesty in the character.

By contrasting the two, he states that the personality ethic was the source they were trying to apply to their son’s problems but it was not successful. Instead, the influence of their character tremendously affected the behaviour of their son. The author states he and his wife managed to see the uniqueness of their son through deep thought, faith, and prayer. Thus, as the months passed they stopped manipulating and moulding him into an acceptable social model. Their son then affirmed himself and became successful academically and developed into a strong athlete.

‘Primary and secondary greatness’
The author furthermore argues that after having experienced the powerful impact of the Personality ethic he understood that he was raised with different values as a child and had such values embedded in his inner sense of value. He recognizes the utility of some elements of the personality ethics such as personality growth, communication skills and positive thinking as essential for success but he asserts that only basic goodness of character can give life to such techniques. The former possess secondary and character has primary greatness. To illustrate he states that if character is flawed and breeds duplicity and distrust no communication techniques would be able to rectify the relationship. By contrast, he claims that some people lack communication skills but have character strength and asserts that who we are speaks more powerfully than what we say or do. He uses a quote by Jordan: Into the hands of every individual is given a marvellous power for good or evil... In addition, he compares human behaviour to the natural systems based on the law of the harvest. You always reap what you saw and there is no shortcut for enduring success.

'The power of paradigm'

Criticizing the techniques and quick fixes, Covey introduces the 7 habits or principles as the true method of long term happiness and success. He introduces the topic of paradigm and presents it as a map. A paradigm is a model, an explanation of something else. To illustrate the difference between primary and secondary traits, Covey offers the following example. Suppose you are in Chicago and are using a map to find a particular destination in the city. You may have excellent secondary skills in map reading and navigation, but will never find your destination if you are using a map of Detroit. In this example, getting the right map is a necessary primary element before your secondary skills can be used effectively. We see the world based on our perspective, which can have a dramatic impact on the way we perceive things. For instance, he recalls a discussion in Harvard Business School. The instructor demonstrated that two people may see the same thing, disagree and both be right. In fact he distributed two sets of cards to two groups. One group was shown, for instance, a drawing of a young, beautiful woman and the other group was shown a drawing of an old, frail woman. After the initial exposure to the pictures, both groups are shown one picture of a more abstract drawing containing the two. Almost invariably, everybody in the group that was first shown the young woman saw a young woman in the abstract drawing, and those who were shown the old woman see the old woman. Each group was convinced that it had objectively evaluated the drawing. The point, the author states, is that we see things not as they are, but as we are conditioned to see
them. The author vividly presents the disagreement that occurred in the lecture and concludes that paradigms are the source of our attitudes and behaviours. Once we understand the importance of our past conditioning, a paradigm shift can take place and not a mere outward change of behaviour advocated by the Personality Ethic.

'The power of a paradigm shift'

The shift of paradigms, he explains, was introduced by Kuhn in his book 'The structure of Scientific Revolutions'. He provides examples of Copernicus, Einstein, the theory of bacillus and the US as a constitutional democracy rejecting the divine right of kings as paradigm shifts. He illustrates a change of paradigm with a personal experience in the subway. Namely, some naughty children were annoying to the point he spoke to their father to calm them down. Finding out that their mother died his opinion changed, he looked at them differently and acted differently.

'Seeing and Being'

Fundamental transformation, the author claims, is only possible if we change the paradigm. But not all paradigm changes are in a flash: some are painful and slow. In addition, he states that paradigm is inseparable from character and one sees things as one is. In other words, paradigms create the lens through which we perceive the world.

'The principle-centred paradigm'

The author resumes by elaborating the principles that constitute the 'Character Ethic'. To illustrate his argument he provides a story of battleship whose captain would not move the course of his ship since at the other side an inferior by rank demanded that he does so. In fact, the captain did not realize that they would collide with a lighthouse. Thus, he compares principles to a lighthouse; they cannot be changed, they are a natural law, only we can break. He steps back from any religious claims in the book and states that these principles are as valid as any social philosophy and ethical system. He introduces principles of justice, fairness, integrity and honesty, quality, excellence, contribution, patience, encouragement, and attention, claiming that they exist in all human beings. Asserting that they are fundamental to happiness and success, he compares them to territory, while values are maps.

'Principles of growth and change'

He again emphasizes the deceptiveness of the personality ethic and argues against quick fix schemes. In that regard, there are sequential stages of growth and development and shortcuts do not yield results. To illustrate how he violated the principle he recounts a
vivid moment with his little daughter. Apparently, she did not want to share her toys with other children and in order to make her do so, he reasoned with her, bribed her, threatened her and finally took away the toys so as to give them to the others. However, admitting that if he were more mature he would have understood that to share his daughter first had to experience what it means to possess.

'The way we see the problem is the problem'

In conclusion he repeats his examples stated at the beginning of people with problems trying out quick fixes and makes the point that we have to start from ourselves instead of applying techniques as we might be the cause of our problems. That approach is from the inside out. Inside out, the author concludes, is a new paradigm change, and means that before changing others we should change ourselves first.

**Rhetorical Analysis**

3.1.1 Ethos

The praises for Covey’s work extend on several pages and below are some interesting excerpts:

i. “Stephen Covey is an American Socrates, opening your mind to the ‘permanent things’ values, family, relationships, communicating”

   **Brian Tracy, author of Psychology of Achievement**

ii. “The seven habits of highly effective people suggests a discipline for our personal dealings with people which would be undoubtedly valuable if people stopped to think about it.”

   **James C. Fletcher, Director of NASA**

iii. “At a time when American organizations desperately need to energize people and produce leaders at all levels, Covey provides and empowering philosophy for life that is also the best guarantee of success in business...a perfect blend of wisdom, compassion and practical experience”

   **Rosabeth Moss Kanter, editor of Harvard Business**

iv. “The seven habits of highly effective people is by now one of the bestselling books of all time.”

   **Fortune Magazine**
v. “Picture someone going through the best experience they’ve ever had in terms of training – that’s what they say. People credit the 7 habits with changing their lives, with getting back on track personally and professionally.”

Ken M. Radziwanowski AT&T School of Business

The first excerpt constructs the author as the ‘American Socrates’, alluding to his contribution to ethics for Socrates through his portrayal in Plato’s dialogues, has become renowned for his contribution to the field of ethics. Secondly, praise is extended by a NASA Director which strengthens the credibility of the author given the high status of NASA, and its contributions to humanity. Furthermore, Dr. Rosabeth Moss Kanter, the then Harvard editor and presently Professor, depicts his work as replete with wisdom, practical insights and compassion, thereby constructing a personality with highly appreciates mental and emotional faculties. Next, Fortune Magazine evaluates the book as one the best selling books of all time enhancing its appeal and finally, the praise from Radziwanowski, a Professor in a business school, claims that the advice in the book restored the lives of many people both in private and professional domains.

Following the above praises, below are instances of the author appealing to Ethos and establishing himself as a knowledgeable and ethical persona.

Phronesis

The following excerpts illustrate the appeal to Covey’s knowledge and practical insights:

i. “In more than 25 years of working with people in business, university and marriage and family settings...” (p.15)

ii. “...in addition to my research on perception, I was also deeply immersed in an in-depth study of the success literature published in the United States since 1776. I was reading or scanning literally hundreds of books, articles and essays in fields such as self-improvement, popular psychology, and self-help...” (p.18)

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6 http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Socrates
iii. “I first encountered this exercise many years ago at the Harvard Business School. The instructor was using it to demonstrate clearly and eloquently that two people can see the same thing, disagree, and yet both be right” (p.27)

iv. “In the words of Erich Fromm, an astute observer of the roots and fruits of the Personality Ethic: “Today we come across an individual who behaves like an automaton, who does not know or understand himself....whose synthetic smile has replaced genuine laughter..”” (p.36)

In the first instance, the author establishes himself as someone who is very much acquainted with the social milieu of business, academia and family life, thereby claiming practical experience and insights in all three areas. Next, the second excerpt presents him as being highly knowledgeable in the area of self-improvement, popular psychology and self-help. That serves to build the credibility for his further statements which pertain to the individual well-being. Furthermore, mentioning Harvard University and the fact that he was present at the lecture implies that he is attending an elite university. The latter may produce an association that the knowledge he conveys in the book is legitimate and not easily obtainable. The fourth excerpt is a more explicit appeal to authority, since Covey seeks support for his argument that the Personality Ethic is inimical to individual well-being by quoting Erich Fromm, a prominent social psychologist and psychoanalyst. Doing so, he earns credible support for his own arguments and strengthens his persuasiveness.

Finally, his practical insights gained from working with “thousands” of individuals and his thorough examination of successful individuals and societies strengthen his appeal to phronesis.

**Arete**

Primarily, appeals to arete and euonia are fairly interwoven in the text since the moral character the author presents in its turn produces a well-intentioned individual ready to help the audience deal with life’s perturbations. The moral character of the author is very powerful and is displayed in many instances throughout the text. The selection below will attempt to illustrate his moral persona as vividly as possible.

Consider the illustrations below:

i. “I was suddenly able to see the powerful impact of the Personality Ethic and to clearly understand those subtle, often consciously unidentified discrepancies between what I knew to
be true—some things I had been taught many years ago as a child and things that were deep in my inner sense of value—and the quick fix philosophies that surrounded me every day. If I try to use human influence strategies and tactics of how to get other people to do what I want, to work better, to be more motivated, to like me and each other—while my character is fundamentally flawed, marked by duplicity and insincerity—then in the long run I cannot be successful...if there is little or no trust, there is no foundation for permanent success. Only basic goodness gives life to technique.” (p.21)

ii. “Through deep thought and the exercise of faith and prayer, we began to see our son in terms of his own uniqueness.” (p.20)

First, the author shrewdly implies that the “right” ethic of character has been a part of his inner sense of value and that he was raised according to the right values. Moreover, by instructing the reader that the goodness of character is the basis for happiness and success he detaches himself from duplicity, insincerity and emerges as the opposite, an honest and non-manipulative individual. The reader may therefore be convinced that this author is not manipulative or deceitful in his intentions. The penultimate excerpt vigorously supports his image of a moral character. The allusion to religiousness effectively enhances his credibility. Accordingly, it may be argued that the popular view of morality is virtually synonymous with religiousness. The latter is elaborated in the review section.

Euonia

i. “But from my own experience—both personal and in working with thousands of other people—and from careful examination of successful individuals and societies throughout history, I am persuaded that many of the principles embodied in the Seven Habits are already deep within us, in our conscience and our common sense” (p.44)

...The principles seem to exist in all human beings, regardless of social conditioning and loyalty to them, even though they might be submerged or numbed by such conditions of disloyalty. (p.34)

The above excerpt conveys the good intentions in an unconventional manner. Stating that he is persuaded that the principles are embedded in each human being he subtly
approaches the reader and provides a cathartic limbo. Reminiscent to the parable of the lost son⁷, he welcomes back forgivingly those who have not abided by the good principles as well.

In conclusion, the above selection depicts the author as a well read, knowledgeable individual who has gained wide practical wisdom on the topic of relevance. Moreover, the moral persona constructed and the implied good intentions serve to reinforce his credibility.

3.1.2 Pathos
The central means of appealing to the emotions of the readers are the instructive stories in the text. Stories serve as illustrations to arguments and they aim to convert abstract concepts into tangible, perceptible situations. The first excerpt is from the narrative on his son where particular attention should be paid on how the visual scene changes after the author identifies his error and changes the attitude towards his son. The second excerpt is a story fused with deep and unsettling emotions. Consider the engaging excerpts of the stories below for a fuller grasp of the emotions triggered.

i. “A few years ago, my wife Sandra and I were struggling...One of our sons was having a difficult time in school. He was doing poorly academically; socially he was immature, often embarrassing those closest to him. Athletically, he was small, skinny and uncoordinated. When others laughed we reprimanded them “Leave him alone. Get off his back”...and our son would cry and insist that he'd never be any good and that he didn't like baseball anyway.”...As Sandra and I talked we became painfully aware of the powerful influence of our own character and motives and of our perception of him. We knew that social comparison motives were out of harmony with our deeper values. Instead of trying to change him we tried to stand apart separate us from him – and to sense his identity, individuality, separateness, and worth. ...As the weeks and months passed he began to feel a quiet confidence and affirmed himself. He began to blossom, at his own pace and speed. He became outstanding as measured by standard of social criteria - academically, socially and athletically- at a rapid clip, far beyond the so called natural development process. As the years passed, he was elected to several student body leadership positions, developed into an all-state athlete and started bringing home straight A report cards.” (p.16-20)

ii. “People were sitting quietly, some reading quietly, some lost in thought, some resting with their eyes closed. It was a calm, peaceful scene. Then suddenly, a man and his children entered the subway car. The children were so loud and rambunctious that instantly the whole climate

⁷ The story is found in Luke 15:11-32
changed. ...The children were yelling back and forth, throwing things, even grabbing people's papers... It was easy to see that everyone else on the subway felt irritated, too. I turned to him and said: Sir, your children are disturbing a lot of people. I wonder if you could control them a little more? The man lifted his gaze and said softly: ‘Oh you are right, I guess I should do something about it. We just came from the hospital where their mother died about an hour ago’. I don't know what to think and I guess they don't know how to handle it either.’ Can you imagine what I felt at that moment? My paradigm shifted. Suddenly I saw things differently, and because I saw differently, I thought differently, I felt differently, I behaved differently. My irritation vanished. I didn't have to worry about controlling my attitude or my behaviour; my heart was filled with the man’s pain. Feelings of sympathy and compassion flowed freely. “Your wife just died? Oh, I’m so sorry! Can you tell me about it? What can I do to help?” Everything changed in an instant” (p.30-31)

iii. Two battleships assigned to the training squadron had been at sea on maneuvers in heavy weather for several days. I was serving on the lead battleship and was on watch on the bridge as night fell. The visibility was poor with patchy fog, so the captain remained on the bridge keeping an eye on all activities.

Shortly after dark, the lookout on the wing of the bridge reported, “Light, bearing on the starboard bow.”

“Is it steady or moving astern?” the captain called out.

Lookout replied, “Steady, captain,” which meant we were on a dangerous collision course with that ship.

The captain then called to the signalman, “Signal that ship: We are on a collision course, advise you change course 20 degrees.”

Back came a signal, “Advisable for you to change course 20 degrees.”

The captain said, “Send, I’m captain, change course 20 degrees.”

“I’m seaman second class,” came the reply. “You had better change course 20 degrees.”

By that time, the captain was furious. He spat out, “Send, I’m a battleship. Change course 20 degrees.”

Back came the flashing light, “I’m a lighthouse.”

We changed course. (p.33)

As illustrated, dramatic effects supported with vivid language make his narrative exceptionally potent. When recounting personal experiences the author skilfully utilizes contrast to strengthen the dramatic effect. For instance, his son is skinny, uncoordinated
and academically poor and becomes a strong athlete with high academic achievements. The calm and serene scene in the subway is harshly disrupted by suffering and death. Visceral instincts such as caring for one’s offspring, taking pride in them, compassion, understanding, and sympathy are invoked throughout the narratives. The last excerpt is a story included in full and is used by the author to demonstrate that principles are like lighthouses. It is impossible to break the law, only we can break against it. The suspense is created by the repetitive scenes of the event and the foggy scenery at sea produces a stronger dramatic effect. Apart from the analogy Covey deploys, the story is powerfully instructive in that it treats questions such as human vanity and its disastrous consequences.

Finally, the following section handles the appeal to logos and presents some of his arguments more explicitly.

3.1.3 Logos
Identifying a selection of excerpts where Covey makes explicit attempts to argue for his case has been a highly complex task. Firstly, the narratives themselves hold a propositional content. For instance, to show the failure of Positive Mental Attitude Techniques as part of the Personality Ethics he deftly uses the story of his son. Thus he demonstrates that the Personality ethic breeds frustration and hampers true achievement. However, a number of examples point to more explicit argumentative instances. Consider the most apparent use of arguments in the selection below:

i. “If I try to use human influence strategies and tactics of how to get other people to do what I want, to work better, to be more motivated, to like me and each other—while my character is fundamentally flawed, marked by duplicity and insincerity—then, in the long run, I cannot be successful. My duplicity will breed distrust, and everything I do—even using so called good human relations techniques—will be perceived as manipulative. It simply makes no difference how good the rhetoric is or even how good the intentions are; if there is no trust, there is no foundation for permanent success. Only basic goodness gives life to technique (p.21).

ii. “The reality of such principles or natural laws becomes obvious to anyone who thinks deeply and examines the cycles of social history. These principles surface time and time again, and
the degree to which people in a society recognize and live in harmony with them moves them toward either survival and stability or disintegration and destruction.” (p.34)

iii. “Principles are guidelines for human conduct that are proven to have enduring, permanent value. They’re fundamental. They’re essentially unarguable because they’re self-evident. One way to quickly grasp the self-evident nature of principles is to simply consider the absurdity of attempting to live an effective life based on their opposites. I doubt that anyone would seriously consider unfairness, deceit, baseness, uselessness, mediocrity, or degeneration to be a solid foundation for lasting happiness and success.” (p.35).

iv. “...we sometimes look for a shortcut, expecting to be able to skip some of these vital steps in order to save time and effort and still reap the desired result. But what happens when we attempt to shortcut a natural process in our growth and development? ...The answers are obvious. It is simply impossible to violate, ignore, or shortcut this development process. It is contrary to nature, and attempting to seek such a shortcut only results in disappointment and frustration.” (p.36,37)

In the first excerpt the author’s main argument is that influence techniques are to no avail without the goodness of character. If character is hypocritical it will breed distrust and in its turn, lack of trust will undermine permanent success. The second example appeals to reason in that it states that people “who think deeply” have probably discerned that society can only survive if it abides by the principles he introduces. Next, the author appeals to the reader to consider the importance of principles by considering the absurd state of living with their opposites. Finally, he argues that shortcuts in natural processes of growth and development breed discontent and frustrate.

3.1.4 Review
Demonstrably, the author makes ample use of appeals to ethos, pathos and logos to convey his idea of the advantage of the Character Ethic and the change of paradigm as opposed to the Personality Ethic. In particular, the appeal to ethos is very meticulously arranged. In that regard, as the message touches upon abstract and highly appreciated traits such as integrity, humility, justice, etc. the construction of the moral persona of the author is remarkable. Thus, a great effort is put in validating his practical wisdom and innate ethics since such principles are complex and abstract and to instruct others in them, requires
extensive life experience and trustworthiness. In this context, Aristotle remarked that “We believe good men more fully and more readily than others (Rhetoric, Book I). A cleverly devised appeal to ethics and allusions to the religiousness or as he states ‘faith and prayer’ may account for the strength of the message since it has been argued that in popular thinking morality and religion are inseparable (Rachels, 2007:53).

In conclusion, the appeal to pathos is very powerful as well and emerges through his vividly presented stories. As illustrated apart from invoking emotions the stories hide a propositional content as well and uphold the argumentative structure. Hence the difficulty in simple categorizations of appeals. Lastly, discussing his case, he states at one point that the principles exist in all human beings thereby asserting the innate goodness and morality of humans. Covey apparently believes in a more Rousseauian ‘natural state’ where human nature is largely good and the natural law of integrity, fairness, dignity, and patience is built within each human being.

In conclusion, Covey’s main argument is built on dichotomous grounds, namely that personality ethics leads to frustration whereas the character ethic is the only guarantee of ‘success and enduring happiness’.
II. Gary Hamel - Leading the Revolution
Category: Consultant guru

Gary Hamel was born in 1954. He is the co-author of ‘Competing for the Future’ (1994) and more recently, ‘Leading the Revolution’ (2000). In the latter, he calls for companies to throw aside their single-strategy business plans and instead to focus on continual, radical innovation (Brown et al. 2002). In the book he also famously overestimates Enron, resulting in laying low for up to five years after the publication (Business Week 2005).

Hamel has been described as a business mind who’s not afraid to overthrow the status quo, and called a “the world’s reigning strategy guru” by The Economist, referring to his non-linear thinking. In fact, unconventional thinking has defined Hamel’s 20-plus-year-career (Business Week 2005). Moreover he is seen as the originator of the concept of core competencies in cooperation with C. K. Prahalad. Hamel claims that cynics, such as Dilbert (the cartoon strip) is the last thing the business world needs. He argues that “complacency and cynicism are endemic”, while it is only by challenging convention that change will happen, which is why argues that “we need antidotes to Dilbert” (Brown et al. 2002: 79, 82). In Accenture’s Top 50 Business Intellectuals ranking, he is number 7.
3.2 Summary

The author commences by asserting that the age of progress is over, explains that it was born in the Renaissance, achieved its adolescence during the Enlightenment, matured in the industrial age and died in the 21 century. Scientific deductive reasoning was the ultimate panacea for solving any problem, from designing social structures to achieving scientific breakthroughs such as unpacking the atom or producing semiconductors of unerring quality. However, he continues to argue that progress led to very destructive events such as modern weaponry, terrorism, sacrificed health and family life for work and concludes that progress started in hope and ends in anxiety. Within that context he argues that employees around the world have worked more and harder to achieve less and have been robbed of their autonomy and creativeness as the corporate life imposed binders full of corporate policies and reengineering.

'The age of Revolution'

The author continues by stating that the age of revolution is at the threshold, an age of upheaval and turmoil which will not move in a linear but non-linear manner. Change itself would be discontinuous and abrupt and to illustrate he states that in one generation the cost of decoding the human gene has dropped from millions of dollars to hundreds of dollars, global capital flows eroded national economic sovereignty and the Internet made geography insignificant. He states that in the new age companies that evolve slowly will be extinct since change is no longer a punctuated equilibrium but punctuation only.

'The new industrial order'

Next, the author states that the industrial age has brought forth industrial giants like DuPont, General Electric, Citigroup, etc. Such companies focused on rigorous planning, statistical process control, and reengineering. He asserts that new winds of economic integration and deregulation have destroyed monopolies and are now threatening the existence of these giants. The author claims that companies that miss the 'critical bend' will never catch up and illustrates that by several examples. For instance, Motorola, the world leader in the cellular telephone business until 1997 missed the shift to digital technology and in that slip of time Nokia became the world's number one. Or, in the 1990s, SAP software was installed by thousands of companies to integrate internal operations but when companies started using the Web to link suppliers and customers, SAP was nowhere to be seen and within few months Ariba, i2 Technologies, and Siebel systems took leadership. He then asserts that industrial incumbency has lost its value since economic integration has
opened markets and deregulation destroyed monopolies. Compaq, Novell, Kodak, and Nissan are among the incumbents who are fighting to survive.

He states that the new age is marked by the upheaval of revolutionaries against the landed gentry and insurgents against the incumbents. He resumes by saying that revolutionaries will seize the companies' markets and customers, their best employees and finally their assets. To illustrate, he provides examples of Royal Dutch Shell that realized that Tesco (the supermarket) was selling oil and taking over the market, or Amazon.com selling everything from toys to tools, and in terms of employees some executives have moved from Apple, Xerox etc to the Silicon Valley, and finally eBay, the Internet auction firm, acquired the third largest auction house in US, Butterfield & Butterfield. He ends by stating that it has never been a better time to be a rebellious newcomer.

‘Limited only by imagination’

The age of revolution has limits only in the imagination. The gap between the imagined and real is getting smaller. However, individuals who can imagine reality are outnumbered by those who cannot. The point is to escape the linearity of progress and step in the revolutionary mode which offers infinitely better prospects. Therefore, he advises the reader to become a dreamer. Mars pathfinder, tissue farming, virtual reality, and mood-altering drugs are but a few examples of dreams coming true.

‘Thriving in the age of revolution’

In order to thrive in the age of revolution one must shoot first and out-innovate the innovators. Hamel states that any business concept is rapidly losing its economic efficiency. In a Gallup survey he conducted newcomers were identified as those who took advantage of the change in the industry.

‘Going non-linear’

Next, the author claims that companies must reinvent strategies year after year since in a non linear world non linear ideas will produce wealth and companies will have to imagine entirely novel solutions to customer needs. Linear innovation versus non-linear innovation will mark the new order. Industry revolutionaries will blow old business concepts and establish new ones and that will be the defining competitive advantage of the age of revolution. Examples of new business concepts are IKEA, searching jobs at Monster engine, downloading music on Internet, etc. However, he states that business concept innovation is frequently but not necessarily associated with new technology. The author then provides a list of examples of new business concepts such as internet telephony, the
affordable business model of IKEA, buying insurance via Internet, AllAdvantage advertising that compensates viewers for seeing an add, or Mercata.com the price is lower when more people buy.

‘New Wealth’

So, as to succeed in the order, revolutionaries will create wealth rather than release and conserve. Spin-offs, de-mergers, share buybacks, etcetera, all release wealth instead of creating it.

‘Toward capability’

The author then argues that frequently revolutions come from a single person – a visionary – but that such a person cannot achieve a second revolution since visionaries do not stay visionaries forever. The author states that radical business concepts come from lucky foresight and provides two examples. First, Anita Roddick having to fend for her family when her husband left to pursue a horseback dream generated her business concept of the Body Shop. Second, the occurrence of eBay happened as Pierre, the founder, tried to think of a way to help his fiancée trade Pez dispensers online. Insight, he claims, comes from happenstance, desire, curiosity, and need. One part is vision and the other is fortuity. He claims that revolution will not be possible unless we don’t refute learned theories of management from the age of progress and take responsibility for more that “our job”.

‘Activists rule’

The author labels employees as activists – and states that the time is right to be an activist since the workplace is more democratic with the intranets, executives cannot command commitment, intellectual capital is more valuable and employees are the true capitalists or shareholders and owners as well. The key words for the new order will be to dream, invent, pioneer, and imagine, and he encourages employees to push back and fight for ideas and defy Dilbert’s cynical attitude.

‘The new innovation regime’

Finally he addresses the new innovation regime. First, he gives credit to the industrial age which gave humanity 747, the optical fibre, fuel cells, LCD, etc. During that age of progress the consumer society was created. Now the revolutionary age will see leaps

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8 Dilbert is the eponymous main character of the Dilbert comic strip. He has a rare condition characterized by an extreme intuition about all things mechanical and electrical (and utter social ineptitude). He graduated from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology with a degree in Electrical Engineering. Although his ideas are typically sensible and occasionally even revolutionary, they are seldom carried out because of his powerlessness.
of human imagination, and the struggle will be against the established hegemony. He places Silicon Valley as an embodiment of free struggle of new ideas, and as a metaphor of experimentation and imagination.

He puts forward the new innovation agenda which is continuous improvement and non-linear innovation, serendipity and capability, visionaries and activists, and product and business concept innovation. Big science, he claims, is an elephant dragging a hardwood log up the steep incline of scientific inquiry, and consumer marketing is a trained seal whereas the new innovation regime is a leaping gazelle.

The author ends by stating that the privileges of the industrial oligarchy will be swept away along with corporate convention and encourages CEOs, employees, clerks and students to take advantage of the democratic opportunities. Finally, he asserts that we can become authors of our destiny and if we care enough we will embrace the new agenda. He states that we should look in the future's eye and say: “I am no longer captive of history, bureaucracy I am an activist and not a drone. I am a revolutionary”.

Rhetorical Analysis

3.2.1 Ethos
Ethos is implied in the praises and strengthens the author's credibility. In particular, praises for Hamel include CEO's from large world-know companies. To illustrate:

i. "Gary Hamel captures the moment with a no-holds-barred assessment of the issues facing companies all around the world as they struggle to catch up with the new economy."

Sir Richard Branson, Chairman, Virgin Group

ii. "Revolutionaries in the new economy are those leaders and companies willing to change the strategies that once made them great. Gary Hamel's clear and powerful blueprint for radical innovation is eye-opening for any business."

Michael Dell, Chairman and CEO, Dell

iii. "Gary Hamel captures the new competitive business environment, one in which dreams and reality merge. Leading the Revolution will inspire innovation at all levels and provide insight into opportunities for rewarding revolutionary thinking in new and bigger ways."

Arthur M. Blank, President & CEO, The Home Depot, Inc.
As illustrated, the praises are extended from prominent industry executives. Having in mind the academic background of the author such praises strengthen his credibility and imply that his theoretical notions enjoy high applicability in practice. The author is presented as having grasped the new business environment with the book serving as the blueprint for innovation for any business.

Phronesis
Ethos is mainly exercised by the impression of intelligence and wide knowledge in the respective topics. A selection of excerpts conveys the appeal to phronesis:

i. “In recent years Nike has learned a painful lesson about the attention span of 14 year-olds. They’re no longer badgering their parents to lay down 100 bucks for a pair of air Jordan. To them Michael Jordan’s just an old guy leading a second-rate basketball team.” (p.6)

ii. “Royal Dutch Shell is one of the world’s premier oil companies, with a history as old as the industry. Yet one day Shell awoke to find that a supermarket, Tesco, had become the largest retailer of “petrol” in Britain, one of Shell’s home markets. How do you handle that?” (p.8)

iii. “The growth problems of P&G and Unilever are not unique. It’s not easy to grow the top line with a strategy that’s more of the same. For some years, McDonald’s growth in the United States has been sputtering. The company introduced a new cooking system that promised made-for-you hamburgers even quicker off the grill. Will this solve McDonald’s growth problem?” (p.14)

iv. “...In a recent survey across 20 industries, I found that only 11 percent of companies had been able to grow revenues twice as fast as their industry over a decade...” (p.14)

As demonstrated, details about companies’ operations and interviews with CEOs exemplify that the author is well acquainted with the industry trends. The text is saturated with names and examples of most widely known companies and is indicative of the author’s practical insights.
Euonia
The statement below is an illustration of the author’s attempt to create a closer bond with the target audience by switching to the usage of the pronoun “we”.

i. “We were promised relief from tedium; we got the white collar factory. We were promised a degree of autonomy; we got binders full of corporate policy. We were promised an outlet for creativity; we got reengineering. We were often called “associates” but we were as expendable as worn-out machines.” (p. 4)

This statement refers to the consequences of progress suffered by employees and implies that the author himself bears the brunt of progress and hence his claims to help should be accepted as honest, legitimate and helpful.

3.2.2 Pathos
The appeal to emotions is a very strong element pervading the text. It is invoked both through vivid language and actual images placed in the text. For the purposes of this study, the actual pictures will not be considered in detail although their effect is not to be undermined. Rather, the imagistic, vivid language will be considered as aiding the appeal to emotion. The author makes an appeal to a range of fear states and rebelliousness and the selection below well illustrates this tendency.

Fear Appeal

i. “The age of progress began in hope, it is ending in anxiety” (p.5)

ii. “Yet progress is not quite alluring as it once was...two world wars made infinitely brutal by modern weaponry, the threat of biological and nuclear terrorism, dead rivers and butchered forests, mega-cities teeming with displaced peasants, workaholics from Tokyo to San Hose who have sacrificed health and family” (p.4)

iii. “We now stand on the threshold of a new age – the age of revolution. In our minds, we know the new age has already arrived; in our bellies, we’re not sure we like it. For we know that it is going to be an age of upheaval, of tumult...” (p.4)
iv. “First the revolutionaries will take your markets and your customers, next they’ll take your best employees. Finally they’ll take your assets”. (p.8)

In the above excerpts, the author invokes images of wars, terrorism, and destroyed natural resources. Moreover, he appeals to the instinctual perceptions that although we are aware of the coming new order, we feel that it is going to be tumultuous. The feeling of anxiety is strengthened by the losses depicted in the last statement. Such images may induce fear for the future. Furthermore, the author intensifies the feeling of fear with violent mental images produced by the vivid language. Consider the following illustrations:

**Fear combined with Violence**

i. “Somewhere there is a bullet with your company's name on it. ...You can't dodge the bullet, you will have to shoot first”. (p.11)

ii. “Those who live by the sword will be shot by those who don’t”. (p.11)

iii. “The age of revolution requires not diligent soldiers, throwing themselves at the enemy en masse, but guerilla fighters, highly motivated and mostly autonomous”. (p.26)

The first excerpt sets the rules of the game in the revolutionary period. It alludes that it is going to be a survival game or the merciless survival of the fittest. Next, bullets and swords as an allusion to the age of innovation used in inverted and witty wordplays of biblical allusions produce powerful effects that depict the age of revolution. Finally, the military metaphor alludes that industry revolutionaries are guerrilla fighters and not obedient soldiers. Finally, the militaristic imagery is violent and serves to enhance the state of fear and hence the mobilization required to survive the revolution.

**Rebelliousness and Empowerment**

Upon imbuing the text with fear and violence, the author provides the solutions to the current ills and encourages the respective stakeholders to be rebellious and empowers them. The following excerpts illustrate his empowering tone:

...
i. “So enough of Dilbert, that whining little weasel. When’s the last time he stuck his head above the walls of his cubicle. When’s the last time he actually fought for an idea? He is a wimp. He deserves what he gets.” (p.26)

ii. “How often does the revolution start with monarchy? Nelson Mandela... Martin Luther King.... It was passion, not power that allowed them to do so.” (p.24)

iii. “Ralph Waldo Emerson put it perfectly when he said, “There are always two parties – the party of the past and the party of the future. Which side are you on?” (p.26)

iv. “You can become the author of your destiny. You can look the future in the eye and say:
I am no longer captive to history
Whatever I can imagine I can accomplish
I am no longer a vassal in a faceless bureaucracy
I am an activist not a drone
I am no longer a foot soldier
In the march of progress
I am a Revolutionary” (p.29)

Interestingly, in the first illustration, the author deploys a very famous character of a comic cartoon that features a character named Dilbert (see footnote 1). By doing so, Dilbert becomes the embodiment of employees whom the author attempts to encourage becoming revolutionaries. Furthermore, empowerment is strengthened through the allusion to the courage of prominent historical characters whose passion changed the course of history. Lastly, the encouragement supports the only, compelling choice, and that is to become a revolutionary. In conclusion, the dramatic ending resembles an auto-suggestive mantra that the individual should say to the future.

3.2.3 Logos
Apart from the strong appeal to pathos the author makes ample use of examples that illustrate his main arguments. To illustrate but a few will suffice:

i. “In a world of discontinuous change, a company that misses a critical bend in the road may never catch up. Consider the following examples: Motorola, the world leader in the cellular
telephone business until 1997, missed the shift to digital wireless technology by just a year or two. In that sliver of time, Nokia, a hitherto unknown company, perched on the edge of the Arctic circle, became the world’s number one.” (p. 5)

ii. “In a Gallup survey I authored, approximately 500 CEOs were asked, ‘Who took best advantage of change in your industry over the past 10 years – newcomers, traditional competitors, or your own company?’ The number one answer was newcomers…Fully 62 percent of the CEOs said the newcomers had won by changing the rules.” (p.12)

iii. “Yet business concept innovation has little to do with the new technology-think of IKEA, Old Navy, Virgin Atlantic...” (p.17)

The first statement argues and illustrates how missing a critical bend can result in a failure. Next, the reference to statistics points to systematic research that supports his theories and finally in an instance where the author argues that innovation is not linked to technology by necessity he provides examples of that. Therefore, his arguments are primarily structured by example and references to research statistics provide strong basis for the statements produced.

3.2.4 Review
It has been illustrated in the above analysis that the use of pathos and logos is indeed very strong. Interestingly, if the content of the message is taken into consideration, the lack of appeal to arete or moral virtues may be justified. In the age of revolution, morality might not matter as much as the instinct to survive. Throughout the text allusions to war, images of bullets shot by newcomers, seizing assets, markets and employees from incumbents, resonates with the merciless struggle of the fittest. In contrast to the Rousseauian natural state of Covey, it is the Hobbesian ‘state of nature’ or ‘bellum omnium contra omnes’ that marks the age of revolution where there is less of the human mercy and morality and more of the instinctual struggle to survive. In that regard, vivid language, potent mental images and invocation of archetypal emotions such as fear and survival are compelling components of the text that support his arguments. Lastly, the arguments support the only available choice. Individuals and companies will either become revolutionaries and successful or they will face failure and extinction.
III. Peter Drucker – The Effective Executive

Category: Academic guru

Peter Drucker was born in 1909 in Austria and has been described as “the world’s most important and influential management thinker, a guru, an international legend, and business icon” (Brown et al. 2002: 38). He was the first to introduce a large number of management concepts, such as decentralization, treating employees as assets, and already in the 1970s, the concept of the knowledge worker. He is ranked number 4 in Accenture's top 50 Business Intellectuals and number 1 by Thinkers50 for 2001 and 2003.

Drucker’s reputation as a management guru was established with his 1954 book called 'The Practice of Management', and throughout his work, Drucker’s emphasis has thus been on the effectiveness of managers - particularly in making good use of their human resources - as the key to a productive and profitable organization (Kennedy 1991). However, in the 1980s Drucker began to have grave doubts about business and capitalism. He starting seeing the corporation as “a place where self-interest had triumphed over the egalitarian principals he long championed, and he emerged as one of Corporate America’s most important critics” (Business Week 2005). He was outraged by the multimillion-dollar severance packages managers received while firing thousands of employees, and was at one point so put off by American corporate values that he was moved to say that, “although I believe in the free market, I have serious reservations about capitalism” (Brown et al. 2002, Business Week 2005).

Peter F. Drucker's The Effective Executive (1966) is celebrating its 40th anniversary. The Effective Executive rapidly became a classic. The audience for the book is vast - from accomplished and aspiring executives in private, social and government sectors to knowledge workers in the global information economy to young people who want to understand the nature of organization and become effective as persons and participants in organizations. The Effective Executive has been translated into more than 25 languages including Chinese.
3.3 Summary

Effectiveness Can be Learned

The author explains shortly that he first became interested in effective executives in World War Two when he observed how certain individuals employed in wartime government agencies excelled while others failed. Thus, he started observing and researching effectiveness and in particular, executive effectiveness. He states that he systematically studied effective executives and asserts that effectiveness can be and must be learned. In addition, the author claims that his book is first on the subject. He concludes that upon the effective executives depend our individual well-being and survival. He ends the preface by hoping that this book will make men in executive positions more effective.

Why we need effective executives?
The author opens his first chapter by stating that the job of the executive is to be effective. That means, he asserts, getting the right things done. He states furthermore that intelligence, knowledge and imagination are essential but only effectiveness converts them into results.

Stating that little attention has been paid to effectiveness despite the vast literature on executive tasks, he lays down several reasons for that drawback. One reason is the small number of knowledge workers that are now on the increase. In that regard, he compares manual workers who are only measured by efficiency with knowledge workers whose motivation depends on their being effective. He concludes that effectiveness can no longer be neglected.

He provides a brief explanation of what knowledge workers do, in particular that they do not produce something effective in itself but rather someone else has to make use of their ideas and convert them into products. The knowledge worker must provide effectiveness which means getting the right things done.

Who is an executive?
The author continues to explain that executives are individuals who make decisions rather than carry out orders. In his opinion, most managers are executives but some are not. In knowledge organizations many non-managers are becoming executives. To illustrate the point he deploys an analogy from the Vietnam War explained by a young American captain. The captain states that in guerilla war every man has to bring individual decisions on the spot in order to defend the team against the enemy when the captain is not there. He concludes that in guerrilla war every man is an executive.
Further, the author resumes by claiming that knowledge work is not defined by quantity but rather by the results and the effort of many people does not necessarily yield a better result than the effort of a single person. He asserts that in the knowledge organizations there are individuals who do not manage anyone but are still executives and states that the authority of knowledge is as valid as the authority of position. The decisions of executives are of the same type as the ones of top management. In addition, executives need not be in high positions in the company but they can still be executives.

Executive realities
The author resumes by outlining the four major realities of executives and compares them to the reality of a doctor who due to the nature of his job faces no problems with effectiveness. Executives, he asserts, face a different reality. First their time belongs to everybody else, and then they are forced to be operational for a specific plant even if they run the entire business. Again the analogy with the doctor is provided where the doctor is focused on the patient’s concern only, whereas the executive faces a more complex reality. The third reality that hampers his effectiveness is that he must reach out to people with various skills and interests inside the organization whether his superiors or subordinates, in order to make full use of their resources. And finally, being overwhelmed by internal tasks the executive can rarely see the outside developments. The higher he goes up the hierarchy the more he is focused on internal problems. The author states that the less an organization does to achieve results the better it does its job.

Organizations, he claims, are social artifacts and not biological organisms yet they are governed by the law of plants and animals. As surface goes up with the square of the radius, the mass grows with the cube. The larger the animal, the more resources to be devoted to internal tasks. He provides an illustration of an amoeba which due to its simplicity is in contact with environment whereas humans are much more complex and their resources serve to offset such complexity. The author claims that the situation is aggravated by the advent of computers which he labels ‘mechanical morons’. Computers can only handle quantitative data and cannot qualify information and turn them into facts. The executive must perceive the changes in the trends in the environment and not rely exclusively on computers, a condition of dependence he calls ‘computeritis’. He claims that computers are logical which is both a strength and limitation whereas people are more perceptive than logical and that is exactly their strength.

The promise of effectiveness
Next, he dwells on the issue of what sort of managers do books on manager development construct. Management books envisage a man who understands social and natural sciences and who is creative, namely a universal genius. However, the author asserts that the human race shows that we have only universal incompetents in abundance. He suggests that organizations will have to be built in such a way as to allow each individual to make full use of his special skills. He identifies the problem in too specialized learning and states that one should have at least some knowledge in all areas.

But can effectiveness be learned

Finally, he reiterates that effectiveness is a tool that will make better use of resources. He states that effectiveness can be learned since it is a practice and even seven year olds know what a practice is. Lastly, the author proposes that there is no effective personality as effective people are a variety of demeanours, characters and professions. Effectiveness is essentially a habit and consists of time management, focus on results, focus on few areas, building on strengths, and bringing effective decisions.

**Rhetorical Analysis**

3.3.1 Ethos

Prior to addressing the use of ethos, pathos and logos, it should be brought to attention that it was hardly possible to find any praises on his book, either on the front and back cover or immediately at the beginning. One reason might be that in early 1967, the time of its publication, praises were not as popular as today. Therefore, the analysis directly assesses the use of the triad within the text itself.

Firstly, ethos is invoked very seldom and apparent instances were only the two identified excerpts below. However, the strength of those statements suffices to establish the authority of the writer. Consider the following appeals to phronesis:

**Phronesis**

i. “In 1959 or 1960, an old friend, Thomas D. Morris (then Assistant Director of the Budget and, since 1961, a highly effective Assistant Secretary of Defence) invited me to talk on effectiveness to a group of senior administrators in the Federal Government.” (pref.)
ii. “This book is the ‘first word’ on the subject. At least I have not been able to find, in an extensive search of the literature, any other discussion of the effective executive” (pref.)

The first statement establishes Drucker as belonging to society elite, whose insights are appreciated by the Federal Government. The latter demonstrates his intellectual capacity and opportunity to draw informed conclusions due to exclusive access to the highest decision-making circles. The second excerpt grants him the status of a pioneer, an expert who introduces specific knowledge by constructing the concept of an effective executive.

Euonia

i. “It is my hope that this book will make able men in executive work want to become fully effective themselves.”

With the above statement, the author manages to convey his main aim and that is to help executives become more effective. Thus, he demonstrates his good intentions towards his target audience.

3.1.2 Pathos

The appeal to emotions in the text is largely displayed in the form of humour, in particular irony and sarcasm. The selected excerpts demonstrate his witty and critical attitude:

i. “In 1959 or 1960, an old friend, Thomas D. Morris (then Assistant Director of the Budget and, since 1961, a highly effective Assistant Secretary of Defence) invited me to talk on effectiveness to a group of senior administrators in the Federal Government. I accepted with considerable reluctance. What I had to say on the subject seemed to me obvious, if not trite...To my surprise however, these apparently obvious comments were received by my audience as brand-new discoveries.” (pref.)

ii. “The books on manager development for instance envisage truly a ‘man for all seasons’...What seems to be wanted is universal genius; and universal genius has always been in scarce supply. The experience of the human race indicates strongly that the only person in abundant supply is the universal incompetent.” (p.15)
iii. “The danger is being aggravated today by the advent of the computer and of the new information technology. The computer, being a mechanical moron, can handle only quantifiable data. ... The danger is that executives will become contemptuous of information and stimulus that cannot be reduced to computer logic and computer language. ... In the short run, however, there is a danger of acute ‘computeritis’. It is a serious affliction.” (p.13,14,15)

The first excerpt deploys mild sarcasm in that the senior administrators of the Federal Government are dismissed as slightly incompetent for everything that seems obvious to the author is a revelation for them. Next, when discussing the required characteristics of managers he humorously and ironically asserts that the human race has only incompetent people in abundance. Lastly, he labels computers as ‘morons’ and warns executives not to become excessively dependent on them. Computers are viruses for the author and they cause what he wittily constructs as ‘computeritis’.

3.3.3 Logos

As the content of the introductory text is largely instructional and aims to define effectiveness and effective executives the selection below illustrates a more open appeal to reason mainly by analogy and example:

i. “An organization, a social artifact is very different from a biological organism. Yet it stands under the law that governs the structure and size of animals and plants... The larger the animal becomes, the more resources have to be devoted to the mass and to the internal tasks, to circulation and information, to the nervous system, and so on.” (p.12)

ii. “By the time doctors on the European continent had enough statistics to realize that the number of deformed babies born was significantly larger than normal – so much larger that there had to be a specific and new cause - the damage had been done. In the United States, the damage was prevented because one public-health physician perceived a qualitative change - a minor and by itself meaningless skin tingling caused by the drug - related to a totally different event that had happened many years earlier, and sounded the alarm...” (p.14)

iii. “The Ford Edsel holds a similar lesson. All the quantitative figures that could possibly be obtained were gathered before the Edsel was launched. All of them pointed to its being the right car for the right market. The qualitative change – the shifting of American consumer-
buying of automobiles from income-determined to taste-determined market segmentation—no statistical study could possibly have shown.” (p.14)

iv. “The fact is perhaps best illustrated by a recent newspaper interview with a young American infantry captain in the Vietnam jungle. Asked by the reporter ‘how in this confused situation can you retain command?’ he responded that ‘Around here, I am the only guy who is responsible. If these men don’t know what to do when they run into an enemy in the jungle, I’m too far away to tell them. My job is to make sure they know. What they do depends on the situation which only they can judge. The responsibility is always mine, but the decision lies with whoever is on the spot.’” (p.5)

The first statement is an analogy pertaining to the functioning of organizations. The organism metaphor is used and companies are to be analyzed as governed by natural laws. The next two examples are supportive of the argument that executives must not entirely depend on statistics and logic and should instead deploy the human capacity of perceptiveness. Finally, to illustrate the concept of executive and to demonstrate how executives ought to act the author again deploys an analogy from the Vietnam war.

3.3.4 Review

In summary, the author employs the appeal to ethos and logos, whereas the appeal to pathos is limited to the use of sarcastic humour. The latter undoubtedly invigorates the largely instructional discourse. In particular, sarcasm, under recent research in neurology has been recognized as requiring a complex set of cognitive skills to be recognized as well as emphatic and social understanding. To reverse the latter, through the usage of sarcastic remarks the author appears as a very sharp intellect and expects, in all likelihood, his reader counterparts to understand his insights emphasized through sarcastic remarks. Moreover, sarcastic and ironic remarks secure him a rather independent status as an intellectual who openly but subtly criticizes his objects of interest.

Furthermore, the author provides brief illustrations usually from the Vietnam War and the field of medicine. In that regard, war analogies are mainly used in positive connotation, stressing the combatant’s decision making abilities in guerilla battles and linking them to the executive’s decision capacities, whereas medicine is employed to call attention to the more complex universe of the executive as opposed to the one of the doctor.
who only has to think about patient’s symptoms and is in a position to control events as opposed to the executive. In addition, where he introduces a particular assertion he illustrates it with a concrete example which provides a balanced discussion. Finally, it is the underlying idea of the chapter that only effectiveness may put to use intelligence and knowledge and contribute to our wellbeing.
IV. Rosabeth Moss Kanter - Confidence

Category: Academic guru

Rosabeth Moss Kanter was born in 1943 and has established herself as a leading authority on managing change, developing the ‘post-entrepreneurial’ corporation and ‘empowering’ human potential in organizations (Kennedy 1991). The former Editor of Harvard Business Review (1989-1992), Professor Kanter has been named to lists of the “50 most powerful women in the world” (Times of London), the “50 most influential business thinkers in the world” (Accenture and Thinkers 50 research), and is ranked number 11 in Accenture’s top 50 Business Intellectuals.

She describes her own work as developing “capitalism with a human face,” and involving strong social responsibility themes. According to Moss Kanter, what distinguishes her work is that “it’s not flashy. It tends to be grounded”, which is one of the reasons she continues to be based at Harvard University (Brown et al. 2002: 112). Her first three books are often seen as a trilogy on the deep changes facing corporate America. In ‘Men and Women of the Corporation’ (1977), ‘The Change Masters’ (1983), and ‘When Giants Learn to Dance’ (1989), she focuses on the key task of managing the creative potential of employees as the corporate reality changes about them. Within the old-fashioned machine bureaucracy people’s performances were inhibited because there was no opportunity for growth or access to power (Brown, Crainer, Dearlove, and Rodrigues 2002). In contrast, the new model corporation she describes is ‘post-entrepreneurial’, meaning it is “lean and athletic with fewer management levels, able to ‘do more with less,’ to anticipate change and open itself up to opportunities such as strategic alliances with other companies” (Kennedy 1991: 74).
3.4 Summary

The author commences by stating that sometimes it appears that there are two states either ‘boom or bust’. Any company, group or a person can be swept along such fortunate or unfortunate cycles. She then claims that what makes the movement of the cycles is actually confidence. To illustrate the meaning of confidence she delivers several examples of how confidence builds or erodes. Despite its actual talent level which was beyond that of its predecessors, the basketball team of the University of Connecticut managed to win seventy games in a row and play confidently without its best players. Similarly, during America’s Great Blackout in August 2003, Continental Airlines did not cancel its flights like all the rest, instead, it remained operational and even made profit at the time. The company’s employees had confidence that enabled them to act as a team. Also, when the Philadelphia Eagles were scorned for taking on McNabb for his character instead of a more highly rated athlete, it bounced them back from losses and they won more regular season games than any professional football franchise. Similarly, the New England Patriots took on Brady for his character as well and managed to uphold a fifteen game winning streak in 2003. She resumes by giving the example of Gillette that slipped badly in 1990s before a new leader came back and restored its performance. Also in de la Salle High School in California successive generations of athletes won every single football game whereas at the University of Texas as much as they tried athletes lost all their games winning just a few. In 2004 BBC protested over the resignation of their boss and Kanter wonders what made those people show such unusual commitment and confidence. Finally, she provides the example of Nelson Mandela who after spending twenty seven years in prison resisted the temptation to retaliate. He extended his personal confidence even to people that wronged him. Yet again the author asks how that was possible.

The author explains that confidence helps people take control of circumstances rather than be dragged by them. She then claims that once a positive or negative momentum starts it can be hard to stop it. Success creates positive momentum whereas failure feeds on itself. She states that that is how the rich get richer, the poor get poorer, the sick get sicker etc. Persistent patterns of winning and losing can be traced both in sport and business. She states that as patterns develop streaks are produced. Winning creates a positive aura and encourages positive team behaviours whereas losing has a repellent effect making it harder for the team to bond and it falls behind. She states that confidence grows in winning streaks and helps a tradition of success while it erodes in losing.
The author asserts that confidence lies at the heart of our civilization. It consists of positive expectations for favourable outcomes. The economy, society, organizations or teams depend on it. Confidence is a spot between arrogance and despair and it determines whether our steps are tiny or big and daring. At times, such patterns become enshrined in myths and superstitions that affect the players. To illustrate the latter, she provides the examples of ‘The Red Sox’ that lost games due to the “Curse of the Bambino” imposed on Boston when Babe Ruth left them for the Yankees.

Failure and success are trajectories, the author claims, and each step is shaped by what happened before, unless something breaks the streak. The example she provides is the New England patriots winning after September 11, who entered the field as a team and not one by one, thus showing their unity and symbolically the unity of the American nation in such difficult periods.

The author asserts that successful people attract investment that ensures their success. Success, in its turn provides resources, pride and enthusiasm. She claims that company appearances can clearly signal failure or success and recounts the Estee Lauder delegation who met two potential partners, the ‘Target’ and the ‘Kmart’ companies. The Target building was bright, clean and colourful. People were welcoming, well prepared and open for cooperation. Kmart on the other hand, was dirty and led the delegation in a dark conference room with two depressed people without offering coffee or water. Kmart acted as loser and they lost indeed by not winning the business partnership.

Stories on confidence continue. In cricket, first the ‘West Indies’ and then Australia dominated the game, while England despite inventing the game was at the bottom. During the winning streak of the West Indies the team had strong leadership and discipline. When warring leaders came, team spirit disintegrated and ‘West Indies’ became a less popular team since they were losing. When in 1984 an Australian team came to become a winning team, the winning attracted attendance, money poured in the ABC and Australian cricket enjoyed a cycle of success. The author reiterates that failure streaks build on themselves but if leaders build confidence they can turn the cycle around.

She continues by giving a longer account of how Continental Airlines handled the American blackout and cancelled just a few flights. Years invested in a culture of collaboration, communication, responsibility resulted in the confidence required to overcome any problem.
Lastly, the author states that she is an expert on leadership and change and in this book she attempts to explain the culture of success and failure. Her lessons are based on 300 interviews, two surveys, observations and ‘unusual access’ to leaders all over the world.

The author concludes by claiming that continuing success is not a matter of raw talent. Powerful historical, economic and organizational forces accumulate to shape the likelihood of winning. Finally, she speaks of ‘water walkers’ or people with extraordinary talent. Every water walker needs few stones to keep him in a firm state, she claims. When people rely on themselves and on one another they can perform extraordinary feats. These lessons, she observes, will be important for teams, business, and life in general.

**Rhetorical Analysis**

3.4.1 Ethos

Firstly, consider the excerpts below that praise Confidence:

i. “As a long time admirer of Kanter’s pioneering work, I can say this book is a masterpiece. But reader, take note: fasten your safety belt and get ready to be thrown for a loop of originality, and heretofore uncovered insights....An astonishing piece of scholarly work written with grace and lucidity”

   **Warren Bennis, distinguished professor of business administration, USC**

   “…Confidence will make a lasting difference to leaders, and it can help improve the state of the world and the lives of individuals.”

   **Dr. Daniela Vasella, chairman and CEO of Novartis**

The first praise is extended by an academic, a distinguished Professor and establishes Kanter’s work as an astonishingly original academic accomplishment preparing the reader for unprecedented insights. The second is from the business industry, a CEO who claims that Kanter’s tremendous work can improve the lives of individuals as well as the state of the world thereby emphasizing the importance of the book. Hence, credibility is received both from academia and business industry.
Phronesis

The selection below provides an insight into the author's appeal to ethos and in particular, the appeal to knowledge and the good intentions towards the readers:

i. “The Mission of Harvard Business School where I work is to educate leaders who make a difference in the world...” (preface)

ii. “I am an expert on leadership, innovation and change. I have devoted my career to understanding cycles of advantage and disadvantage” (page 20)

iii. “My stories and lessons are based on well over 300 original interviews, two surveys with 2,745 responses, firsthand observations, and unusual insider access to leaders and organizations in North America, Europe, Asia, Australia, South Africa, and elsewhere around the world.” (p.20)

iv. “My research team and I were on the spot in boardrooms, conference rooms, locker rooms, classrooms, emergency rooms, stadiums, fields, factories, and back offices to see the action behind the scene.” (p.20)

The first statement is an appeal to authority, where the author mentions Harvard University as her working place. Moreover, she claims that the school produces leaders who make a difference in the world. Any random search would demonstrate the high ranking of Harvard and its elite academic standing. Next, Kanter outlines her expertise in leadership and change by stating that she devoted her career to such issues. The latter implies that she ought to have in-depth knowledge on the respective topics. To strengthen the appeal to ethos, the author also provides an explanation on the research method deployed for the book and apart from the interviews and surveys she claims having had an “unusual access” to leaders all over the world. The latter is an attempt to demonstrate extraordinary capacities that allow her to obtain information that is otherwise hardly accessible.

Euonia

The excerpt below indicates the author’s intentions:

i. “I wanted to give more people the tools and the confidence to avoid the destructive patterns of losing streaks and get onto winning paths...” (pref.)
With this statement the author appears as a helper, and attempts to bond with the reader by claiming that she wants to assist more people how to avoid the losing streaks. The author appears as an altruist, whose mission is to demonstrate the winning path.

3.4.2 Pathos
The presence of narrative is overwhelming and the excerpts below well illustrate how Kanter manages to capture the attention of the reader by deploying virtually film-like scenery and dynamics in her stories and illustrations. Pathos emerges as a strong element ingrained therein.

i. “The Philadelphia Eagles were roundly booed by fans for picking rookie quarterback Donovan McNabb over a more highly rated running back who was seen as a better athlete. The mayor of Philadelphia even introduced a city council resolution urging the other choice. Recruiting players such as McNabb for “character”, not just for raw athleticism, gave the once mediocre Eagles the confidence to bounce back from losses and win more regular season games from 2000 to 2003 than any other professional football franchise.” (p.4)

ii. “Nelson Mandela spent twenty-seven years in prison under the apartheid government of the old South Africa. Yet, after being released and becoming the new South Africa’s first democratically elected president, he resisted the temptation to take revenge. Instead he led the divided country out of a cycle of decline to one of hope and enterprise. He extended his personal confidence in people, even those who wronged him, into a national culture of respect and inclusion.” (p.5)

iii. “Between 1983 and 1994, Continental Airlines had been on a major losing streak that nearly killed it. In 1994, Gordon Bethune was named CEO and began the turnaround that transformed the Continental team from losers to winners...The value of renewed confidence helped Continental win the game that everyone else lost – the power blackout...On August 14, 2003, at 4:06 p.m. Eastern Daylight Time, the worst blackout in American history began with a power surge near Akron, Ohio. Within seven minutes more than 263 power plants in the Northeast power grid went down, which cut off electricity to 50 million people in eight states and Canada. ...Airports suffered serious disruptions, and airlines absorbed the high costs of cancelled flights and payments to stranded passengers.”
Larry Kellner, Continental’s president, was in his nineteenth-floor office at Continental headquarters in downtown Houston when the phone rang shortly before 4.30 pm Eastern time, 3.30 pm in Houston. The caller was Jay Salter, who ran systems control. Kellner clicked onto the New York Times website and then glanced at CNN, which was running on a television set in his office. Nothing about power failures. Then Charles Scully, hub vice president for Newark Liberty Airport called to inform Kellner that the airport people wanted to keep flights moving. ...Deborah McCoy was on a flight to Louisville, Kentucky, when the blackout began. A pilot and a senior vice president of flight operations, she was responsible for...2,200 daily departures reaching 223 airports on five continents. She spoke with Jay Salter and members of the tactical group about making sure that the planes en route could continue.

...There was no panic, just calm, steady professionalism. “No one was worrying. Everyone knew their job and went to work. And they had confidence that everyone else knew their job”, Kellner said. Years of investment in a culture of collaboration, communication, responsibility and initiative produced the confidence that made Continental a winner.” (p.19)

The first illustration is borrowed from the sport industry and demonstrates how character may sometimes be the decisive trait for winning even in sports where physical strength is the imperative. The feelings of perseverance and persistence in the decision to retain the player despite objections from the community are conveyed in the excerpt. Next, the illustration of Nelson Mandela triggers feelings of compassion, inspires moral feelings of forgiveness and emphasizes the value of sacrifice. Moreover, it is a triumph of the individual human spirit that can bear even the most appalling circumstances for the better future of its nation.

Finally, the lengthier account of Continental Airlines contains such vivid details that at times it seems that the reader is exposed to a movie sequence. The vibrant dynamics of the events described demonstrate the feeling of utmost control over the situation that the employees in Continental Airlines possessed during the crisis. Yet again, the author presents the power that individuals may possess in overcoming the virtually invincible situations.
3.4.3 Logos

The narratives discussed above certainly hold a propositional value, however, the selection below aims to present only the most obvious appeals to reason or more precisely, argumentation exercised by the author.

i. “Winning creates a positive aura around everything, a “halo” effect that encourages positive team behaviour that makes further wins more likely. Winning makes it easier to attract the best talent, the most loyal fans, the biggest revenues... Losing has a repellent effect. It is harder for the team to bond, harder for it to attract new talent, easier for it to fall behind. In short, confidence grows in winning streaks and helps propel a tradition of success. Confidence erodes in losing streaks, and its absence makes it hard to stop losing.” (p.7)

ii. “Failure and success are not episodes, they are trajectories. The meaning of any particular event is shaped by what’s come before. The same $10,000 in someone’s bank account can make him feel rich and getting richer if he had $5,000 the day before... or poor and getting poorer if he had $50,000 the previous day and $100,000 two days earlier. History and context shape interpretations and expectations.”

iii. “Demeanour sends signals that shape other people’s confidence in the team or the business. The Target building was bright, clean, and colourful. Senior executives were on hand to greet the Lauder delegation. People were welcoming, enthusiastic, and well prepared... Kmart headquarters was a forbidding fortress, austere outside, dirty and dishevelled inside. A receptionist escorted the Lauder group to a dark conference room that held “two faceless people who looked depressed, with no water, and no offer of coffee...” The contrast was clear, as each company sent signals about where it was heading. Target was on a winning streak... for the lethargic Kmart staff, failure was a self-fulfilling prophecy.” (p.11)

The author makes several propositions concerning confidence and through the above statements she constructs argumentative structures to support her case. She argues that confidence develops in winning and erodes in losing. The next excerpt is a claim that the attitude displayed is a clear signal conducive to winning or losing. That implies that if one wants to win, one has to act like a winner.
3.4.4 Review

In short, the author deploys ethos, pathos and logos to construct a more appealing message. The underlying idea is reduced to confidence as the single trait that strikes the difference between winning and losing. Moreover, the sport metaphor is vastly deployed to support the message that confidence is a decisive factor that distinguishes the two states. In that manner, the author proposes a certain linearity, a pre-determination attached to the cycles a society, organizations or individuals may be caught in. In conclusion, the presence of narratives merits special attention. As illustrated, the stories exude deep values and use vivid language that in its turn creates mental images that enliven the reception of the proposed arguments.
V. Tom Peters (& Robert Waterman) - In Search of Excellence
Category: Consultant guru

Tom Peters was born in 1942. He studied engineering at Cornell, got his MBA and PhD at Stanford and saw active service in the Vietnam War with the US Navy. His first book, 'In Search of Excellence', co-written by Robert Waterman in 1982, is by far the world’s best-selling business book, despite its slow start. By using the famous McKinsey 7-S formula to analyze organizations, they identified eight characteristics that all analyzed companies shared, such as ‘productivity through people’, and ‘simple form, lean staff’.
However, Peters is ‘not a captive to consistency: two thirds of those companies hit trouble five years after publication, something already pointed out two years after publication by Business Week’s ‘Oops!’ headline, leading to the authors’ conclusion that nothing in today’s chaotic business environment stays the same long enough for excellence of the sustained type to be developed (Thinkers 50, Kennedy 1991). After his first publication, Peters’ work took a new direction with ‘Thriving on Chaos’ (1987), which was the beginning of a genre of books on change.
Peters is known as a charismatic, excitable, hyper-active person, “whose shirts are rapidly soaked with sweat as he delivers his quickfire, floor-pacing lectures” (Kennedy 1991: 126; Brown et al. 2002), and who receives up to 10,000 USD an hour, something he feels uncomfortable about when being in India (Brown et al. 2002). He is ranked number 7 in Accenture’s Top 50 Business Intellectuals.
3.5 Summary

Introduction

The authors commence the introductory part by describing a brief episode of their stay in a hotel in Washington. Having had a long business day and not being able to catch their flight home they checked in the hotel ‘Four Seasons’. They were pleasantly surprised when instead of the cool reception as late comers the concierge addressed them by their name, and smiled. They realized in an instant that the reason of the hotel’s high rating was precisely such behaviour towards clients. Through the story they introduce the theme of corporate excellence and define it as an ‘unusual effort by apparently ordinary employees’. A new story immediately follows. The authors recount their conversations with Boeing executives related to their research about “product champions” - individuals who went to great lengths, damned bureaucracy and delivered fantastically. The authors then recount the story of a little band of Boeing engineers who pored over German documents in Nazi labs on the day the Allied Forces occupied them so as to trace the swept-wing designs and confirm their initial ideas. In addition, they retell the story of sleepless nights where a team of Boeing engineers produced a 33-page proposal for a redesigned B-52 aircraft over one weekend and presented it to the Air Force seventy two hours later. Such tales, they assert, demonstrate the extraordinary lengths teams of people go on behalf of a corporation.

Furthermore, they tell a story they experienced while buying a calculator in an HP store. They were overwhelmed with the competent HP engineer who acted as an enthusiastic sales person as part of the company policy to place engineers so as to gain a sales perspective. In that context, they also extend a praise to McDonalds for its high standard of cleanliness and quality they witnessed everywhere in the world they have been from Australia to Europe and Japan.

Next, the narrative setting shifts to a scene in Geneva on a calm lake and a sunny day, where they recall a conversation with a Swiss colleague from IMEDE Business School where one of them was teaching. Digressing slightly they speak of his wife who was so distressed her husband had to travel while working for McDonalds until he decided to open a chain in Switzerland. Their friend claimed that he was impressed by McDonalds as a people-oriented company.

In that context, another friend of theirs who happened to be working for a hospital praised IBM for the extra mile they went when delivering services, despite the fact that
other software was easier to use and IBM was the most expensive, IBM put great effort in the trouble to get to know the hospital, its operations and its staff.

At that point, the theme of Japanese corporate loyalty and collective behaviour is introduced and authors claim that although such ‘tribal behaviour’ is unthinkable in American companies the latter have indeed demonstrated such behaviours. An example of the weekly Monday night Rally of people who sell plastic bowls – Tupperware bowls or the IBM training programme where they sang songs every morning is provided. They humorously remark that they ‘almost’ got enthusiastic as the workers in Japan.

Moreover, they present a story of Delta Airlines’ commitment to customers by introducing the wife of an employee who could not use her super saver ticket due to moving out and phoned to complain. To resolve the issue the President of Delta handed out the ticket to her in person. In addition they recall a lecture in Stanford summer programme where a Procter and Gamble executive, red in the face furiously asserted that P&G makes the best toilet paper and they give additional information that the company refused to change an ingredient in their soap for an inferior one when the Army was in need during the war. Moreover, in Frito Lay they state that stories abound for people ‘slogging through sleet, mud, hail, snow, and rain’ in order to show their commitment.

At that instance the stories are interrupted and authors conclude that they found evidence of corporate cultures in US as strong as those in Japan and assert that there is no need not look in Japan for models to cure the corporate malaise. Furthermore they maintain that the culture of excellence is a set of repetitive things that excellent companies practice. In that respect, quality, service, customer primacy are identified as the main features. In addition, they claim that in order to achieve them, the extraordinary performance of the average man is essential.

The authors resume with a brief overview of management psychology theories, such as theory X and Y, quality circles and similar and state that they do not fully explain the excellence phenomenon. In psychological terms, quoting psychologist Ernest Becker they repeat that humans are driven by “dualism” or they need to be a ‘conforming member of a winning team’ and a ‘star’ in their own right. In a spiritual manner they elaborate on the desire of man to transcend his extinction by finding meaning. They conclude that companies can provide such a meaning for people and quote Becker: ‘Men fashion unfreedom as a bribe for self-perpetuation’. They assert that people will be willing to ‘shackle’ themselves from nine-to-five if only the cause is perceived as great. The authors exemplify the need to stick
out with an experiment in psychology which shows that people act better when they are given control, where the mere thought of being in control enhances performance. They then argue that the best-managed companies act according to the theories presented. To illustrate the latter, an example of IBM is given where its manager rented a Stadium in New Jersey and after work and his salesmen ran onto the stadium. Their names were beamed on the electronic board in the presence of their families and executives as a sign of appreciation.

The introduction is finalized by statements of outright criticism of the ‘rational bent’ and the ‘fascination with measurement and analysis’. It is claimed that rationalists like planning and dislike mistakes; they favor control and do not like to know what everyone is up to, thereby stifling the very sources of innovation. The authors illustrate this by mentioning the ‘irrational product champions’ at the 3M Company, purposeful overlap in IBM, in short, practices that offer progress.

In conclusion, they assert that good management practices do not reside only in Japan and that there is good news from America as well. The good news is in treating people decently, asking them to shine, replacing scale efficiencies with small units, shifting the focus on costs to quality, replacing hierarchy with informal address, allowing for flexibility and encouraging contributions from everyone in the company.

Rhetorical Analysis

3.5.1 Ethos
Consider the following praises on the front and the back cover respectively:

i. “Exuberant and absorbing – one of those rare books on management that are both consistently thought-provoking and fun to read.”
   The Wall Street Journal

ii. “Perfectly timed, well document, I heartily recommend and strongly urge you to read and digest...In Search of Excellence.”
   Tom Naisbitt, author of Megatrends
The first praise is extended from the Wall Street Journal, a prominent business newspaper that qualifies the book as a thought provoking text. Typically, newspapers are expected to be critical and in instances where they extend praise it might seem, in all likelihood that the book is probably worth reading. Moreover, the credibility of the authors is augmented by the statement of Tom Naisbitt, a prominent business writer who published his book Megatrends in 1982 which became the manual for the next decades to come. Certainly, having such an author commenting on the book provides more credibility to the work of the authors. Further, the analysis delves into the text itself and identifies several instances of appeals to ethos exercised by the authors.

Phronesis
The authors mainly induce credibility through the appeal to intelligence, expertise and insight into the American companies. Below are excerpts that indicate such appeals and the list is by no means exhaustive.

i. “We had decided, after dinner, to spend a second night in Washington. Our business day had taken us beyond the last convenient flight out” (p.xvii)

ii. “We were in another Washington, the state this time, talking to a group of Boeing executives about our research...” (p.xvii)

iii. “One of us was teaching at IMEDE, a business school in Lausanne...” (p.xix)

iv. “One of our favorite images is that of a P&G executive, red in the face, furiously asserting to a class in a Stanford summer executive program...” (p.xx)

Euonia
To display the good intentions towards the readers they are asserting the following:

i. “We have a host of big American companies that are doing it right from the standpoint of all their constituents” (intr.)

The excerpt establishes the authors as dedicated business professionals whose working day is so long that they miss the last flight home. Such seemingly unintentional statements
imply their professional commitment. Furthermore, they are allowed access to the
executives of large and prominent companies such as Boeing in order to conduct their
interviews. In addition, their academic capacity is verified by the fact that ‘one of them
teaches’ in a business school and finally, they state having been present at a lecture in
Stanford University. Any randomly identified ranking list will show Stanford as among the
elite world universities. Finally, to create good intentions towards the readership
specifically in the US they claim that American companies have been acting with excellence
for a long time.

3.5.2 Pathos
Emotions evoked in the text orbit around the astonishing and empowering human ability to
commit to symbolic achievements in the corporation.
Below are several brief excerpts that illustrate the emotional appeal. Frequently, such
illustrations manage to convey very strong emotions.

i. “At Frito Lay we hear stories, perhaps apocryphal, probably not, - it doesn’t matter - about
people slogging through sleet, mud, hail, snow and rain. They are not delivering the mail.
They are potato chip salesmen, upholding the “99.5% service level in which the entire Frito
organization takes such pride and which is the source of unparalleled success.” (p.xxi)

ii. “One of our favorite images is that of a P&G executive red in the face, furiously asserting to
a class in a Stanford summer executive program that P&G “does too make the best toilet paper
on the market, and just because the product is toilet paper, doesn’t mean that P&G doesn’t
make it a damn sight better than anyone else.” (p.xxi)

iii. “The manager of a 100-person sales branch rented the Meadowlands Stadium (New Jersey)
for the evening. After work his salesmen ran onto the stadium’s field through the player’s
tunnel. As each emerged, the electronic scoreboard beamed his name to the assembled crowd.
Executives from corporate headquarters, employees from other offices, and family and friends
were present, cheering loudly.” (p.xxiv)

iv. “...One of us went through an IBM sales training program early in his career; we sang
songs every morning and got just as enthusiastic (well, almost as enthusiastic) as the workers
in a Japanese company.” (p.xx)
v. “For us, the fascination of the first story was the saga of a little band of Boeing engineers poring through German files on the day Nazi labs were occupied by the Allied forces. In so doing, they quickly confirmed their own ideas on the enormous advantages of swept-wing design. Then it was the drama halfway around the world of the subsequent rush to verify the swept-wing design in the wind tunnel...”(p.xxviii)

The first excerpt alludes to the commitment to the corporation and willingness to work in the most unfavourable conditions as a success factor, next is the scene of a temperamental executive who vigorously defends the quality of P&G products and is illustrative of the passion with which individuals approach work. The next illustration demonstrates the appreciation of individual contribution in the company by management and finally, on a more humorous note, the authors remark that chanting corporate litanies is sometimes practiced in American companies and is almost as enthusiastic as in a Japanese one. Lastly, the dynamics of the brief story about the Boeing engineers illustrates dramatically the commitment and passion of employees to a certain idea. In conclusion, it must be noted that the brief stories or illustrations that they deploy are vibrant and dynamic.

3.5.3 Logos

The instances of clear argumentation are not easily discernible in the text, primarily because the propositional content is predominantly hidden behind the recounted stories. For instance, excellence is shown through various examples that in essence attempt to propose that ‘going the extra mile’, treating people decently, team work, and ahierarchical structures are the elements of excellence. However, this section will only treat few obvious appeals to reason.

i. “So, we take some exception to traditional theory, principally because our evidence about how human beings work-individually and in large groups-leads us to revise several important economic tenets dealing with size (scale economies), precision (limits to analysis) and the ability to achieve extraordinary results (particularly quality) with quite average people.” (p.xxv)
ii. “Frito’s chips and Maytag’s washers ought to be commodities; a 99.5 percent service level for mom and pop stores is silly—until you look at the margins, until you see the market share. The problem in America is that our fascination with the tools of management obscures our apparent ignorance of the art. . . . we can measure the costs. But with these tools alone we can’t really elaborate on the value of a turned-on Maytag or Caterpillar workforce churning out quality products or a Frito lay person going that extra mile for the ordinary customer.”

In the first illustration, the authors claim that their evidence points to other mechanisms of how humans work and that may imply that research was conducted and conclusions were inferred systematically. The second illustration resembles an argument where they argue that measuring the costs cannot account for the motivation of employees where other mechanisms are at work instead.

3.5.4 Review

In summary, the authors’ appeal to ethos is discernibly strong and in particular the appeal to practical insights and knowledge (phronesis). Interestingly, the appeals are so devised as to enhance the underlying message and in this regard, there is complete absence of appeals to any moral character of the authors as morality is not relevant to the content of their message. The invocation of pathe, or the emotions as illustrated revolves around a strong urge to empower the American employees that excellence resides in their companies as well. Putting tremendous efforts in the corporation’s success is delineated as a trait of excellence that distinguishes winning companies. Stories are vehicles that contain emotional salience and their dynamics and quick change of scenery may retain the attention due to diversity. Finally, the appeal to the reason is hardly ever allowed to surface in a structured argumentative layout. Instead, stories superseding each other exemplify the main conclusion in the text that excellence equals success and that excellence may signify many things.

The presence of dichotomies in the text serves to strengthen their case. For instance, the theme of Japanese corporate culture of excellence is continuously brought forward. It seems that the perception of Japanese corporate excellence is strongly ambivalent. Japan is both admired and feared at the same time. Moreover, the demonization of the ‘rationalists’ and putting the blame on them for the corporate malaise depicts yet another dichotomization. Rationalists have caused failures whereas excellent, innovative companies
produce success. In conclusion, despite the ambiguity of the concept ‘excellence’ as depicted in the text, the authors appeal to a very strong sentiment such as the self-reliance and self-confidence as part of the American system of values.
VI. Jack Welch – Winning

Category: Self-made (hero) guru

Jack Welch was born 1935 as the son of a bus conductor. After studying chemical engineering at the University of Massachusetts and gaining a PhD in the same subject he joined General Electric's plastics division in 1960. At age 33 he became one of GE’s youngest general managers and after 20 years within the company he became GE’s youngest CEO in 1980. He was known as a very charismatic personality who led by example (New York Times 2002). Welch focused on managing what had become an unmanageable conglomerate of GE businesses. He commented that his main job was developing talent: “I was a gardener providing water and other nourishment to our top 750 people. Of course, I had to pull out some weeds, too” (Thinkers 50). Welch led GE to huge financial success, which however came at the expensive of 100,000 employees losing their job, which earned him the name ‘Neutron Jack’ (Business Week 2000). After retirement in 2001 Welch wrote several books about his period at GE. In 2001 he published ‘Jack: Straight from the Gut’ or outside the US titled ‘Jack: What I’ve Learned Leading a Great Company’. In 2005 he added ‘Winning: The Ultimate Business How-To Book’ (2005), which he describes as “a book for the people in business who sweat, get their nails dirty, hire, fire, make hard decisions, and pay the price when those decisions are wrong” (Thinkers 50). Welch ranks 33 in Accenture's Top 50 Business Intellectuals.
3.6 Summary

‘Every day there is a new question’

The introduction commences with the author explaining that the book was created as an answer to questions from employees in General Electric who loved business so much as to ask him every possible question. He describes how touched he was upon hearing people’s stories and emotional attachments to General Electric across the globe. Welch describes how, on his book tour in 2001/2002, he is approached and asked for in-depth descriptions of how a company should ‘win’. From people making calls to the radio station pressing him to explain ‘GE’s system of differentiation’ to being stopped when he visits University of Chicago Business School or being stopped by a young man surfing at Miami beach who asked about the franchise business he wanted to start. The questions were mainly posed during his Q&A tours around the world where he dealt with questions as diverse as economic trends, currency fluctuations, juggling family and work, implementing Six Sigma, or hiring the right team. But they all were reduced to the bottom line; what does it take to win? He then describes how ‘winning’ companies hold happy and secure people and that they can go on to truly ‘give back to society’.

Welch proposes that winning is not only good but simply great. It produces jobs and people pay taxes to the government thus enabling it to provide health care, police, defence, etc. By contrast, when companies lose, people are jobless, rarely pay the taxes, and feel frightened for their future. He claims that ‘winning companies and the people who work for them’ are pillars of a healthy economy and the foundation of a free and democratic society. Emphasis is placed however, upon winning ‘cleanly’ and abiding by the ‘rules’. Companies and people that are honest, he claims, must find a way to win. Moreover, the author states that this book offers a roadmap and is intended not only for CEOs, but also for business owners, college graduates looking for a job, middle managers, in fact for all who are ambitious and passionate enough about their goals.

Next, Welch introduces the reader to the characters that emerge in his book by proffering their names and describing their roles in the respective company. To illustrate, he speaks of a CEO who introduces concepts such as quality, respect, customer service but does not know how to explain them, then a middle manager who knows his co-workers could do more if they stopped patting themselves on the back, next an employee who is clueless but very nice and you cannot fire her, or the engineer who spent fifteen years juggling career and life to keep everybody happy except herself.
Also, he adds that there are stories of tremendous innovation and insight. He introduces David Novak, energetic, young CEO of Yum! brands who has turned the 33,000 chain restaurants into outlet for ideas and learning, Susan Peters, working mother of two, who could write a book on work-life balance, Kenneth Yu, head of 3M Chinese corporation who catapulted his business from modest to high growth, and Mark Little, who after having been demoted in GE fought his way back with courage and perseverance and hard work.

The author recognizes that some readers might find winning a complex thing and states that at times it is brutally hard but he asserts that it is achievable. The author then states that the book does not offer easy formulas but does provide guidelines, assumptions to adopt and mistakes to avoid. Finally, he emphasizes the themes that will be recurring in the book such as finding the best players since they make a winning team, sharing learning, having a positive attitude and never letting yourself be a victim. Finally, he states: business is a game and winning that game is a blast! Having fun in the process is his advice.

In conclusion, Welch sets out each section explaining the content. The first 'Underneath it All' is described as 'conceptual' and as containing management philosophy including four main principles in his approach. These principles consist of the importance of strong mission and values, the necessity of candour in every aspect of management, power of differentiation and the ‘value of each individual receiving voice and dignity’. The following sections are "Your Company", "Your Competition" and then "Your Career" which all focus on professional strategies. The last section is named "Tying up Loose Ends" which addresses questions that didn't fall into the previous categories where he handles questions as diverse as the China threat, the Sarbanes-Oxley act, the response of business to AIDS, the great work of his successor Immelt and finally on a humoristic note, whether he will go to heaven. The introduction ends with Welch claiming that the book has many answers but not the answers to everything, for business is constantly changing. He makes the point that even he learns something new every day and learned as much about the company General Electric after working for them as he did while working there.
Rhetorical Analysis

3.6.1 Ethos

The selection below illustrates some of the praises for the author and his work

i. “Manager of the Century”
   FORTUNE

ii. “No other management book will be ever needed”
   Warren Buffet

iii. “Jack Welch lays out a readable, detailed, step-by-step plan that anyone can use to become a true winner...Welch describes how Americans can succeed both in their careers and in their personal lives”
   Rudy Guliani, former Mayor of New York City

The selected praises above extended to Welch hyperbolically present Welch as the manager of the century and HIS book as the ultimate book on management. Moreover, the praise from the prominent mayor of New York who gained international attention for his leadership, during and after the September 11, 2001 attacks on the World Trade Center inevitably makes an impression. In 2001, Time magazine named Guliani "Person of the Year" and he received an honorary knighthood from Queen Elizabeth II in 2002. Therefore, receiving praise from such sources has a powerful effect on how the credibility of the author is perceived.

Phronesis

i. “At the visit of the University of Chicago, an MBA from India asked me to explain more fully what a really good performance appraisal should look like...” (p.2)

ii. “The questions didn’t stop after the book tour. They continued-in airports, restaurants and elevators. Once a guy swam over to me in a surf off Miami Beach to ask me what I though about a certain franchise opportunity he was considering. But mainly they’ve come at the 150 Q&A sessions I have participated in over the past three years in cities around the world, from New York to Shangai, from Milan to Mexico City. In these sessions which have ranged from

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thirty to five thousand audience members I sit on a stage with a moderator and I try to answer anything the audience wants to throw at me…” (p.2)

iii. “There have been questions about juggling the colliding demands of kids, career and all that other stuff you want to do like play golf, renovate your house, or raise money in a walkathon.. There have been questions about macroeconomic trends, emerging industry and currency fluctuations…” (page 3)

In short, it is understood from the first statement that the author has been holding sessions at the University of Chicago and students in business regard him as an authority who can speak on a variety of topics in management and economics. The last two excerpts demonstrate that his sessions are held all over the world and he answers questions as diverse as economic trend and work-life balance which serves to demonstrate his apparently extraordinary and wide-ranging expertise.

**Arete**

i. “Now, it goes without saying that you have to win the right way – cleanly and by the rules. That’s a given. Companies and people that compete unfairly don’t deserve to win.” (p.5)

By asserting that winning must be done cleanly the author places ethical competition at the foreground. Doing so, he emerges as an ethical manager who values fair play and fair business practices. An additional remark to the appeal to his moral character includes a statement placed on the first page stating that the author’s profits from the book are being donated to charity. Such a noble cause ought to defy any indifference towards the character of the author.

**Euonia**

i. “It is not a roadmap only for senior level managers and CEOs. But this book is also very much for people on the front lines: business owners, middle managers, people running factories, line workers, college graduates looking at their first jobs, MBAs considering new careers and entrepreneurs. My main goal with this book is to help the people with ambition in their eyes and passion running through their veins wherever they are in an organization.” (p.5)
ii. I learned from every single question asked of me. 'And I hope my responses will help you learn too' again reaffirm his desire to help others. (p.9)

Firstly, the author explicitly states that his main aim is to help people, in particular those who care enough to succeed. Moreover, claiming that he learns everyday and that hopefully someone will learn from his lessons he appears as the modest teacher who never claims the authority of knowledge to himself. Thus, he constructs himself as a helper heralding good intentions towards his readers.

3.6.2 Pathos
Pathos is invoked in brief illustrations of characters he met during his career. The excerpts attempt to illustrate the sort of emotions he touches upon.

i. "From coast to coast and in many countries around the world, people told me touching stories about the experiences working for the company or what happened when their sister, dad, aunt or grandfather did." (p.2)

ii. "Winning in business is great because when companies win people thrive and grow... People feel upbeat about the future; they have the resources to send their kids to college, get better healthcare, buy vacation homes, and secure a comfortable retirement... winning lifts anyone it touches...” (p.3)

iii. "When companies are losing everyone gets a hit. People feel scared, all they do is worry and upset their families." (p.4)

iv. "There's Jimmy Dunne who rebuilt his company out of the ashes of the World Trade Centre using love, hope and an attitude that everything is possible. There's Mark Little, who was devastated after a demotion at GE but fought his way back to a huge promotion with courage, perseverance, and great results.” (p.6)

v. "And for goodness sakes- have fun! Yes, have fun, business is a game and winning it is a total blast!” (page 7)

In short, in the first excerpt the author describes the stories linked to GE as touching and deeply ingrained in people's lives. Next, associating winning as a solution to some of the
essential problems in people's lives he gives winning a very positive connotation, an essential tool that enables healthy lives, education and retirement schemes. By stating that it lifts everyone it touches winning appears as an overwhelming emotional state of exhilaration. By contrast, losing is associated with fear, ‘people are scared’, families become dysfunctional and it affects the quality of life. Furthermore, when presenting his characters in the book he recalls a devastating scene after the September 11 attacks which may harness strong emotions in itself and invokes love, hope and an approach that everything is possible. Next, he presents a character that was courageous and persevered in order to win back his position in GE. That may invoke deep feelings of sympathy for individuals who put their emotions and passions into goals and achieved them. Lastly, he playfully asserts that winning is fun and ‘a blast’.

3.6.3 Logos
Consider the argumentative flow of the following excerpt:

i. “Winning in business is great because when companies win people thrive and grow. There are more jobs and opportunities everywhere and for everyone and winning affords them the opportunity to give back to society in hugely important ways beyond just paying more taxes. When companies are losing, they're out of work and pay little, if any, taxes. Let’s talk about taxes for a minute, in fact let’s talk about government. Obviously government is a vital part of society. But government provides much more: the justice system, education, police and fire protection, highways and ports, welfare and hospitals. But even with the virtue of government, it is critical to remember that all of its services come from some form of tax revenue. Government makes no money on its own. And in that way government is the engine of the economy; it is not the engine itself. Winning companies and the people who work for them are the engine of a healthy economy and in providing the revenues for government, they are the foundation of a free and democratic society. That’s why winning is great.” (p.3-4)

The excerpt above is the most obvious instance of appealing to the reason. The logic of this argument is very interesting in that the author claims that winning is essentially the driver of a free and democratic society which in its turn provides a happier life for its citizens whereas losing is detrimental.
3.6.4 Review

In brief, the examples illustrate that the author uses appeals to his character, presents the gist of his argument that winning in business is the foundation of a free democratic society and attempts to link business with emotional experiences. In particular, his moral character is explicitly shown in that he advocates fair play and advises playing by the book. Moreover, he presents the characters of his story with great compassion and sympathy. Finally, he establishes an association between winning and feeling happy and losing and feeling scared. Such emotional associations attached to winning give it advantage since it is highly unlikely that someone would like to feel afraid. At the end, the dichotomy winning-losing is explicitly treated in the text.
CHAPTER 5  CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter provides a general discussion on ethos, pathos and logos in connection to the performed analysis. Moreover, it identifies some other patterns that are explored in the second and the third section respectively. The second section deals with binary and analog models, ambiguity tolerance and search inference capacities and the final section elaborates on a more visceral state and that is the freedom of choice. Finally, a review is provided of the entire study, its aims and conclusions as well as some recommendations for further research.

1 ETHOS, PATHOS, LOGOS REVISITED

This section summarizes the main features identified in the Introductions revolving around the three means of persuasion. Used invariably in all the analyzed artifacts in various degree and intensity they serve to shape the receptiveness of the conveyed message. In particular, this section will dwell more thoroughly on the strength of ethos or the appeal to the character and its effects, the possible effects of appeal to the pathos or the emotions and finally, how logos or the appeal to reason is intertwined in a complex manner with ethos and pathos and in particular, how the relationship between logos and pathos may be problematized. Note that between the discussion on pathos and logos the effect of presence will be briefly reflected on in order to demonstrate its significance. Finally, the section ends with a finding on the dichotomous structure emerging from the analyzed units.

1.1 ETHOS

Bearing in mind the qualification of the appeal to ethos as understood by Aristotle, and discussed in Chapter 2 it is noteworthy to reiterate that the appeal to the character subsumes three particular appeals namely, phronesis or claims to practical wisdom,
knowledge or expertise, arête, the claim to moral virtues and finally euonia, or revealing the
good-intentions towards the audience. Moreover, it may be argued that the authority and
credibility gurus construct for themselves through this particular appeal may be a very
strong element in terms of message receptiveness. To illustrate the above, an eclectic
selection below from various authors may bring to memory the variety of forms through
which ethos is exercised.

For instance, the analysis demonstrated that ethos and phronesis, in particular is
usually constructed by several means. First, by explicitly stating the level of one's expertise:

i. "In more than 25 years of working with people in business, university and marriage and
family settings...”
   (Covey)

   "I am an expert on leadership, innovation and change. I have devoted my career to
understanding cycles of advantage and disadvantage"20
   (Kanter)

Next, associative links are produced by mentioning some sort of involvement with
institutionalized authorities such as Universities, (Harvard, Stanford), or simply
introducing them to the discussion despite their relevance to the argument.

   "The Mission of Harvard Business School where I work is to educate leaders who make a
difference in the world...” (preface)
   (Kanter)

   "One of us was teaching at IMEDE, a business school in Lausanne...”
   (Peters and Waterman)

Further, an affiliation with elite social circles serves to enhance credibility as well. Consider
the already analyzed examples below.

   "In 1959 or 1960, an old friend, Thomas D. Morris (then Assistant Director of the Budget and,
since 1961, a highly effective Assistant Secretary of Defence) invited me to talk on effectiveness
to a group of senior administrators in the Federal Government.”
"I get to spend time with people in the highest circles of business and government and advise them (For example, I was one of a handful of American experts invited to the Economic Summits of both President Clinton in Little Rock, Arkansas, in 1992 and President Bush in Waco, Texas, in 2002.

(Aron, R.)

Areté is produced explicitly in Covey and implicitly in Welch whereas the mechanical separation with euonia is to no avail since a moral character may be assumed to have good intentions.

i. "I was suddenly able to see the powerful impact of the Personality ethic and to clearly understand those subtle, often consciously unidentified discrepancies between what I knew to be true-some things I had been taught many years ago as a child and things that were deep in my inner sense of value - and the quick fix philosophies that surrounded me every day.

(Covey, S.)

i. "Now, it goes without saying that you have to win the right way - cleanly and by the rules. That's a given. Companies and people that compete unfairly don't deserve to win"(5)

(Welch J.)

Finally, euonia expresses the author's preparedness to help 'people' with the advice offered. To recall euonia, consider the illustrations below.

"I wanted to give more people the tools and the confidence to avoid the destructive patterns of losing streaks and get onto winning path.s."

(Kanter, R)

"My main goal with this book is to help the people with ambition in their eyes and passion running through their veins wherever they are in an organization."(5)

(Welch J.)

In brief, the above strategies for credibility building may serve to strengthen the argumentative layer in the text where given the established authority, arguments may not
easily lend themselves to objections and rejections. The phenomenon of the appeal to ethos as a technique has been largely explored by Brinton and defined as ‘ethotic argument’. ‘Ethotic argument is the kind of argument or technique of argument in which ethos is invoked, attended to, or represented in such a way as to lend credibility to or detract credibility from conclusions which are being drawn (Tindale, 2004:79). In a similar vein, there is a ‘very general sense of appeal to ethos that involves calling on the good character to support a conclusion’. Ethotic appeals for that matter may rarely suffice to establish a conclusion, but they may serve as a type of reason to draw the particular conclusion (Tindale, 2004:87).

Further, the second appeal in the triad or the appeal to pathos, is elaborated in the following section. In particular, it handles more explicitly some of the findings in the analysis and attempts to elucidate them.

1.2 PATHOS

As already discussed, Aristotle argued that emotions put the audience in a certain frame of mind and thus act as means of persuasion. Despite the ubiquity of emotional appeals within the artifacts, a definitive assessment as to the effects of emotions and how they are perceived by readers would be a highly ungrateful and futile endeavour. Firstly, little agreement exists as to the classification of emotions with each typology embracing particular aspects of the landscape. Even the fundamental distinction between basic and non-basic has been recognized as problematic (Elster, 1999) and additionally, despite some emotional commonalities across cultures the reception and interpretation of emotion by different individuals may vary and may be culturally shaped (Oatley and Jenkins, 1996). Therefore, this section will aim at qualifying the presence of emotion in a text and the means through which it emerges.

In that respect, some widely accepted findings and debates in this research area warrant some attention in this study.

Namely, research has demonstrated that any emotionally salient material would be remembered better both in real life and in laboratory experiments than a neutral one (Oatley and Jenkins, 1996:274). It may be argued, therefore, that creating emotional associations would tend to affect the perception of the argument, or the extent to which it is remembered, at the least. In that regard, it may be stated that (Evans and Cruse, 2004:260) ‘emotions and emotionally held perceptual judgements are more intransigent than are their
non-emotional counterparts and thus there is a tendency to preserve emotionally held idée fixes at the cost of unemotional thoughts’. Moreover, ‘emotions can undergo alchemy, transmutation, be changed into a different emotion or another psychological state, but they can resonate in one’s mental economy long after they might seem over ‘(Evans and Cruse, 2004:261).

Furthermore, the means to convey emotionally salient material is mainly, but not restricted to narrative or the use of snippets of stories for that matter. For the purposes of brevity, stories will not be reproduced again but a reference will be made to each example. Therefore, consider for instance how Covey skilfully uses the stories in his text imbuing them with vivid details and dramatic twist (see p.50,51). Moreover, the stories in Kanter and Peters are rich and dynamic in content (see p. 81). Despite the lack of stories in Hamel, the text is vibrating with emotions such as fear, empowerment and the like (see p. 62, 63, 64).

Undoubtedly, narrative allows for ethos and logos to emerge in a complex manner as well, for behind each story there is a character, morale, and a conclusion to be drawn. Respectively, White (Mitchell, 1980) would aptly remark: ‘Could we ever narrativize without moralizing?’. Hence the enfolding discussion will attend to a more close examination of the power of narratives. However, prior to embarking on such discussion it must be noted that narrative is part of what is termed as ‘vivid information’. Therefore, a brief overview will be cast on the meaning of vividness and shortly thereafter the power of narrative will be explored.

1.2.1 The effect of vividness

To reiterate, stories are deemed part of what is recognized as ‘vivid information’. In particular, vivid information ‘takes the form of concrete and imagistic language, personal narratives, pictures or first hand experience’ (Hill and Helmers, 2004:31). A miscellaneous selection of examples of the aforesaid may be identified in almost all of the artifacts in varying proportions. Consider the excerpts below:

i. “Somewhere there is a bullet with your company’s name on it. ..You can’t dodge the bullet, you will have to shoot first”
   (Hamel G.)
ii. “I remember violating this principle myself as a father many years ago. One day I returned home to my little girl’s third-year birthday party to find her in the corner of the front room, defiantly clutching all of her presents, unwilling to let the other children play with them....”  
(Covey S.)

iii. “one of us went through an IBM sales training programme early in his career; we sang songs every morning and got just as enthusiastic (well, almost as enthusiastic) as the workers in a Japanese company.”
(Peters T. and Waterman R.)

Hill and Helmers (2004) claim that vivid information is more persuasive than non-vivid. Certainly, there are studies that found no persuasive ‘advantage of vividness’ but in general, the ‘more sophisticated research designs tend to support the notion that vividness enhances persuasiveness’ (Hill and Helmers, 2004:32). Images for that matter prompt visceral emotional response but rhetorical presence does not necessarily imply the use of actual images, it can also mean mental image created by concrete, descriptive words (Hill and Helmers, 2004). The more specific the terms the sharper the image they produce (Hill and Helmers, 2004:30). Interestingly, neurological studies have shown that reading a narrative or descriptive text activates the same part of the brain used for processing visual images (Hill and Helmers, 2004:30). Given the above, it may me proposed that the correlation between vividness, emotional response and persuasion’ (Hill and Helmers, 2004) may account for a fragment of the persuasive appeal.

Furthermore, it has been elaborated above how emotional salience is correlative with persuasiveness. In a similar vein, apart from emotional salience and vividness, stories employed by gurus in this study have shown to contain dynamics, movement and action. Recall some of the dynamics in Peters, Kanter or Covey. Moreover, dynamics of narration is also present in Hamel’s style.

In reference to the above, Arthur Glenberg, psychologist at the University of Wisconsin-Madison, has developed the embodiment theory of memory which interestingly claims that human memory is designed to remember action, not the abstract (Howard, 2006). Accordingly, the analyzed material in this study indicates that abstract, rich but ambiguous concepts such as excellence, confidence, principles and paradigms, effectiveness, or success tend to be illustrated by concrete examples, illustrations and mainly stories.
Hence, a careful balance between abstract concepts and concrete examples, use of vivid information and imagistic language may tentatively produce a more receptive or persuasive text. Finally, being a constituent element of vivid information, the next section will aim to succinctly address the power of narrative.

1.2.2 The power of narrative

Recent studies have shown that people reason differently in the presence of narrative (Hart and Daughton, 2005:88). Respectively, Kirkwood (Hart and Daughton, 2005:92) claims that narrative comforts and relaxes us. More importantly, however, there are some general traits of narrative that reflect its strength and effect. Firstly, narratives tempt the reader or listener with closure. Next, they usually contain a period of suspense which holds the attention span in focus. Moreover, they are rich in characters and detailed and lastly, they are archetypal, for no culture exists without narrative (Hart and Daughton, 2005).

Furthermore, as already stated, narratives hide a propositional content that argues in a very subtle manner, by means of not readily discernible argumentative webs (Hart and Daughton, 2005). In that respect, authors tend to utilize a story, ‘an anecdote here, an abbreviated fable there, always moving’ the readers to a conclusion. (Hart and Daughton, 88:2005).

The recognition of the connection between action and narrative has been part of the Western tradition at least since Aristotle. In the Poetics, Aristotle identified narrative as imitation mimesis of human action. In his words a thing is a whole if it has a beginning, a middle and an end. Narrative is concerned with creating a dramatic unity not merely recording events over a period of time (Polkinghorne, 1988).

Finally, White in Mitchell (1980) asserts that ‘to raise the question of narrative is to invite reflection on the very nature of humanity itself’. He reflects on the power of narrative and states: ‘I have sought to suggest that this value attached to narrativity in the representation of real events arises out of a desire to have real events display the coherence, integrity, fullness and closure of an image of life that is and can only be imaginary. But does the world really present itself to perception in the form of well made stories, with central subjects, proper beginnings, middles and ends and a coherence that permits us to see “the end” in every beginning? Or does it present itself more ...as a sequences of beginnings that only terminate and never conclude?’ (White in Mitchell, 1980:23). Accordingly, narrative is a
form of meaning making, of one's own actions, the actions of others, and chance natural
happenings that will appear as meaningful contributions towards the fulfillment of a
personal or social aim. The narrative scheme serves as a lens through which the apparently
independent and disconnected elements of existence are seen as related parts of a whole
(Polkinghorne, 1988:36).

1.2.3 THE EFFECT OF PRESENCE

Closely related to the above discussion of salience and memorability and preceding the
discussion on logos is the manner in which a case is presented. As already illustrated, the
above sections attempted to demonstrate possible effect of ethos and pathos. However, on a
different note, it may be argued that by selecting certain elements the authors place an
object or concept as foremost in the consciousness of the audience members. (Hill and
Helmers, 2004:29). In that respect, Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca remark that 'by the very
fact of selecting certain elements and presenting them to the audience their importance and
pertinency to the discussion are implied'. Indeed, such a choice endows these elements with
a presence.' (Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca,1969:116).

The above refers to such psychological mechanisms employed in expression when
particular elements are given 'enough presence and they may crowd out other
considerations from the viewer's mind, based on pieces of vivid evidence. 'The audience thus
might disregard the relevance and importance of evidence or about other arguments that
should be brought into the equation' (Hill and Helmers, 2004:29). Upon closer scrutiny, it
may be determined that all six authors dedicate the Introductions largely to arguments that
support their case. Namely, a balanced argumentative approach does not emerge from their
discussions. Illustrations, stories, and explicit argumentative sections outweigh any balance
of argumentation and the text is saturated with arguments favouring the object of the case
where the opposing side of the dichotomy created is presented in all its shortcomings with
very few, if none, remarks on the advantages. Finally, the examination of the appeals to the
reason draw a close on the triad. Thus, the discussion resumes with a reflection on logos as
identified in the artifacts.
1.3 LOGOS

Logos or the appeal to reason as already discussed in Chapter 2 is a highly complex notion inherited from classical rhetoric. In that respect, in the juxtaposition of logic and rhetoric it has been argued that the purpose of the two poses great concerns. Rhetoric aims at effectiveness rather than truth and completeness (Tindale, 2004:13) which means that if there is an objection to the argument of which the arguer is cognizant he or she is not obligated to deal with it as the argument is effective without it. Therefore, rhetoric has ‘no dialectical tier’ (Tindale, 2004). On the other hand, the logic perspective requires the arguer to deal with the validity and soundness of arguments. In this context, the analysis revealed some instances of the use of logos but it did not dwell on the value of arguments from a logical standpoint. Although some conspicuous inconsistencies were discovered in the argumentation it was not the object of this study to fully qualify their validity. In that respect, Hart (2005) argued that to understand the ‘logic of persuasion’ is to understand a new kind of logic. The author claims that this logic of persuasion is ethos driven, saliency driven as needs and experience guide human decision making not abstract truths. More importantly, it is a logic of association, where ordinary arguments trade on logically weak but psychologically attractive standards of plausibility, and biases (Hart, 2005). Having in consideration the complexity of logos the analysis solely identified and attempted to extract the gist of the argumentative instances below each section dealing with logos.

1.4 THE LINK ETHOS LOGOS PATHOS

Finally, separating logos, ethos and pathos mechanically would be to convert the richness, variety and unpredictability in which these three put a case in motion, combine and achieve their effect, into a mere platitude. In its turn, it would be robbing the reader of the breadth and depth of the experience while reading a text.

However, to engage in a brief overview of the link between logos and pathos is to reflect on an engaging and topical discussion of emotion versus reason, or for that matter, the problematization of the dichotomy in the contemporary research in respective fields especially pertaining to decision making. Although the object of this study is not to examine whether beliefs and statements advocated by gurus actually result in specific actions it is still worthwhile to review briefly the current debates concerning emotion, reason and decision-making.
Firstly, the task of the rhetorical messages is to move the audience to act, (Clark, 1957) and Aristotle would claim that the final aims is to move the audience to a judgment (Rhetoric II). Accordingly, all three means of persuasion are devised to produce that effect but emotion and reason produce many engaging debates in current research as to whether emotions are inimical or favourable to the ‘rational’ decision making capacities.

At the outset, philosophers and psychologist have traditionally drawn a sharp distinction between emotion and cognition. Moreover, theory had largely dealt with the issue under the assumption of ‘irreducible oppositions between thought and feeling, mind and body, rationality and irrationality…and so forth’ (White, 2000). However, the distinction is problematic since it is descriptive and not explanatory; it fails to specify the processes underlying both and presumes they are different mental processes. (Vohs et al. 2007:136). In that perspective, research has both viewed emotions as a subset of the cognitive system (Vohs et al.,2007:133), and in some instances as heuristics that truly aids decision making. On the opposing front, emotions have been regarded as detrimental to the decisions process (Vohs et al.,2007) Researchers that take the middle ground argue that emotions can both hinder and improve decision making (Vohs et al., 2007:12). In short, researchers have yet to reach a consensus as to whether emotions facilitate or hinder decision making (Vohs et al.,2007:11).

From such an angle, the notion of logos and pathos may well be problematized for any arbitrary demarcation between a ‘purely rational argument’ and a ‘pure appeal to emotions’ may end as a Sisyphus task. For an illustration consider how Covey subtly argues against the Personality Ethic through the story of his son which is emotionally salient as well.

In summary, the review of ethos, pathos and logos was complemented with some findings from current research in an attempt to understand the persuasion routes embedded in the three proofs. Finally, the notion of ‘irreducible dichotomies’ raised in this section aims to introduce the last parameter of the matrix identified within the selected artifacts, namely, the bimodal structures proposed by the authors or the logic of dichotomization that pervades the artifacts.
2 LOGIC OF DICHOTOMIZATION or DUALISM

This section will attempt to elaborate on several other facets to the messages that may tentatively contribute to their persuasiveness. At this point, the analysis will go beyond or better put, below the obvious means of persuasion already identified and delve into dichotomization and its intricate and not readily discernible effect.

Firstly, it is apparent that the advice extended by management gurus within the scope of this study is invariably reduced to success or failure. Winning and losing are sharply emphasized and the authors’ self-professed mission is to provide guidance on the path to success and winning. In the context of the introductions analyzed consider the following excerpts in order to grasp the explicit reference to success and winning and abhorrence of losing. Kanter, Covey, Welch make explicit use of the dichotomy whereas Drucker Hamel, and Peters implicitly bring it to the fore when suggesting that revolution, excellence and effectiveness respectively lead to success.

“Winning creates a positive aura around everything...losing has a repellant effect”
(Kanter R.)

“We felt that if “success” were important in any area of life, it was supremely important in our roles as parents”
(Covey, S.)

“Winning in business is great because when companies win people thrive and grow... “When companies are losing everyone gets a hit. People feel scared”
(Welch J.)

“Some men recruited ...made an apparently easy success...others were frustrated failures. Why this should happen no one could explain”
(Drucker P.)

“Ralph Waldo Emerson put it perfectly when he said, “There are always two parties—the party of the past and the party of the future, the establishment and the movement.”
Which side are you on?
(Hamel G.)
“Worse, our tools force us into a rational bent that views askance the very sources of innovation in the excellent companies: irrational product champions at 3M... But few rationalists seem to buy it even today. They don’t like overlap; they do like tidiness. They don’t like mistakes; they do like meticulous planning... meanwhile. 3M is ten product introductions and months ahead.”

(Peters and Waterman)

Such dichotomy pervades the texts but to understand how such binary models persist, it may be noteworthy to cast a brief overview of the essence of dichotomies, or dualism in thought.

Dualism represents an ancient pattern of perception and thought. Dictionaries of ancient symbols (e.g., Herder Dictionary, 1993) note that “numerous phenomena support a dualistic view of the world, such as the opposites of creator and created, light and shadow” The dialectic is an ancient, higher-order process that informs the progressive development of individuals, groups, organizations, and civilizations. Polarization is essential—provided that we do not stop there (Denfeld and Petriglieri, 2005:206).

Moreover, Wilson (1980) as quoted in Burton (1996) has suggested that Western thought is characterized by the use of irreducible oppositions, such as those identifying masculinity and femininity, the expressive and the instrumental, the public and the private, the rational and the emotional, democracy and dictatorship, capitalism and socialism, and the natural and the man-made. Moreover, he asserts that the dichotomizing process is not, illegitimate but difficulties, he observes, occur not because dichotomies are developed as analytical tools for problem identification and investigation, but because ‘researchers and policymakers so often treat them not as intellectual constructs but as naturally occurring phenomena. What are merely foundations for scientific investigation have so often become immutable social truths’ (1996:19).

Furthermore, to return to the analysed artifacts, it may be noted that the authors effortlessly build their case upon this binary structure. On those grounds, each author argues that a particular trait or winning per se is conducive to success, happiness and a fulfilling life. Demonstrably, Kanter argues that it is only confidence that makes the difference between winning and losing, Drucker is determined that effectiveness yields successful results, Peters proposes that excellence is the distinguishing trait of success, Covey, furthermore, is certain that only the character ethic offers enduring happiness and
success, then Hamel forcefully advocates for revolutions and activism as saviours from failure and for Welch, it is winning in itself, that produces the ultimate good for democratic society. Therefore, from this binary model emerges a single albeit ambiguous attribute that guarantees success.

To illustrate:

“In that sense, confidence lies at the heart of our civilization. Everything...depends on it.
(Kanter)

“Upon effective executive depends our survival...
(Drucker)

On this note, the notions of binary models, ambiguity and some consequences for problem solutions capacity will be further elaborated in the second section of this chapter.

3 BINARY MODELS, ANALOG WORLDS, AMBIGUITY TOLERANCE and SEARCH-INFERENCE REGULATORS

Having in mind the discussion in the previous section, the logic of dichotomization or bimodal representations may be further developed so as to grasp the complex effects it entails. However, attention must be drawn to the fact that no attempts are made in the study and in particular the conclusions to assess the real effects of the message on the part of the readers and to generalize the findings. Rather, the study finds it more comfortable to view the audience or readership as ‘constructed in a certain manner’ by the rhetor.

To begin with, when the authors pose the bimodal representation of the world discussed in section I of the Conclusions, they are invariably reduced to success or failure. “The latter ‘is a reflection of the digital metaphor, on or off, one or zero, nothing in between” (Wilder, 1998:243). However, ‘the world as we experience it, is a very analog place’ (Wilder, 1998:242) and the validity of binary structures may be problematized. On count of analog and binary, Wilder reflects that the analog(binary) debate has spurred personal, practical and philosophical questions embracing a variety of disciplines from ‘economics, to aesthetics to epistemology’ (Wilder, 1998:241). An analogy from modern physics, understood in laymen
terms, as presented by Von Neumann during the Macy Gray Conference states: “...One must say that in almost all parts of physics the underlying reality is analogical...The digital procedure is usually a human artifact for the sake of description’ (Wilder,1998:244). The interdependent webs of matter rather than isolated units in quantum physics elaborated by Capra (1975) may serve as an additional analogy to this notion.

On the other hand, it was argued that digital and analogic metaphors are ‘complementary forms of representation which acquire meaning only in mutual relation’. (Wilder, 1998:244). Yet again, in the ‘Pragmatics of Human Communication’, Watzlawick, Beavin and Jackson expand upon this notion by problematizing the dichotomy in social relationships. Digital stood for verbal and analog for non-verbal communication. Moreover, ‘digital’ language, they explain, has a highly complex and powerful logical syntax but lacks adequate semantics in the field of relationship, while analogic language possesses the semantics but has no adequate syntax for the unambiguous definition of the nature of relationships. Both taken together create a more complete message (Wilder, 1998:248). The analog evokes something closer to sensation, authenticity, and wholeness. Its Greek roots, ana (equivalent) and logos (structure of reality) refers to a correspondence, a resemblance it is closer to the physical world, corporeal, tactile...digital is more expansive and less visceral (Wilder, 1998:248).

They furthermore claim there is an inherent deficiency when attempting to translate between analogic and digital modes. The loss of information in the process is great (Wilder, 1998:248). Moreover, when creating such models an ‘abstraction takes place that detaches the model further from reality’ (Capra, 1975).

In an attempt to situate the discussion within the above framework, it may be noted that the two states: success or failure, and the respective traits that are conducive to success may in fact be said to represent a binary construction of an analog world. The complex and frequently unpredictable semantics of the analog experiential state is translated into the binary clear-cut models. The latter may be better understood when examining the issue of ambiguity below.

When considering the arguments on the other side, however, some thought provoking notions surface. Primarily, Wilder argues that ‘there is something in the human mind that seems to make sense of things by finding polar oppositions’ (Wilder, 1998:239). Accordingly, in his ‘Rhetoric’, Aristotle remarks savvily that contraries are easily understood (III, ix 7-9).
Therefore, the simplified binary models of reality presented by authors, despite their representational deficiencies may be argued to construct a more manageable reality and provide a sense of control. To illustrate the latter, Bandura and Wood (Endres et al., 2009:33) led experiment participants to believe that organizations are either difficult to control or easy to control, and then asked them to perform a computer simulation. The authors found that participants in the ‘easy to control’ group reported higher self-efficacy and better performance than participants in the ‘difficult to control’ group.

Moreover, the sense of control is enhanced with the underlying notion in the artifacts that everything can be learned and acquired, be it a skill, a principle, or a character trait. Take for instance the following assertions:

“Effectiveness can and must be learned.”
(Drucker P.)

“Many of the principles embodied in the 7 habits are already deep within us...to recognize and develop them...we need to think differently”
(Covey S.)

“Winning is achievable”
(Welch J.)

To corroborate the latter, the research from Bandura and Wood (1989b) as reviewed by Endres et al. (2009) also found that perceptions about the task and environment affects self-efficacy perceptions. In that regard, participants were led to believe that ability to perform a complex task was based either on acquired skill or on inherent ability. Participants in the ‘acquired skill’ group performed better, set higher personal goals, and used more effective analytic strategies than participants in the ‘inherent ability’ group. Perceived controllability over performance affected self efficacy and, therefore, performance. Respectively, Nettle in Evans and Cruse (2004) considers the illusions of control and concludes that the stronger the illusion, the greater the immunity to negative effects such as discouragement, depression, and negative mood after failure. He additionally argues that ‘people generally
find controlling the flow of events in their environment preferable to not doing so and concludes that illusions are somehow a beneficial element of a healthy mind.

On balance, it may be inferred that as much as the simplified binary models are being criticized as elaborated in Chapter 1, they may produce some sort of beneficial effects related to performance abilities.

Adding to the above stated, the term analog and the subsequent simplification of experiential states may also be explored under the notion of ambiguity tolerance. In that respect, it may be argued that the authors are in fact attempting to offer non-ambiguous representations of the world.

However, to understand the notion ambiguity tolerance within this framework, it is noteworthy to consider two issues. Firstly, the current debate in research about ambiguity tolerance and secondly, the author’s use of ambiguous concepts and their subsequent de-ambiguization.

The term ambiguity is frequently used interchangeably with the term uncertainty. Individuals differ in how well they tolerate ambiguous situations (Budner 1962 qtd in Endres et al., 2009). Individuals with high ambiguity tolerance may seek out uncertain tasks, enjoy them, and persist despite initial failures.

Endres et al. (2009) review how individuals who have a high tolerance for ambiguity cope more effectively with major changes (Judge, Thoresen, Puck & Welbourne 1999), anxiety (Keenan 1978), stress, and conflict (Teoh & Foo 1997; Judge et al. 1999) and perceive they have more control over their environment (Budner, 1962). Furthermore, individuals who perceive higher control over their environments are better able to focus on salient features in decision making versus individuals who do not perceive they have control over their environments (Ortega & Weinstein, 1988).

By contrast, people with low ambiguity tolerance perceive uncertain tasks as threatening and negative, and give up more easily when they fail in these tasks (Budner, 1962).

Within this frame, the ambiguous essence of concepts used by the authors is striking. It may be recalled for instance that Drucker elaborated on effectiveness, Kanter advocated that confidence is an essential trait, Peters (and Waterman) examined excellence, furthermore, Covey analyzed the abstract principles of character ethic, such as integrity, honesty etc., Welch (Welch S) argued that winning per se is a desirable state of being and Hamel considered non-linear thinking and innovation as the decisive trait of success.
Having in mind the above stated concepts it may be proposed that it is impossible to generate a single ‘unambiguous’ meaning attached to any of them. Accordingly, they may be interpreted and understood in a variety of ways.

However, the authors attempt to strip this ambiguity by attaching the concept to a specified meaning expressed through stories or illustrations. For instance, when Kanter wishes to describe confidence she provides an example of Nelson Mandela. She attributes his actions to confidence thereby inducing an association between the abstract and ambiguous notion and the concrete example. Such tactics may at times be flawed since it may be argued that such states are a product of intricate interdependence amongst various phenomena and not only of an isolated trait. By analogy, Capra (1975) states that a particle can only be understood in its mutual activity and interdependence with the environment. In other words, it may be understood as an integrated part of the whole and never as an isolated entity (Capra, 1975:96).

In summary, it may be argued that authors construct the readership as one that would not tolerate ambiguity well and would perceive being in control and perform better if representations of problems are simplified, reduced to bimodal structures and non-ambiguous.

Lastly, since ‘persuasion is directed towards a judgment, for when a thing is known and judged, there is no longer any need of argument’ (Aristotle, II, xvi, 6-xviii) it may be proposed that the models authors use ought to be conducive to a decision. In that regard, a closely related discussion to the above stated will enfold in order to explore the theory of search inference framework and the effect of the already discussed models on decision making capacities.

Namely, under the inference search framework, thinking about actions and decisions consists of search and inference. Therefore, thinking is a method of finding and choosing among potential possibilities, that is, possible actions, beliefs, or personal goals. Poor thinking for that matter, (Baron, 2000:191) is characterized by too little search, overconfidence in hasty decisions and biases. By contrast, good thinking is the principle of ‘actively open minded thinking’ which considers new possibilities, new goals and evidence against seemingly strong arguments (Baron, 2000:192). In its turn, open minded thinking has been considered by some studies as pivotal to better problem solution skills (Baron, 2000:203). Paradoxically, Baron rightfully asserts that we “can use good methods and reach erroneous conclusions, or we can use poor methods and be lucky...and reach the desired
outcome (2000:55)”. Nevertheless, this study will assume that the open minded thinking is more likely to produce good problem solution skills and thus good outcomes.

Firstly, the bimodal structures as well as the de-ambiguization process discussed above, may produce a paradoxical effect in reference to problem solution skills. Firstly, it may be assumed that decisions are often made in uncertain circumstances. Such circumstances are laden with ambiguity and when the outcome is not clear the decision may be deferred or abandoned altogether (Baron, 2000). On the one hand, the authors alleviate the burden of having to make a choice or a decision amongst many ambiguous alternatives by giving exact, simplified guidelines that fall within zero and one structures. Thus, they minimize the risk of error and uncertainty. On the other hand, however, they inhibit the ‘actively open minded thinking’ which, as the theory states, would improve the individual’s problem solution skills.

Notwithstanding the apparent restriction ‘imposed’ by the authors it may be acknowledged that they simply tap into a ‘binary-friendly’ disposition of the particular readership, as constructed by them. In that respect, although gurus were criticized for imposing binary models, it may be that binary models are already embedded in thought and perceived more favourably over ambiguous models.

The above points to a tentative proposition that bimodal structures and non-ambiguity, although detrimental to the problem solution capacity, offer a more manageable universe and a sense of control, albeit an illusion for a moment, that the individual can construct life in recognizable, coherent structures and behave accordingly. Respectively, the anxiety caused by life’s incoherencies or ‘terminations without conclusions’ (White in Mitchell, 1980), rationalities that produce the wrong results (Baron, 2000) or erratic rather than linear experiences may be perceived as too distressing.

In conclusion, it may be tentatively argued that the content of the message within the units is important for the degree of persuasion along the triad of ethos, pathos and logos but the mental models discussed above through which the message is conveyed, is no less important. In brief, it may be proposed that gurus devise the messages based on a ‘construction of an audience’ that presumably prefers binary models despite their assumed deficiencies pertaining to decision making capacities and representational quality.

Following the above discussion, the last section provides some associations that may aid the persuasive appeal of the message.
4 FREEDOM of CHOICE

Upon discussing the possible routes to persuasion through the triad employed by authors and the tentative proposal that the audience is constructed as finding binary or dichotomous mental models more appealing than ambiguous ones and in particular, the possibility that authors alleviate the burden of searching, evaluating and erring in ambiguous circumstances, the discussion resumes by suggesting another, more visceral psychological state that may complement the 'power of persuasion' or for that matter aid the persuasive efforts imbued in a message.

Although not explicitly treated in the analytical section, it is conspicuous that authors provide guidelines, instructions and advice in general on how to achieve a state of success and happiness.

The notion to be addressed in this section may be qualified as a state of willingness to succumb to certain guides and directions that would guarantee the desired goals. Following guidelines may, however, be interpreted as an attempt to diminish individual responsibility for individual actions. However, as stated, attention must be drawn to the fact that no attempts are made in the study to assess the real effects of the message on the part of the readers but this section in particular perpectivizes this by proposing that authors 'construct' their audience as being in a quandary when faced with decisions and choices.

Hart and Daughton (2005) argued that certain people naturally resist making choices unless forced to do so. Decisions for that matter, require careful consideration of options and certainly imply responsibility on the part of the decision maker, pertaining primarily to the consequences that each choice entails. Moreover, the feeling of being exposed to myriad of alternatives and the probability of choosing the wrong path may certainly be distressing. To trace therefore the need to adhere to certain guides and instructions for solving personal or professional problems the discussion brings in Erich Fromm and his views on individual freedom in modernity and the consequences it entails.

Respectively, Fromm (1969) proposed that modern man/woman\footnote{‘woman’ is added by the authors of the thesis} although freed from traditional bonds and grown into an active and self-critical individual has never been more alone with a feeling of significance and powerlessness (1969:128). In such a state the
readiness to accept ‘ideologies’ or translated to this study, guidelines and directions, is because they “promise” order and meaning to one’s life (1969:128).

Fromm moreover argues that man/woman chooses to lose him or herself and succumbs to authoritative advice since he/she cannot bear to be alone. To digress, Dostoyevsky in his novel the ‘Brothers Karamazov’ asserts in a somber mode that man has no more pressing need than the one to find somebody to whom he can surrender as quickly as possible that gift of freedom which he, the unfortunate creature, is born with. The frightened individual seeks something or somebody to tie to, thus eliminating the burden of the self “(1969:173).

Within the framework of the above discussed notion, it may be argued that the solutions that the selected gurus offer in their best publications are in fact much needed orientations. Under such circumstances, and with an assumed inability to stand alone human beings needs a ‘magic helper’, an external force that would resolve his/her problems and show him/her the right path (Fromm, 1969:197). Fromm defines the notion of magic helper as frequently personified, or ‘conceived as God, as a principle, or as real persons such as parents, husbands, wives or superiors’ (1969:195). Moreover, the magic helper is endowed with magic qualities. The guru, therefore, constructs the audience as being in need for directions and frightened of choice and constructs him/herself as the ‘magic helper’ prepared to provide useful advice unreservedly. On a more pessimistic note, the guru thus provides an escape from and dilutes individual responsibility for one’s decisions both on the private and professional front.

In conclusion, beyond the persuasive techniques used, it is proposed in this section that the persuasiveness behind the messages is simply reinforced by the reluctance to embrace and handle the freedom of choice on the part of the audience, certainly as constructed by the rhetors.

At the end, the very last section of this study reviews briefly the purposes and the conclusions of the study with some suggestions for further research.
EPILOGUE

The study has reached its end and a review of its aim and scope may serve to again reflect on the initial research aim and the findings respectively.

Primarily, the study explored the Aristotelian rhetorical techniques of ethos, pathos and logos in written discourse, using rhetorical criticism and certain aspects of neo-Aristotelianism in particular, in the most popular publications of management gurus. In addition, hermeneutics was delimited to the cycle of pre-understanding and understanding.

The basic assumption that gurus utilize persuasion strategies in their publications to appeal to the reader was tested by means of applying the Aristotelian triad and it was subsequently possible to address the question of the extent to which the triad can be qualified and thus account for the persuasive salience of the artifact.

Firstly, it is the conclusion of the study that the triad may be identified in written discourse, thus proving the use of persuasive strategies and secondly, the qualification of the triad, as elaborated in the Conclusions may be possible to a certain extent only. To illustrate, appeals to pathos, for instance, deal with emotions. Despite the claims of ‘universalists that there are emotions which are recognized across cultures’ and individuals, there is still some uncertainty as to whether such emotions may be experienced and interpreted in the same manner and thus trigger similar actions (Oatley and Jenkins, 1996). Therefore, the conclusions tentatively proposed that emotional salience and vividness instead, may account for a share of the persuasive appeal. Furthermore, ethos is handled as a reason to infer a certain conclusion and logos, as complex as pathos, was not qualified in terms of either formal or informal logic principles since in such a case arguments might have been qualified in various ways among which, fallacies, incomplete, valid or invalid and the like.

Finally, as the study could not but continue to ‘knock at the text’ (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2000), two sets of conclusions emerged that may tentatively account for the appeal of the messages conveyed by the selected management gurus. Binary models, de-ambiguization and finally avoiding the freedom of choice were explored as alternative solutions to the dilemma.

In conclusion, as this study was the first expedition for the authors in these lands, there was a need to first chart the area and plot the coordinates on a map. That in its turn
means that the study possibly needs some in-depth qualifications of certain aspects especially pertaining to the possible effects and interpretations of ethos, pathos and logos.

However, further research, if undertaken, may focus on few artifacts and provide and in-depth study in that framework. Depending, certainly on which manner will rhetoric be approached or which criticism model will be deployed, the opportunities for interpretations abound and may reveal some truly engaging aspects. Moreover, at the very outset of the study, during the process of identifying management gurus a particular finding, observed in passing, appeared quite intriguing. Namely, the ‘Accenture’ ranking list has two criteria for ranking, media presence and academic presence respectively. It was noticed that most of the management gurus, with few exceptions, who enjoy the highest media popularity are virtually disregarded by the academic community and that may be an interesting staring point for some future study.
REFERENCE LIST

Clark and Greatbach


Welch, J. and Welch S. (2005), Winning, HarperCollinsPublishers
APPENDIX 1

The Measures

1. Originality of Ideas
   Are the ideas and examples used by the thinker original?

2. Practicality of Ideas
   Have the ideas promoted by the thinker been implemented in organizations? And, has the implementation been successful?

3. Presentation Style
   How proficient is the thinker at presenting his/her ideas orally?

4. Written Communication
   How proficient is the thinker at presenting his/her ideas in writing?

5. Loyalty of Followers
   How committed are the thinker’s disciples to spreading the message and putting it to work?

6. Business Sense
   Do they practice what they preach in their own business?

7. International Outlook
   How international are they in outlook and thinking?

8. Rigor of Research
   How well researched are their books and presentations?

9. Impact of Ideas
   Have their ideas had an impact on the way people manage or think about management?

10. Guru Factor
    The clincher: are they, for better or worse, guru material by your definition and expectation?