



How to Grow an Apple: Did Steve Jobs Speak Apple to Success?

- An analysis of Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic development in relation to
Apple's organizational performance

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Abstract

In an increasingly global world, companies get a chance to become highly successful all over the world. One of these companies is Apple. Apple is famous for many things, but especially their products and their former CEO Steve Jobs are what characterize this company.

Unfortunately, Steve Jobs died in 2011. But he left behind more than a successful company and an iconic status. Jobs died having an image as a charismatic leader who possessed great speaking skills. One of the aims of the thesis is to find out if there is a development in Steve Jobs' rhetorical and linguistic skill from Apple's foundation in 1976 to Jobs's death in 2011. Furthermore, some researchers have found a link between rhetoric and charisma and others between charisma and organizational performance. Therefore, if it is possible to find a development in Steve Jobs' rhetorical and linguistic skills, could this development be correlated to Apple's organizational performance? The last part of the thesis aims find out if other business leaders can learn from Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills.

The thesis uses linguistics as the point of departure for the scientific approach but incorporates functionalism. Furthermore, an inductive approach is taken in the thesis. This means that the results of the thesis are generalizations of all Steve Jobs' speeches based on only some of them. Also, the data analyzed is broken down into parts.

The questions in this thesis were answered by looking at six speeches of Steve Jobs which covered the period 1984 to 2011. These speeches were analyzed by using Den Hartog & Verburg's (1997) four elements of rhetoric which. The second element in the theory was supported by Ditlevsen et al.'s (2007) SPA text analysis model. Thus, with the four elements of rhetoric as the point of departure, rhetorical and linguistic devices were analyzed.

The analysis was based on the six speeches where the rhetorical and linguistic devices were identified first. Thus, they provided the data for the next analysis in which the data were accounted for quantitatively in each speech, mostly by calculating the rhetorical and linguistic devices in percentages. Then, the findings of all six speeches were compared. This comparison showed that Steve Jobs did not develop his rhetorical and linguistic skills from 1976 to 2011. However, he did have good rhetorical and linguistic skills despite the fact that he did not develop them over time. It was found that Jobs had used the same strategies always with only few variations from speech to speech. As a consequence, a correlation to Apple's organizational development could not be made either.

Finally, it was discussed whether other business leaders could learn from Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills. It was argued that others could benefit from the consistency of Jobs's speeches. In order to achieve the same skills as Steve Jobs, they could also study rhetoric and linguistics. However, as there was no direct relationship between Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills and Apple's organizational development, it was argued that business leaders should also focus on other things such as design and brand value which were important for Apple. Furthermore, because Steve Jobs had an iconic status, it was argued that if charisma can be achieved, business leaders should work on that and also develop their own reputation. This could be done by getting known by the company's shareholders.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

As the world has become increasingly global and national borders are no longer a limit for a company to go abroad with its products, companies have the opportunity to become popular and successful all over the world. One such company is Apple Inc. The company is famous for products like Mac computers, iPods, iPhones, and iPads, for the cult status the products have among the fans, and for the former CEO and co-founder Steve Jobs.

Apple is an interesting company because it is so closely linked to Steve Jobs – even after his death. Not many other companies are or have been so dependent on and synonymous with its founder. Apple's history is both interesting – and unusual. The company was founded by Steve Jobs and Steve Wozniak in 1976. But in 1985 Jobs left the company after leadership struggles. Instead, he founded the company NeXT Inc. which was bought by Apple in 1996 (Kane & Fowler 2011). This brought Steve Jobs back to Apple and in 2000 he was announced the CEO of the company (“Steve Jobs – timeline of the former Apple CEO” 2011). Since then, Apple has almost continuously become more and more successful (“Tributes for Apple ‘visionary’ Steve Jobs” 2011). Unfortunately, due to a poor health caused by pancreatic cancer, Steve Jobs passed away on 5 October 2011 (Kane & Fowler 2011).

In the days after Jobs's death reactions came from all over the world. One of the words used to describe him was ‘visionary’ (e.g. “Steve Jobs er død” 2011; Markoff 2011; Schulman 2011). Barack Obama said that Jobs was “among the greatest of American innovators” (Schulman 2011), The Wall Street Journal noted that he “transformed the way people interact with technology” (Kane & Fowler 2011), and several others mentioned that Steve Jobs was charismatic (e.g. Sarno & Goffard 2011; Robertson 2011). Especially the fact that Jobs was perceived as charismatic is interesting because some researchers (e.g. Agle, Nagarajan, Sonnenfeld, & Srinivasan 2006; Howell & Frost 1989) have found a connection between charisma and organizational performance. This is discussed in chapter 5.3.

Another thing the world remembers about Steve Jobs is his speeches. Numerous guides on how to make presentations like Steve Jobs can be found on the Internet (e.g. Walker 2011; Gallo 2012), and the image of Steve Jobs standing on stage presenting the newest Apple creation is well-known to most people. It would be interesting to examine the rhetorical and linguistic means Steve Jobs used in his speeches to see if it is possible to trace a development throughout his career. Also, just like some researchers see a connection between charisma and

organizational performance, some also see a connection between rhetoric and charisma (chapter 5.3). As such, with charisma connecting rhetoric and linguistics to organizational performance, it would be interesting to see whether a rhetorical and linguistic development in Jobs's speeches could be correlated to the increasing success of Apple. Also, could other business leaders learn from Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills?

In this thesis, the *AMA Handbook of Business Writing* (2010) by Wilson & Wauson is used as a style guide. AMA is short for American Management Association. Hence, American English is used in this thesis. On the basis of this introduction a problem statement has been formed. It is explicated below.

1.1 Problem statement

The aim of this thesis is to find out if Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills developed from the foundation of Apple in 1976 to his death in 2011 and whether this development can be correlated to Apple's organizational performance. This is done through an analysis of rhetorical and linguistic devices in six speeches and by looking at Apple's performance throughout the years. Finally, this thesis aims to conclude whether Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills could serve as an example for other business leaders.

Chapter 2: Structure of the Thesis

This chapter introduces the structure of this thesis. Figure 1 below shows the approach visually.

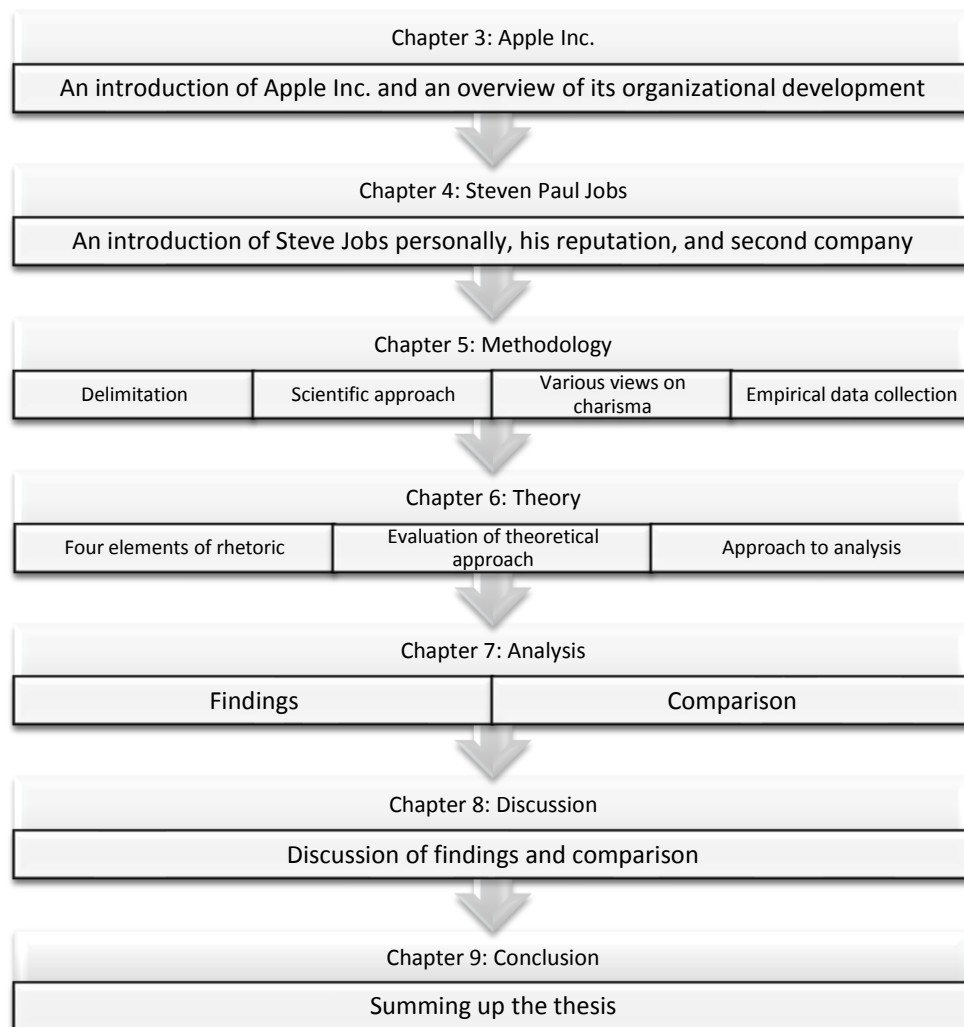


Figure 1. Structure of the thesis

As is evident from the figure, seven chapters constitute the rest of the thesis. First, chapter 3 gives an introduction to Apple as a company and examines its organizational development over time. Chapter 4 is a short biography of Steve Jobs.

In the methodology chapter the first part is delimitation. Next is an account for the scientific approach used. In this thesis functionalism is combined with induction and quantitative and qualitative methods. Then, various views on charisma account for the way researchers connect charisma to rhetoric and organizational performance. Finally, the empirical data collection concludes the methodology chapter. It consists of six Steve Jobs speeches.

Next is the theory chapter which is mainly centered on the four elements of rhetoric, a model developed by Den Hartog & Verburg (1997). The second element in the theory,

composition/structure, is supported by the SPA text analysis model (Ditlevsen, Engberg, Kastberg, & Nielsen 2007, 67). Thus, the theory consists of a synthesis between these two theories. The rhetorical and linguistic devices in the four elements of rhetoric are identified in appendices B-G and analyzed in the analysis chapter. The theory chapter also includes an evaluation of the theoretical approach and an account for the way the speeches are analyzed.

The analysis chapter analyzes the six speeches by Steve Jobs. The chapter has two parts; findings and comparison. Findings sum up what have been found in the analyses of appendices B-G, and in the comparison the findings are compared in order to find out whether there is a development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills and whether such a development can be correlated to Apple's organizational performance.

In the discussion, the results of the analysis are related to the three parts of the problem statement and discussed. The discussion is based on the analysis (chapter 7) and chapter 3 which examines Apple's organizational development. The discussion is included in order to relate the results of the analysis to a larger perspective instead of just stating whether there is a development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills. Finally, the conclusion sums up the most important points of the thesis. With this overview of the progress of the rest of the thesis, the next chapter introduces Apple Inc.

Chapter 3: Apple Inc.

Today, Apple is one of the most popular companies in the world. Apple topped the BrandZ Top 100 list as the most valuable global brand in 2012 ("BrandZ Top 100" 2012) and was at the same time number one on Forbes's list of the most powerful brands (Badenhausen 2012). This chapter focuses on Apple's history and development which I argue can be divided into four phases: foundation and early years, Steve Jobs leaves, Steve Jobs returns, and Apple after Jobs's death. Furthermore, this chapter serves as the point of departure for whether a development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills can be correlated to Apple's organizational development.

The first phase spreads over the years 1976 to 1985; from the foundation of Apple to the year Steve Jobs led the company. Apple was founded by Steve Jobs and his high school friend Steve Wozniak in Jobs's parents' garage in Silicon Valley (Robertson 2011). The

company's first success was the Apple II which "became so popular that Jobs was worth \$100 million by age 25" (Robertson 2011). In 1979, during a visit to the Xerox Palo Alto Research Center, Jobs saw potential in accessing files and controlling computer programs by using a mouse. Until then it had been necessary to use typed commands. From this point, Apple focused on reinventing already existing products and making them user-friendly for those who did not want to learn computer programming (Robertson 2011).

However, not everything was good in the first phase. Eventually, sales slowed and Apple lost market shares to Microsoft. The reason was that Apple insisted on making its own computers while Microsoft licensed its products to other computer makers. Subsequently, programs were developed for Windows first and then maybe for Mac later. As a consequence, Apple's stock price dropped, and conflicts between the CEO, John Sculley, and Steve Jobs broke out. The board sided with Sculley, and Jobs left Apple in 1985 (Robertson 2011). Sources vary in their explanation of how Jobs left. Robertson (2011) claims that Jobs resigned while for instance Kane & Fowler (2011) state that he was fired.

Phase 2 in Apple's history starts after Jobs leaves Apple. Up until 1996, there is not much documentation of Apple's development. However, according to both Kane & Fowler (2011) and Robertson (2011), Apple was facing severe financial problems. The reasons were that the company continued to lose market shares to PCs using Windows and that it had difficulties licensing Mac software for other computers (Robertson 2011). Furthermore, "[b]y 1997, Apple had racked up nearly \$2 billion in losses in two years, its shares were at record lows and it was on its third CEO – Gil Amelio – in four years" (Kane & Fowler 2011).

In December 1996 Apple bought the software company NeXT, the company started by Steve Jobs after he exited Apple in 1985 (chapter 4). Eight months later the CEO, Amelio, was ousted, and Jobs became interim chief in 1997 (Kane & Fowler 2011).

With the return of Steve Jobs, phase 3 in Apple's history begins. It was not until January 2000 that Steve Jobs was announced the CEO. By that time he had already replaced four of five top executives with former NeXT employees, trimmed the product array down to only a few systems with focus on the consumer market, and made the company profitable (Kane & Fowler 2011).

In the 2000s Apple became what it is today. It started with the launch of the iPod in 2001 and "[o]ver the next 10 years, its white earphones and thumb-dial control seemed to become more ubiquitous than the wristwatch" (Robertson 2011). In 2007, the iPhone was launched. It

was met with skepticism, but by December 2010 Apple was a force in the mobile phone industry with 92 million iPhones sold. The iPad came three years later in 2010 (Kane & Fowler 2011). Two of Apple's other great successes in the third phase are the iTunes Music Store (Kane & Fowler 2011) and the App Store (Robertson 2011).

However, although phase three was a turning point for Apple, there was also failure. For instance, a Macintosh computer failed to become a success and was one of the reasons why Apple had a quarterly loss and later estimated that it would happen several other times in 2000 and 2001 (Kane & Fowler 2011). Another thing that influenced the third phase was Steve Jobs poor health – he was diagnosed with cancer in October 2003 (Bloomberg News 2011) (chapter 4). Jobs's disease had an impact on the stock price “as investors worried the company, with no clear succession plan, would fall apart without him”. Steve Jobs died on October 5, 2011 (Robertson 2011).

Although the third phase had both ups and downs, the figure below shows that there were most ups. The figure shows the stock price since 1985, the year Jobs left Apple. In 2008-2009, there is a big drop in the stock price. There are various ideas why. Jackson (2012) links the drop to the collapse of Lehman Brothers while Hargreaves (2008) notes that rumors said that Steve Jobs had suffered from a heart attack. This caused the stock price to fall 10% in ten minutes, but by the end of the day it had only fallen 3%.



Figure 2. Apple's stock price 1985-2011 ("Tributes for Apple 'visionary' Steve Jobs" 2011)

It was mentioned above that this chapter would serve as the point of departure for a correlation between a development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills and Apple's organizational performance. If there is a correlation, figure 2 shows that Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills should be the same up until around year 1999 and then be better

from 2004. This is due to the fact that the stock price goes up and it is assumed that when a stock price is high it shows organizational success. Wolski backs this assumption by arguing that internal development such as earning reports and “the development or approval of a new innovative product” can affect the stock price (Wolski N.Y.). By looking at the stock price, it should then be possible to see the organizational development. Chapter 5.3 elaborates further on how a development in Jobs’s rhetorical and linguistic skills is correlated to Apple’s organizational performance. More figures of Apple’s development are found in appendix A.

Finally, phase 4 is initiated by Steve Jobs’s death in October 2011. But already in August 2011 Jobs stepped down as CEO and appointed Tim Cook the new head of Apple (Kane & Fowler 2011). However, Jobs did not leave Apple completely as he became the chairman of the board (Robertson 2011). This last phase of Apple’s history is not described in detail here as it is outside the scope of this thesis which focuses only on Steve Jobs. The next chapter gives a description of Steve Jobs as a person, his reputation, and the company he started after he left Apple in 1985.

Chapter 4: Steven Paul Jobs

Just as Apple’s history can be divided in to four phases, the same can be done for Steve Jobs’s life although there are only three phases – the fourth phase of Apple’s history started with his death. This chapter gives a description of Steve Jobs’s pre-Apple history and the foundation of Apple, leaving Apple and founding NeXT, and the return to Apple.

Overlaps between this chapter and chapter 3 inevitably occur as Steve Jobs and Apple are almost synonymous; when thinking of Apple, one immediately thinks about Steve Jobs and vice versa. However, whereas chapter 3 focused on Apple’s history and development, this chapter focuses on Steve Jobs as a person, his reputation, and the startup of his second company NeXT which he founded after leaving Apple in 1985. Although the second phase is not relevant for this thesis (chapter 5.1), many of the things Jobs did at NeXT are important in understanding some parts of the speeches (appendix B-G) and who Steve Jobs was as a person. Therefore, it is included here.

Phase 1 – 1955-1985

The first phase of Jobs's life spans from 1955 to 1985 – from he was born to he left Apple (Robertson 2011). Steven Paul Jobs was born on February 24, 1955 (Kane & Fowler 2011). He was adopted by Clara and Paul Jobs (Milian 2011). Jobs's birth parents later had another child, Mona Simpson, who Jobs met at the age of 27. Although he kept much of his personal life a secret, Jobs said about Simpson that “[w]e’re family. She’s one of my best friends in the world. I call her and talk to her every couple of days” (Lohr 1997).

Jobs went to a university but dropped out after just one term. After that he started working at a video game manufacturer in order to save enough money to travel to India (“Tributes for Apple ‘visionary’ Steve Jobs” 2011). In India, Jobs became familiar with Buddhism which he eventually converted to (Milian 2011). Although he became a Buddhist, Apple did not show any environmental concern until Greenpeace addressed the fact that Apple did little to use easily recyclable products. Also, “Jobs showed little inclination to use his personal wealth for philanthropic purposes” (“Tributes for Apple ‘visionary’ Steve Jobs” 2011).

Nine years after the foundation of Apple Steve Jobs left the company in 1985 (chapter 3). As mentioned in chapter 3, there are different opinions of whether he was fired or left more or less voluntarily. However, most agree that there were problems between Jobs and the other employees (Robertson 2011). It is of course difficult to say exactly why they clashed but one thing that is certain is the fact that Steve Jobs was known for his sometimes not so flattering personality.

In an unauthorized biography the author wrote that Steve Jobs was “deeply moody and maddeningly erratic” (Robertson 2011). Jobs was also known for publicly expressing his opinion about competitors and former colleagues, “calling them ‘bozos’ lacking taste”, and employees “described him as a tyrant they feared meeting in an elevator” (Milian 2011). In his private life, this side of Jobs also showed when his then girlfriend Chrisann Brennan had a daughter. Jobs refused to be the father (Robertson 2011). He claimed in a court document that he was sterile although he later had three children with his wife Laurene Powell (Milian 2011). Although he could be hard on his employees, “[f]ew seemed immune to Jobs’s charisma and will. He could adeptly convince those in his presence of just about anything – even if they disagreed again when he left the room and the magic wore off” (Robertson 2011).

His ability to convince people about most things should be seen in relation to another skill Jobs possessed: he was a skilled speaker. Examples of what has been said about Jobs are that he was “one of the greatest presenters and speakers of all time” (Walker 2011), “he once

again raised the bar on presentation skills” (Gallo 2008), “his keynote presentations continue to attract thousands of views on YouTube and he has profoundly impacted the way leaders communicate” (Gallo 2012), and finally, he has been described as “the master presenter” (Belicove 2012). Another way his speaking skills show is in the various online guides on how to present like Jobs (e.g. Walker 2011; Gallo 2012).

Phase 2 – 1985-1997

After leaving Apple in 1985, Jobs started the company NeXT Inc. In 1988, NeXT introduced a desktop computer. It failed to become a success but its operating system became a foundation for OS X which is part of Mac computers today. Apple bought NeXT for \$400 million in 1996 and thus brought Jobs back to Apple (chapter 3). Another business Jobs engaged in after he left Apple was Pixar Animation Studios which he formed from buying Lucas Film Ltd. with the money he got when he left Apple (Kane & Fowler 2011). Pixar was a success and in 2006, Jobs sold the company to The Walt Disney Co. for \$7.4 billion in stock. This made Jobs the largest stockholder and gave him a seat on the board (Robertson 2011).

At NeXT, Jobs was obsessed with every detail of the products, “insisting on design perfection even for the machine’s guts” (Robertson 2011). This attention to detail was one of the characteristics of Jobs. He had high standard in everything. Hardware and software needed to be perfect, and he demanded aesthetics and user-friendliness from the moment a customer entered an Apple store. Another way Jobs showed attention to detail was the way he dressed. “In public, he rarely deviated from an outfit consisting of Levi’s jeans, a black mock turtleneck and New Balance running shoes” (Kane & Fowler 2011).

Phase 3 – 1997-2011

As mentioned in chapter 3, Jobs made a lot of changes when he returned to Apple in 1997 and became the interim CEO. One of the things he stressed greatly was secrecy about new products. According to Milian (2011), Jobs denied giving interviews and misled reporters in the statements he gave. In one case Jobs was advised to let the matter go but he stated that “I thought deeply about this, and I ended up concluding that the worst thing that could possibly happen as we get big and get a little more influence in the world is if we change our core values and start letting it slide. I can’t do that. I’d rather quit” (Milian 2011).

When Steve Jobs was diagnosed with cancer, he also refused giving any details to investors. It was not until the company became involved in a scandal that involved backdating stock options that Jobs had to share information about his disease (Milian 2011). Jobs's health became the focus in August 2004 when he revealed that he had undergone surgery to remove a tumor caused by pancreatic cancer (Kane & Fowler 2011). However, he had been diagnosed already in October 2003 (Bloomberg News 2011). In 2009, Jobs went on medical leave for nearly six months where he went through a liver transplant. In January 2011 he had another leave before he stepped down as CEO later that year (chapter 3) (Kane & Fowler 2011). Steve Jobs died on October 5, 2011.

One is tempted to say that in the true Steve Jobs spirit, the company did not specify the cause of death. However, in a statement his family said that "Jobs died peacefully today surrounded by his family". Steve Jobs's family consisted of his wife Laurene and four children (Kane & Fowler 2011). He met Laurene in 1989 at Stanford's graduate business school where she was then a student (Robertson 2011). After these introductory chapters, the next chapter describes the methodology of this thesis.

Chapter 5: Methodology

In this chapter, the methods used in the thesis are examined. The chapter consists of four sections. The first section deals with delimitation. The second section introduces the scientific approach used, the third section examines different views on charisma and rhetoric and charisma and organizational performance. Finally, the empirical data collection is introduced.

5.1 Delimitation

Due to a number of reasons there are limitations in this thesis that must be mentioned. First of all, the speeches given by Steve Jobs that are available on video are imbalanced in time. That is, there are more speeches available from the period after Jobs returned to Apple in 1997 and especially after he was appointed the CEO in 2000. This could be explained by the technological development and the dissemination of the Internet. The impact on the thesis is the fact that there is more focus on Jobs's later speeches. It implies that his early rhetorical and linguistic skills are less examined. Another reason why focus is laid more on the last

period is the fact that this was the period of time where Apple really developed (see figure 2 + appendix A). Thus, if there is a connection between organizational performance and rhetoric/linguistics (chapter 5.3), it might be found here. However, the ideal would be that more speeches were available from all phases.

As a result of the imbalance, only one speech from phase 1 is analyzed. This is due to the fact that only one speech with video is available (appendix B). However, another speech does exist¹. But, the problem is that there is no visual recording of the speech which means that body language cannot be analyzed. As is evident from the theory chapter below, the visual part constitutes half the analysis of the speeches, namely the two elements communicator style and delivery.

Second, only speeches Steve Jobs gave in relation to Apple are analyzed. Several other speeches exist, for instance the Stanford Commencement Speech from 2005 (e.g. Yarow 2011) which is widely referred to on the Internet. As the thesis focuses on finding out whether Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills can be correlated to Apple's development (chapter 1.1), it is natural to focus only on speeches given in relation to Apple. However, by including other speeches, a more nuanced picture of Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic development would be made as they are also part of his development. On the other hand, in accordance with the above-mentioned delimitation, most of these "other" speeches are given in the period from 1997-2011 (phase 3) where there are many others available. Thus, it should still be possible to cover Jobs's development by looking only at Apple-related speeches without leaving out any important findings.

This delimitation also implies that speeches from phase 2 are not analyzed as Steve Jobs was not working at Apple at that point. Hence, analyses of speeches from this phase do not contribute to find out whether a development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills can be correlated to Apple's organizational performance (chapter 1.1). It could be argued that there will be a gap in the results of a development of Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistics skills. However, if there is any development in phase 2, it will be clear in the development from phase 1 to 3.

Third, this limitation has to do with charisma. In chapter 5.3, charisma is discussed in relation to rhetoric and linguistics and organizational performance. Charisma is not discussed

¹ Steve Jobs at the 1983 International Design Conference in Aspen (IDCA), see <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hj4bXTETKgs>

in itself although a definition is provided. This is due to the fact that the focus is on rhetoric/linguistics and organizational performance, not on charisma. The reason why charisma is defined shortly is because it links the concepts.

Fourth, the problem statement (chapter 1.1) states that a development is being look at in the speeches. However, the word ‘development’ has positive connotations. For this thesis it is the right word as it was mentioned in chapter 3 that the speeches should become better and better rhetorically and linguistically over time. But, it is also possible that not all developments are positive. If they occur, they will be called changes instead.

The final two limitations have to do with the findings of the analyses. First, as appears from the next section of this chapter, quantitative methods are used to trace a development in the speeches. However, these results might not be 100% accurate as most of the devices analyzed are analyzed through interpretation. By this I mean that two people would not analyze the same speech in the exact same way. Examples where this is most evident are in the analysis of ethos, logos, and pathos, dispositio and elocutio. Furthermore, it is likely that some examples have been missed in the analysis. The more one analyzes a text, the more connections and patterns appear. Thus, if the six speeches in this thesis were to be analyzed in six months or a year, the results might be different. However, all six speeches are analyzed the same way and by the same person. Therefore, there is no variety in the way the speeches have been analyzed.

Finally, it is found in the speeches that Steve Jobs often invites other people to give presentations during his speeches (appendices B-G). As only Steve Jobs’s rhetorical and linguistic skills are examined in this thesis, the guest speakers’ parts have not been transcribed and hence, not analyzed. However, I am aware that this use of other speakers is part of Steve Jobs’s rhetorical and linguistic style. Next, the scientific approach of this thesis is introduced.

5.2 Scientific Approach

This section introduces the scientific approach used in this thesis. Three overall topics are examined; linguistics, inductive and deductive methods, and quantitative and qualitative methods. After each section an account is made for how the methods are applied in this thesis.

5.2.1 Linguistics

The overall scientific approach in the thesis takes its point of departure in linguistics. Within linguistics, a distinction can be made between structuralism and functionalism. The latter is the approach used in this thesis. First, a general description of linguistics is made. Second, structuralism is introduced and finally, functionalism is explained.

Linguistics as a science takes its point of departure in language and tries to systemize language systems. The focus is not on the way language is used and practical aspects of language are not considered (Sørensen 2010, 203). Linguistics examines language by looking at the relationship between the linguistic content, *the meaning*, and what it expresses, *the sign*. This distinction can be ascribed to Saussure (Sørensen 2010, 196). The sign itself has two sides – the signifier that refers to the material expression and the signified which is the immaterial content. Saussure calls the two sides *signifiant* and *signifié* (Sørensen 2010, 198).

Langergaard, Rasmussen, & Sørensen clarify this rather abstract explanation by stating that a sign consists of a sound expression and a meaning which the sound refers to (2006, 135). The sign is arbitrary which means that the relationship between the signifier and the signified could be different: *tree* might as well refer to something else than ‘tree’ but over time, it has been accepted collectively that *tree* means ‘tree’ (Langergaard et al. 2006, 136).

Structuralism is said to have its exact beginning in 1916 which was the year Saussure’s *Cours de linguistic générale* was published. In this book, the idea about the sign was expressed. It should be noted that Saussure did not publish the book himself. It was published by two of his students who had based the book on notes from Saussure’s lectures. Although structuralism takes its point of departure in Saussure, it is not limited to an examination of signs only. Since language is important for education and the development of thoughts and mind in general, structuralism developed to include sentences, texts, and cultural phenomena as well (Sørensen 2010, 206).

For structuralists, structure is defined as “a number of units with a certain relationship to each other”² (Gregersen 1995, 160). What is important is the fact that the various units are nothing in themselves but can only be seen in relation to the other units in the structure (Gregersen 1995, 160). As not only linguistic signs are part of structuralism, Langergaard et al. argue that structuralists also see society as a structure that determines human actions. This means that not only material things matter but that the immaterial structure actually *is* the

² ”En række enheder, som står i et bestemt forhold til hinanden” (Gregersen 1995, 160).

society (2006, 138). As mentioned in the beginning of this section, structuralism is not the view on linguistics used in this thesis because structures and the way the units interact within a structure are not considered. Although structuralism is relevant in some areas such as in the focus on texts and sentences, another area within linguistics comes closer to the approach in this thesis. This area is called functionalism.

Functionalism is found within various fields such as psychology, architecture, sociology (Britannica Concise Encyclopedia 2006, 720), and linguistics (Butler 2006). Naturally, the functionalism that deals with linguistics is the one explained and used in this thesis.

Butler lists three basic functions of functionalism. First, functionalists see communication as the primary function of language. Second, external factors such as cognitive and socio-cultural factors are considered important in explaining linguistic devices and their use, and third, functionalists claim that syntax is not autonomous from semantics and pragmatics (2006, 697). The first function is based on the idea that only by looking at communication is it possible to explain “why languages take the form they do” (Butler 2006, 697). The second factor involves the context. Functionalists claim that situation shapes communication. It is also expected that functionalists look at situations and the way language changes over time (Butler 2006, 697). In relation to the third factor, functionalists see the forms of language which Butler calls morphosyntax to be connected “with the kinds of meaning that it serves to express, divided by many linguists into the semantic and the pragmatic” (Butler 2006, 698).

Butler also lists other characteristics of functionalism. One characteristic is that functionalists do not only look at core grammar in order to understand and account for language. Instead, they “take on the full complexity of languages and our use of them, provided, of course, that the phenomena under study are systematic” (Butler 2006, 698). Also, authentic data is used for analysis – that is, communication in its context. Functionalists expect the data collection to be rather large. Furthermore, sentence grammar alone is not interesting for functionalists. They also look at discourse. Finally, Butler also mentions the fact that functionalists are interested in the way children acquire language (2006, 698-699).

The last two aspects of functionalism, discourse and children’s acquisition of language, are not included in this thesis. However, other elements are. First, communication is the point of departure of this thesis and is found in the form of Steve Jobs’s speeches. He communicates about various Apple products and the audience communicates back via for instance laughter and applause (appendices B-G). Also, the speeches are analyzed in the context in which they

take place although the impact of context on the language is not examined. The placement of the speeches in the phases of Jobs's life makes it possible to see if his language changes over time. Finally, the data collection is rather large and constitutes a representative sample that makes it possible to analyze a development in Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills. Another interesting notion about functionalism is the fact that Butler uses the words "account for language" (2006, 698). As is seen below, this goes well with the use of quantitative methods in the analysis of speeches. Other scientific approaches such as hermeneutics seek to interpret and understand language (Pahuus 1995, 110). This is not the purpose of this thesis. Instead, it is to, exactly, account for the rhetorical and linguistic devices in the Steve Jobs speeches.

Furthermore, the fact that functionalists look at other things than core grammar (Butler 2006, 698) is found in this thesis as well. Several rhetorical and linguistic devices are used in order to understand the development in Steve Jobs's language. These devices are examined in chapter 6. With the examination of functionalism, the next two sections account for other methods used in this thesis. First, induction and deduction are examined.

5.2.2 Induction and Deduction

The relationship between theory and research can be expressed in terms of induction and deduction. Although they are referred to as strategies, the use of induction and deduction is not always clear cut, and it is useful to think of them as *tendencies* (Bryman 2008, 13). Deduction takes its point of departure in hypotheses based on theories and knowledge within a specific area (Bryman 2008, 9). In deduction, theory is the starting point and observations and findings are the result (Bryman 2008, 11). Induction takes the opposite approach. Its point of departure is observations and the purpose is to make generalizations about the findings (Bryman 2008, 11). Induction is the approach used in this thesis. Therefore, the paragraph below explicates it further.

According to Langergaard et al., induction leads to generalizations about the specific area or phenomenon one researches and wants to explain. Induction is based on systematic observations on *some* occurrences of the area one researches in order to say something general for *all* occurrences (2006, 70). The inductive approach requires a large collection of data to ensure that deviations and special cases do not have any influence on the overall result of the generalizations made in the end. Also, the data one collects need to be compared in order to distinguish important findings from unimportant findings. Furthermore, the data need

to be broken down into parts so that they can be analyzed individually. The parts may be helpful in explicating the important findings (Sørensen 2010, 35).

The inductive approach is found in the way that the thesis takes its point of departure in six speeches given by Steve Jobs (appendices B-G). That is, data and not a hypothesis based on knowledge/theory about Steve Jobs's speeches serve as the point of departure. The analysis of the data collection, however, is based on theory with the aim of finding out whether generalizations can be made about Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic development. Although this chapter also introduces various views on charisma, the data are not collected on the basis of this. Finally, the speeches are not analyzed as a whole but are broken down into parts. For instance, linguistic devices, communicator style, and body language are analyzed. Next, qualitative and quantitative methods are examined.

5.2.3 Quantitative and Qualitative Methods

Quantitative and qualitative methods are two types of research strategy (Bryman 2008, 22). Quantitative research focuses on measurement of concepts in order to explain them (Bryman 2008, 144). On the other hand, the qualitative approach seeks "to explore, discover, construct, and describe phenomena experienced by people in specific contexts" ("Qualitative Research" 2009). Also, qualitative methods seek to find out how people interpret their social world (Bryman 2008, 22). Thus, qualitative research focuses on social life and humans and often on the way patterns develop over time (Bryman 2008, 388).

In this thesis, both quantitative and qualitative methods are used. One element that suggests that the thesis is quantitative in nature is the fact that there is a distance to the object of the study; Steve Jobs. In qualitative research, the researcher is usually close to the participants (Bryman 2008, 393). Second, the analyses of the six speeches are highly structured and conducted identically. In qualitative research, the study is often unstructured in order to let the participants' meanings come through (Bryman 2008, 394). Third, in the analysis of the speeches, measurements of the various elements in the analysis are made in order to find out whether a development can be traced.

There are also qualitative elements in the thesis. The focus is on a micro rather than a macro level as it focuses only on Steve Jobs's speeches and not on "uncovering large-scale social trends" (Bryman 2008, 394). The micro focus suggests a qualitative approach whereas the focus on macro levels is quantitative in nature. Furthermore, in quantitative research,

focus is usually on static variables and “[c]hange and connections between events over time tend not to surface” (Bryman 2008, 394). In this thesis, focus is on change and on the connections between the speeches and whether they develop over time, but it is examined with both quantitative and qualitative methods.

As is seen above, both quantitative and qualitative methods are used. This approach is called mixed methods (Bryman 2008, 610-611). The first part of the problem statement, whether there is a development in Steve Jobs’s rhetorical and linguistic skills, is answered mainly by a quantitative research approach because each concept analyzed is measured in terms of frequency of appearance. The second and third parts of the problem statement, *whether a development can be correlated to Apple’s success* and *if other business leaders can learn from Steve Jobs’s rhetorical and linguistic skills*, are of a more qualitative nature as the focus here is on a process that develops over time and on the impact these findings can have on social life. However, the second part is based on the quantitative findings in the first part.

In sum, functionalism, induction, and mixed methods are applied in this thesis. The next section looks at various views on charisma.

5.3 Various Views on Charisma

In chapter 1, it was mentioned that some see a connection between charisma and rhetoric and between charisma and organizational performance. In order to answer the problem statement, it is necessary to look at the relationship between charisma and rhetoric and linguistics and the relationship between charisma and organizational performance. These relationships are examined in the next two sections. However, as charisma is a rather intangible concept, it is necessary to define it.

Although it was stated in chapter 1 that Steve Jobs has been perceived as charismatic, it is necessary to look at the definitions of charisma used in research. The Oxford English Dictionary describes charisma as a “gift or power of leadership or authority aura. Hence, the capacity to inspire devotion or enthusiasm” (Oxford English Dictionary 2013). Although the definition is rather short, it is chosen here because it includes the word “leadership” which is relevant because Steve Jobs was a leader. The Oxford English Dictionary (2013) also refers to Weber’s definition of charisma. In fact, Weber’s definition seems to be the one most referred to when defining charisma (e.g. Maturano, Wood, & Gosling 2005, 22; Levin, Muenchen, &

Brooks 2010, 579; Awamleh & Gardner 1999, 347). Weber's definition is also chosen for this thesis:

“The term “charisma” will be applied to a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is considered extraordinary and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities” (Weber in Maturano et al. 2005, 22).

In relation to Steve Jobs, the definition describes him rather well. Although Jobs has probably never been described as superhuman or supernatural, he has been described as being ahead of his time (Brown 2012). The fact that Steve Jobs has been closely linked to Apple (chapter 4) also fits Weber's description of charisma. Hence, Jobs can be described as having ‘exceptional qualities’. It can also be argued that Jobs was ‘extraordinary’. In an article, Jobs is considered to have hero-status (Robertson 2011).

From the introduction of these two definitions and with the comments from chapter 1 it is argued that Steve Jobs is charismatic. Next, the relationship between charisma and rhetoric and linguistics is examined.

5.3.1 Charisma and Rhetoric/Linguistics

Some researchers see a connection between charisma and rhetoric. This section examines this view on charisma. First, according to Awamleh & Gardner (1999), theorists share the idea that vision is “one of the primary sources for charisma”. But they note that the vision must be articulated in order to get the audience to follow it (Awamleh & Gardner 1999, 346). It can thus be argued that language forms the basis of charisma.

Den Hartog & Verburg (1997) take this view on charisma and state that charisma certainly is connected to language. “Although leaders can be seen as charismatic without being spellbinding orators, the ability to capture an audience through striking oratory plays an important part in the social formation of charisma” (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 356). In this view, rhetoric and linguistics play an important role when an audience is to perceive a leader as charismatic. It can thus be assumed that Steve Jobs uses rhetorical and linguistic devices in his speeches since he is perceived to be charismatic (chapter 1).

In their study, Awamleh & Gardner (1999) also found that “it appears that by using symbolic language that challenges and appeals to followers’ higher level values, a leader can elicit attributions of charisma and effectiveness” (Awamleh & Gardner 1999, 359). Here, they do not explicitly state that rhetoric and linguistics play an important role in the formation of leader charisma, but they do claim that language is important. The fact “symbolic language” is mentioned suggests that language must be elaborated on in order for the speaker to obtain charismatic status. It is also interesting that Awamleh & Gardner (1999) mention effectiveness in relation to charisma. In this thesis, it is especially interesting when one considers Apple’s positive development after Steve Jobs returned in 1997 (chapter 3). Organizational performance and charisma is examined in the next section.

5.3.2 Charisma and Organizational Performance

In the previous section, it was seen that charisma is created by rhetoric and linguistics. In this section, the relationship between charisma and organizational performance is examined. This is done in order to see what researchers say about the relationship and because it is part of this thesis to find out whether Steve Jobs’s rhetorical and linguistic skills can be related to Apple’s performance (chapter 1.1). The view on the relationship between charisma and organizational performance is mixed (Agle et al. 2006, 161). This is seen in the examination below. Some see a direct relationship between the two concepts whereas others do not.

Some of those who see a positive relation between charisma and organizational performance are Howell & Frost (1989). They found that employees under charismatic leaders tend to have higher work and quality performance (Howell & Frost 1989, 263). Koene, Vogelaar & Soeters (2002) agree and state that “the personal involvement of charismatic leaders in their work can make them effective role models, showing their employees involvement, active engagement in work, and a meaningful approach to work” (Koene et al. 2002, 194). In this way, employees could become more committed to their job and hence, become more effective.

In their study conducted in 50 stores of a large retail company, Koene et al. (2002) also found that charismatic leadership has an influence on financial performance and that employees “experience better organizational efficiency, more general communication, and a larger readiness to innovate” (Koene et al. 2002, 210). One of the reasons for this result was that the employees seemed to improve the quality of their work. This has an influence on the

net results (Koene et al. 2002, 210). Koene et al.'s (2002) study was conducted at a lower level of management. However, Agle et al. (2006) argue that it would be applicable to the strategic level of leadership as well (Agle et al. 2006, 161).

As mentioned above, not all research findings suggest that charismatic leadership leads to better organizational performance. Maccoby (2000) disagrees with Howell & Frost (1989) and Koene et al. (2002) and their positive view on charisma and organizational performance. He sees a tendency in business that a charismatic and visionary leader is a necessity and argues that these "larger-than-life leaders" belongs to Freud's personality type the narcissist (Maccoby 2004, 93). Thus, Maccoby sees a connection between charisma and narcissist behavior. It is interesting for this thesis that Maccoby actually mentions Steve Jobs in the beginning of his article (2004, 92). Maccoby argues that narcissists can be unproductive if they turn into unrealistic dreamers (Maccoby 2000, 94). He continues by saying that narcissists

“... nurture grand schemes and harbor the illusion that only circumstances or enemies block their success. This tendency toward grandiosity and distrust is the Achilles' heel of narcissists. Because of it, even brilliant narcissists can come under suspicion for self-involvement, unpredictability, and – in extreme cases – paranoia” (Maccoby 2000, 94)

In this perspective, being narcissistic does not have a positive influence on organizational performance because the narcissist will always to some extent be restricted by himself. Although Maccoby also mentions positive features of charismatic leaders and narcissists (2004, 95-96), it is an interesting point he makes about the downsides.

Awamleh & Gardner (1999) also disagree with Howell & Frost (1989) and Koene et al.'s (2002) findings. They found that the relationship between organizational performance and charisma is backwards. In their study they found that higher performance level caused the subjects to find leaders more charismatic and effective. They explain this with attributional leadership theories which state that “the followers, in their attempt to make sense of organizational outcomes they observe, tend to overattribute successes and failures to leaders” (Awamleh & Gardner 1999, 360). In this perspective, organizational performance leads to a perception of a leader as charismatic rather than the charismatic leader causing improved organizational performance.

In relation to this thesis, the mixed view on charisma and organizational performance is interesting. Because the literature does not agree, it is interesting to see if Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic devices, which constitute charisma, is related to Apple's performance. The views on rhetoric and linguistics and organizational performance are reexamined in chapter 8.

In conclusion, as there is an agreement that language and rhetoric constitute charisma, researchers do not agree whether charisma leads to improved organizational performance. Thus, if a development is found in Steve Jobs' rhetorical and linguistic skills, it is not sure this development can be seen in relation to Apple's organizational performance. Next, the empirical data collection used in this thesis is presented.

5.4 Empirical Data Collection

In this section, the empirical data collection is presented. In order to analyze Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic development, six speeches have been chosen as the point of departure. As was seen in chapters 2 and 3, it is possible to distinguish between three phases related to Steve Jobs's life and career. However, as mentioned in chapter 5.1, no speeches from phase 2 are analyzed because Steve Jobs was not at Apple at this point.

It was also mentioned that there is an imbalance in the speeches available in the three phases. As a consequence, one speech from phase 1 and five speeches from phase 3 are analyzed. Furthermore, it is evident from appendices B-G that the length of the speeches varies. This is due to the fact that it was not considered an important factor when choosing the speeches. In chapter 6.3 it is explained that devices in the speeches are calculated in percentages. Thus, length does not have an influence on the results. Instead of length, the speeches in phase 3 are chosen with an interval of three or four years between each speech to give an even representation of the phase. For some speeches there were other reasons why they were interesting to analyze. These reasons are examined below. Next, the six speeches are introduced and it is explained why they are used in this thesis.

5.4.1 Macintosh Introduction 1984

The speech was given by Steve Jobs on January 24, 1984, at the Apple Shareholder's Meeting ("Steve Jobs Keynotes" 2013). The meeting was held in the Flint Center in Cupertino, California (Elmer-DeWitt 2009). The receivers are Apple's shareholders, but it might be

argued that the press is a secondary receiver as the speech was recorded and because Jobs introduces a new product. Introducing a product to shareholders only would not make sense.

The speech is used in the analysis because it introduces the Macintosh computer. As mentioned in chapter 5.1, only speeches dealing with Apple are analyzed. Furthermore, it has only been possible to find one other speech from this phase. The speech is from the International Design Conference in Aspen in 1983 (The Week Staff 2012). However, as mentioned in chapter 5.1, this speech is not analyzed because there is no visual recording. The transcript of the Macintosh speech and a link to the video are found in appendix B.

Next, speeches from phase 3 are presented. In order to get a representative view on Jobs rhetorical and linguistic development in this phase, five speeches are analyzed. This is due to the fact that many are available (chapter 5.1). Also, in phase 3, Apple's organizational performance really improved (figure 2 + appendix A). So, according to the research that found a positive connection between charisma and organizational performance, a development in rhetoric and linguistics should be seen here.

5.4.2 Macworld 1997

The speech was given by Steve Jobs on August 6, 1997, in Boston (Guglielmo 2012). Today, the Macworld Conference & Expo is known as the Macworld/iWorld conference which is for all sorts of people: "From home users, to artistic hobbyists and professionals, and the true Technorati" ("About Macworld/iWorld 2013" N.Y.). This means that the audience is a mixed crowd and it can thus be assumed that the audience does not have the same knowledge about Apple. Macworld is not hosted by Apple. It is "[o]wned and produced by Framingham Mass.-based IDG World Expo" ("Macworld Conference & Expo Celebrates 24th Successful Year" 2008).

The speech is a little different from the other speeches in that it does not introduce a physical product, but introduces some important changes to the use of the entire Apple computer system, for instance the introduction of Internet Explorer as the default browser. Another reason why the speech has been chosen for analysis is the fact that the audience booed at Steve Jobs because of what he announced (Slattery 2011). This is contradictory to the popular image Steve Jobs had. Also interesting is the fact that Jobs later stated that Bill Gates' appearance in the presentation was a mistake: "it made me [Jobs] look small, and

Apple look small, and if everything was in Bill's hands" (Steve Jobs quoted in Dernbach 2008). A transcript and a link to the speech are found in appendix C.

5.4.3 White iBook Introduction 2001

The white iBook introduction speech was given by Steve Jobs on May 1, 2001, in Apple Town Hall in Cupertino, California ("White iBook introduction – Apple Special Event (2001)" N.Y.). There is no source stating who the receivers are. However, when looking at the video there are indications that the receivers are journalists and members of the press. One indication is the fact that Jobs sends iBooks around in order for the audience to see them. Another indication is the fact that many in the audience take notes.

The speech is chosen because it is a product presentation. In the speech, Steve Jobs introduces the white iBook and says "goodbye to colorful iBooks" ("White iBook introduction – Apple Special Event (2001)" 2013). In this way the speech is directly linked to Apple which was mentioned as a limitation (chapter 5.1). A transcript and a link to the speech are found in appendix D.

5.4.4 European iTunes Store Introduction 2004

The speech that introduced the European iTunes Store was given by Steve Jobs on June 15, 2004. What is interesting about this speech is the fact that it was given at the Old Billingsgate Market in London instead of the in United States ("iTunes Europe introduction – Apple Special Music Event (2004)" N.Y.). iTunes had been introduced in the United States in 2003 (Pfanner 2004) so it is not a speech about a new product but about an introduction to another market. Again, it is not clear who the audience is. But it might be assumed that it is the press and reviewers. This assumption is based on the fact that gift certificates are given to the audience in order for them to try iTunes themselves. Although the speech is given in London, it is, however, still about an Apple product and thus, it is comparable to the other speeches analyzed in this thesis which is why it has been chosen for analysis. The transcript and a link to the video of the speech are found in appendix E.

5.4.5 Macworld 2008

The fourth speech analyzed in phase 3 is from the Macworld Expo in 2008. The event was held in the Moscone Center in San Francisco on January 15 (Krazit 2008). As mentioned above in the description of Macworld 1997, the audience is a mixed crowd. The Macworld Expo in 2008 was the last time Steve Jobs gave the keynote speech. In December 2008, almost a year after this speech, Apple announced that Macworld 2009 would be the last where Apple exhibited its products (“Apple Announces Its Last Year at Macworld” 2008). But in 2009, Steve Jobs didn’t give the keynote speech as had been the tradition for over ten years (Stone 2008).

The speech has been chosen for analysis because it, like the other speeches, introduces new Apple products and as such deals with Apple as a company. Also, the first speech analyzed in phase 3 is from the Macworld Expo in 1997. Having two of this kind of speech ensures that if a development is or is not found it is not a coincidence because of this different kind of speech from the ‘regular’ Apple speeches. A transcript and a link to the Macworld 2008 speech are found in appendix F.

5.4.6 iPad 2 Introduction 2011

The speech was given on March 2, 2011, at the Yerba Buena Center for the Arts Theater in San Francisco (“Steve Jobs unveils Apple’s iPad2”). It was given at a press conference (“iPad 2 OFFICIAL: Price, Release Date, Details From Apple Event” 2011). Thus, the receivers are the press.

The speech is chosen because it is the last product Steve Jobs presented. However, it was not the last speech he gave. The last speech was given at the Apple World Wide Developers Conference (WWDC) (“Steve Jobs Keynotes” 2013). However, the iPad 2 presentation was chosen over the WWDC for a number of reasons. First, in the WWDC speech, three new products are introduced but only one of them is introduced by Steve Jobs. In the iPad 2 speech, only the iPad 2 is presented. In most of the other speeches (appendices B-F), Steve Jobs has other people on the stage presenting but not as much as he does in the WWDC (“Steve Jobs Keynotes” 2013). I thus argue that the WWDC speech is not Steve Jobs’s alone. Second, the introduction of the iPad 2 was the last ‘real’ product presentation since the WWDC speech was given at a conference (“WWDC2012” 2013).

Third, Steve Jobs surprised the audience by presenting the iPad 2 because he was on medical leave at the time (Slattery 2011). Also, Slattery argues that the “keynote didn’t contain the flourishes audiences had grown accustomed to” (2011). This is interesting, as Slattery (2011) at the same time includes the speech in his article called “Top Three Steve Jobs Speeches”. A transcript of the speech and a link to the video are found in appendix G. With this introduction of the six speeches, the next chapter introduces the theory used in this thesis.

Chapter 6: Theory

This chapter introduces the theoretical approach taken in the analysis of the six Steve Jobs speeches.

The approach to analysis is built on Den Hartog & Verburg’s table of *Several (Related) Aspects of the Rhetoric of Charismatic Leaders and Examples of Writings Focusing on those Aspects* which is called the four elements of rhetoric in this thesis (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 361). As is seen in table 1, the four elements of rhetoric consists of four categories; content, composition/structure, communicator style, and delivery. However, in order to conduct a thorough analysis, composition/structure which contains the rhetorical and linguistic analysis is supported by the SPA text analysis model by Ditlevsen et al. (2007). The SPA text analysis model consists of an external and internal analysis of texts (figure 4). However, only the internal text analysis is used in order to establish a framework for the analysis of rhetorical and linguistic devices. Furthermore, because Ditlevsen et al. (2007) sometimes omit definitions of their concepts, others are included to support the model.

The reason why the four elements of rhetoric is used in this thesis is due to the fact that it focuses on charismatic leadership (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 356). Den Hartog & Verburg state that language is important in getting people to see leaders as charismatic (1997, 356). Thus, the same elements used in this thesis are present in Den Hartog & Verburg’s study; rhetoric (language), charisma, and leadership. In the above discussion it was stated that Steve Jobs was charismatic (chapter 5.3). Therefore, the theory chosen also needed to deal with charisma in order to make the best possible and most relevant analysis of his speeches. This corresponds to the inductive approach taken in this thesis; theory is not the point of departure

as in the deductive approach. Instead, observations are and in this case it is the observation that the media claimed that Jobs was charismatic. Therefore, the theory should have an element of this in order to be relevant.

The SPA text analysis model has been chosen because it does not focus on any specific areas within text analysis like the four elements of rhetoric does. Instead, the model is an approach to analysis with empty boxes that need to be filled (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 66). Thus, by inserting it in the four elements of rhetoric, there are no conflicts between the purposes of the two models.

Another reason why the SPA text analysis model has been chosen is because it is built on other models to text analysis (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 66). Thus, it is assumed that the model has been worked with thoroughly and contains the most important elements of text analysis since Ditlevsen et al. have found them relevant to base their own model on.

After this brief introduction to the theory used in this thesis, an overall description of the four elements of rhetoric is given. Then, a more thorough description of each of the four elements follows. The SPA text analysis model is introduced in the composition/structure section which also contains an examination of the differences between the concepts rhetoric and linguistics. The chapter ends with an evaluation of the theoretical approach and a practical description of the approach the analysis.

6.1 Four elements of rhetoric

In their study, Den Hartog & Verburg argue that international strategy and management mentality can be seen in speech content although other aspects are relevant as well when examining charismatic rhetoric (1997, 361). Therefore, Den Hartog & Verburg created the table with the four elements of rhetoric (table 1). Although Den Hartog & Verburg's focus is different from the focus of this thesis, to trace a development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills (chapter 1.1), the four elements of rhetoric also examines rhetoric and linguistics in speeches and includes what is relevant to look at in speeches when dealing with rhetoric and charismatic leaders (chapter 5.3).

Table 1 shows the four elements of rhetoric. It consists of Den Hartog & Verburg's overall description of the categories and then the names of researchers who have worked with the categories. This means that Den Hartog & Verburg have only invented the framework but not the categories.

Table 1. Four Elements of Rhetoric (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 361)

<i>Message</i>		<i>Person</i>	
<i>Content</i>	<i>Composition / structure</i>	<i>Communicator style</i>	<i>Delivery</i>
→ what the speech is about	→ how the message is framed through the use of metaphors, or other rhetorical devices (p.e. alliteration, rhythm, contrasts, lists)	→ the way in which one communicates, p.e. friendly, dominant	→ the actual delivery of the speech including non-verbal aspects, such as facial expressions, eye-contact, gestures, tone of voice
Sashkin, 1988 Conger, 1989 Shamir et al., 1994	Atkinson, 1984 Conger, 1989 Willner, 194 Fairhurst & Sarr, 1996	Norton, 1983 Luthans & Larsen, 1986 Holladay & Coombs, 1993; 1994	Friedman et al. (1980) Holladay & Coombs, 1992; 1994

Den Hartog & Verburg make a distinction between the message and the person presenting the message. In the message section, a further distinction is made between the content and the composition/structure of the message. The other section, *person*, is divided into communicator style and delivery.

Content presents what the speech is about (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 361). Den Hartog & Verburg refer to Shamir, Arthur & House (1994) who developed seven propositions about the expected content in speeches given by charismatic leaders (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 360). Composition/structure contains more aspects as it includes various rhetorical devices. Interestingly, Den Hartog & Verburg also include linguistic devices here, although they only mention rhetoric in the table (1997, 362). Therefore, the analysis of composition/structure is divided into a rhetorical part and a linguistic part. The SPA text analysis model is included in composition/structure to give structure to the analysis of rhetorical and linguistic devices. It is found that there are overlaps between Den Hartog & Verburg and Ditlevsen et al.'s linguistic devices. Thus, this justifies that the SPA text analysis model is included. Examples of overlaps are metaphors, rhyme, and alliteration.

In the person section, Den Hartog & Verburg describes communicator style as “the way in which one communicates” (1997, 362). It is the role the speaker takes on when communicating the message, for example friendly or dramatic (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 363). Den Hartog & Verburg refer to a definition by Norton that includes looking at verbal, nonverbal, and paraverbal language to determine the communicator style (Norton 1983, 19;

Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 362). Delivery is rather similar to communicator style as it also considers nonverbal communication. However, delivery is closer connected to the presentation of the message and includes factors such as speaking rate and fluency (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 362).

In the next four sections, the four elements are examined further and it is explained which devices are included in the analysis of the Steve Jobs speeches. The elements included in the analysis are collected in table 2 in the end of this section.

6.1.1 Content

The first element is content which along with composition/structure is on the message side of the four elements of rhetoric. Content is described as “what the speech is about” (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 361). In this thesis, content is made up by Shamir et al.’s (1994) propositions about content in speeches of charismatic leaders.

Den Hartog & Verburg focus on the study by Shamir et al., who found seven topics that charismatic leaders are more likely to address than non-charismatic leaders. These seven topics are one of the best ways for speakers to engage in frame alignment (1994, 360). Frame alignment is the way in which the speaker’s goals become aligned with the receivers’ beliefs, values, and interests (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 360). The seven ways of establishing a frame are summed up in figure 3.

In comparison with the speeches of noncharismatic leaders, the speeches of charismatic leaders will contain:

1. More references to collective history and to the continuity between the past and the present;
 2. More references to the collective and to collective identity, and fewer references to individual selfinterest;
 3. More positive references to followers’ worth and efficacy as individuals and as a collective;
 4. More references to the leader’s similarity to followers and identification with followers;
 5. More references to values and moral justifications, and fewer references to tangible outcomes and instrumental justifications;
 6. More references to distal goals and the distant future, and fewer references to proximal goals and the near future; and
 7. More references to hope and faith.
-

Figure 3. Content of charismatic leaders’ speeches (Shamir et al. 1994, 29)

It is seen in figure 3 that most of the topics deal with the leader trying to establish some kind of common ground for both parties, for instance by referring to shared history (1), collective identity (2), the future (6), and by not referring to own interests (2).

In the analysis (chapter 7), these seven topics are identified and evaluated. It is possible that if there is a development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills, the topics would be addressed more often in his later speeches because some find that charisma is linked to organizational performance (chapter 5.3) – and Apple was at its best performance just before Jobs died in 2011 (chapter 3 + appendix A). Next, the approach to composition/structure is explained.

6.1.2 Composition/Structure

The second element is composition/structure; the second part of the message side in the four elements of rhetoric. This element is the most comprehensive as both rhetorical and linguistic devices are included. The SPA text analysis model is inserted in order to structure the element. Therefore, there are many devices in this category whereas the others consist of only one or a few devices for analysis.

This section proceeds with an introduction of the SPA text analysis model. The focus is on the internal text analysis which is the one used in this thesis. After that, an examination of the difference between rhetoric and linguistics is given because neither the four elements of rhetoric nor the SPA text analysis model give such an explanation. Also, these concepts have been used often in this thesis, but up until now a distinction has not been relevant. First, however, the SPA text analysis model is explained.

6.1.2.1 The SPA Text Analysis Model

Although only one part of the SPA text analysis model, the internal text analysis, is used in this thesis, it is necessary to look at all of it. Therefore, the next section gives a brief introduction to it. The SPA text analysis model is developed by Ditlevsen et al. (2007). However, they refer to it as the 'analysis model' (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 67. My translation).

Therefore, in this thesis the model is called ‘the SPA text analysis model’ after the name of the book in which it is found³.

The SPA text analysis model does not have a specific focus but is an approach to analysis with empty boxes that need to be filled (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 66). This means that the model can be used in basically all areas where text analysis is needed. That is why it is found relevant here. Figure 4 shows the SPA text analysis model.

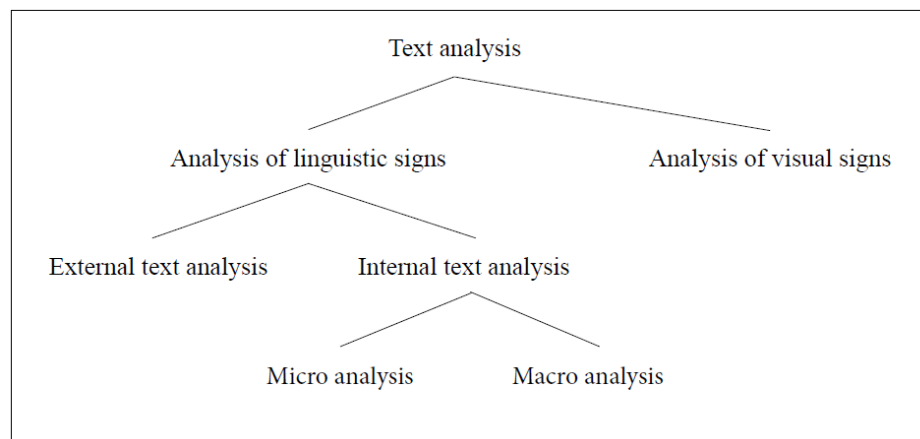


Figure 4. The SPA text analysis model (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 67. My translation)

The first note that should be made about figure 4 is the heading ‘analysis of linguistic signs’. This means that most devices in the model belong in the linguistic section of the analysis of composition/structure. However, one element, text structure, is found to belong to rhetoric under another name. This is explicated below. It is also seen in figure 4 that focus is on the analysis of linguistic signs as there are no sub-categories in the analysis of visual signs. Although the analysis of visual signs might seem comparable to communicator style and delivery in the four elements of rhetoric, this is not the case as Ditlevsen et al. only focus on images, that is, still pictures (2007, 151).

The first part of the analysis of linguistic signs is the external text analysis. According to Ditlevsen et al., it consists of the elements surrounding the text such as sender, receiver, context, and functions (2007, 67). The external analysis is not used in the analysis. However, because the elements presented are basic for any text analysis, the sender, receiver, and

³ This name should not be confused with the model called the SPA model by Ditlevsen et al. (2007, 34). The SPA model is introduced in the beginning of the book and the rest of the book examines the parts of the model (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 33). What is called the SPA text analysis model in this thesis is in fact the part of the SPA model that deals with text analysis.

context are mentioned while functions are touched upon briefly in the linguistics section below.

Context consists of many elements. Examples are publicity, social status of the sender and the receiver, medium, and pre-suppositions (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 55-61), but only time and place are considered here (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 56 + 57). This is due to that fact that the excluded components would require analysis that is irrelevant for this thesis. Sender, receiver, and context are not part of the analyses but they were mentioned in the empirical data collection. Sender and context are also repeated in appendices B-G.

The next part of the SPA text analysis model is the part used in this thesis. The internal text analysis is divided into a micro and a macro analysis. The purpose of the micro analysis is to isolate the pieces of the text. It consists of four categories; words, phrases, sentences, and metaphors/figures⁴/word play. The first three categories all have in common that they have single words as their point of departure although they might consist of more than one word. The last category is different because it can be found in the other categories (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 73).

As six speeches are analyzed, an analysis of each word, phrase, and sentence would be too comprehensive. However, words and phrases that are often used across the speeches are examined along with interrogative sentences. Words and phrases are analyzed as part of coherence because they can be related to key nouns (introduced below). Sentences are analyzed as part of cohesion. As is evident from the macro analysis introduced next, coherence and cohesion are both terms used by Ditlevsen et al. They are explicated in the linguistics section below. The last category, which I call figures of speech, is addressed as part of linguistic devices. Furthermore, as Ditlevsen et al.'s description is not exhaustive, others are included in the description of figures of speech.

The macro analysis consists of three categories; text structure, themes, and cohesion. In the macro analysis, elements of the text are looked at individually like they were in the micro analysis. But in the macro analysis they are always seen in relation to the rest of the text – and in relation to the text as a whole, not divided into smaller parts. According to Ditlevsen et al., the first two categories, text structure and themes, contribute to the establishment of coherence (2007, 80). Text structure is an examination of the parts that the text consists of, for instance introduction and conclusion (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 80). I argue that text structure can

⁴ “Stilfigurer” (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 73)

be equated with *dispositio* which is a rhetorical device (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 72). As such, it is not analyzed as coherence in this thesis although it is recognized that *dispositio* establishes coherence. *Dispositio* is examined in rhetoric below.

Themes are a means to establish coherence. They consist of words that belong to the same idea. Ditlevsen et al. argue that the examination of themes is not a recognized way to analyze linguistics in a text but that it is just a method (2007, 80). However, interestingly, themes are closely related to what Oshima & Hogue (2006) call key nouns. Key nouns are examined later.

The last category of the macro analysis, means of establishing cohesion, is not described thoroughly by Ditlevsen et al. because they argue that the concepts are rather explanatory (2007, 81). The four means are pronouns, pronominal adverbs, conjunctions, and tense. As only conjunctions are used in the analysis of cohesion, the lacking descriptions are not considered a problem. Pronouns, pronominal adverbs, and tense are not found relevant. In the linguistics section below, other means for establishing cohesion are introduced. These other means are the ones mentioned by Den Hartog & Verburg (1997, 364) and by Ditlevsen et al. (2007) themselves.

After this introduction, it should be stressed that the analysis of linguistics in composition/structure is not divided into a micro and a macro analysis because only figures of speech are used from the micro analysis. Instead, another distinction Ditlevsen et al. also mention is made, that is, the one between coherence and cohesion. It is argued later that figures of speech are not part of either coherence or cohesion but are analyzed by themselves.

With this introduction of the SPA text analysis model, the basis is made for looking at the rhetorical and linguistic devices included in the analysis of composition/structure. However, first it is necessary to look at these two concepts to find out what distinguishes them from each other. Therefore, the next section looks at the difference between rhetoric and linguistics.

6.1.2.2 Difference between rhetoric and linguistics

In order to get an understanding of the division of composition/structure into rhetorical and linguistic devices, it is necessary to look at the differences between the two concepts. Plett (1985) states that originally, rhetoric was a technique used to produce persuasive texts. For 2,500 years, the technique was handed down from one generation to another and used for production of texts such as political speeches, letters, and advertisements (1985, 59). Enkvist

adds that rhetoric can be loosely defined as the “branch of language study which is teleologically oriented towards effective communication” (1985, 16). That is, the purpose of communication for rhetoricians is effectiveness.

On the other hand, linguistics is a much younger field of study than rhetoric. Modern linguistics is usually seen as having its starting point in Ferdinand de Saussure, however, the discipline modern scientific linguistics already developed in the 19th century. At that time, the main focus was to find similarities between languages and to find the ancestor of languages (Clark 2006, 230). One type of linguistics today, which is relevant for this thesis, is text linguistics. Sanders & Sanders argue that text linguists are becoming closer connected to grammarians, semanticists, and pragmaticists (2006, 604). This suggests that linguistics focus on smaller levels of texts compared to rhetoric. Also, Enkvist argues that linguists are used to levels and to operating with(in) sentences. However, rhetorical concepts were developed to span beyond sentences and to operate on multiple levels at once, for instance on word, sentence, and discourse level (1985, 14).

To state exactly where the line between rhetoric and linguistics is seems impossible. But Enkvist (1985), who also studies stylistics, argues that

“... there are great areas of overlap between text and discourse linguistics, rhetoric and stylistics. And there will be chauvinistic protagonists of each discipline who like to subordinate the others to their own interests. But such discussions about territorial integrities will all too often degenerate into squabbles about terms rather than about substance. The most important thing is that a job gets done. Under what label it gets done is of less importance” (1985: 25-26).

Enkvist backs his statement about the border between rhetoric and linguistics not being clear by referring to the fact that the definitions of rhetoric and linguistics have changed from time to time and from one school to another (1985, 11). In sum, difference between rhetoric and linguistics in this thesis is based on the notion that rhetoric works with the whole text at once and that linguistics looks at smaller parts of the text such as words and sentences although these are found in the whole text. Also, it is recognized that rhetoric is created by linguistic devices, but linguistic devices are not always found to have a rhetorical effect. Furthermore, rhetorical devices take their point of departure in classical rhetoric. The rhetorical devices in composition/structure are *dispositio*, which divides the text into parts,

and language appeals. Linguistics is divided into figures of speech, coherence, and cohesion. Next, rhetorical devices are examined.

6.1.2.3 Rhetoric

The rhetoric used in this thesis takes its point of departure in classical rhetoric and includes dispositio and language appeals. It was argued above that text structure in the SPA text analysis model is the same as dispositio because both deal with the overall parts of a text (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 80; Jensen & Olesen 2003, 72). Dispositio is part of the five linear phases of preparation within classical rhetoric. They are inventio, dispositio, elocutio (choosing what language to use (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 75)), memoria, and actio (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 67 + 68). Jensen & Olesen argue that the phases were tools to prepare a speech but that they are also useful when analyzing texts (2007, 67). For now, the only phase relevant for the analysis of the Steve Jobs speeches is dispositio. Elocutio is examined in delivery below.

Dispositio consists of five parts; exordium, partitio, narratio, argumentatio, and peroratio (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 72). It is not necessary to use all parts in every speech and they need not be in the same fixed order (Edney 1956, 39-40). Exordium is the introduction which has the purpose of gaining the attention and good will of the audience (Edney 1956, 40). Exordium should make clear what the text is about (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 72). Partitio is often short and tells the receivers about the content of the rest of the text (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 73).

The next two phases, narratio and argumentatio are often mixed and difficult to distinguish from each other (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 74). Narratio is a presentation of the subject without any unnecessary information. It should give attention to facts such as names, dates and places (Edney 1956, 41). Argumentatio, on the other hand, argues for or against the subject(s) mentioned in narratio (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 74). Finally, peroratio is the conclusion of the text. The conclusion can either be the climatic point of the text or sum up the arguments (Edney 1956, 43). By summing up the most important points of the text, a speaker makes sure that the receivers will remember it clearly (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 74). By looking at the way Steve Jobs divides his speeches into the five parts of dispositio, it might be possible to trace a development in this rhetorical process.

The second part of rhetorical devices used in this thesis is the three modes of persuasion formed by Aristotle; the ethos, logos, and pathos appeals (Hannah & Jennings 2013, 15). Ethos has to do with the speaker's credibility and image. The sender uses his credibility to convince the audience about his cause. But other credible sources used as backing for one's cause is also an ethos appeal (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 80). Logos reflects the logic of arguments (Hannah & Jennings 2013, 13). It is ideally objective and could consist of statistics and economical figures (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 80). Pathos deals with the speaker's ability to evoke emotions in the audience (Hannah & Jennings 2013, 13). Usually a text will be dominated by one of the appeals, but they may all be found within a text (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 79).

The three appeals are included because they are part of classical rhetoric. In the four elements of rhetoric, Den Hartog & Verburg (1997) refers to four studies in the analysis of composition/structure. However, they all deal with linguistics (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 363). For instance, they mention repetition and alliterations which are dealt with in the analysis of cohesion below and metaphors which are also examined in the next section. Thus, it was found necessary to include classical rhetoric.

Furthermore, the three appeals can be seen in connection to functions of texts mentioned by Ditlevsen et al. (2007). Ditlevsen et al. place functions in the context analysis and base them on Bühler's examination of the area. Bühler works with three functions in a text; expressive, appellative, and informative. He argues that all three are found in a text but that only one will be dominant (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 40). The expressive function is oriented towards the sender and examines how and how much the sender expresses his opinions, position or feelings (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 43). The appellative function deals with the receivers and how the text tries to influence them to change their opinions or behavior (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 46). Finally, the informative function focuses on the subject(s) of the text. Examples are "objects, persons, conditions, connections or concepts" (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 47. My translation).

Although appeals and functions are not technically the same, there are some overlaps. For instance, an expressive text focuses on the sender and ethos deals with the credibility of the sender to convince the audience about his cause (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 43; Jensen & Olesen 2003, 80). Also, appellative texts examine how the text affects the receiver (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 46). The same is the case with pathos. However, logos and the informative function

cannot be compared directly. Finally, it is interesting that with both text functions and appeals, one of the three will dominate the text (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 40; Jensen & Olesen 2003, 79). Because the appeals and the functions are almost similar, only appeals are analyzed and identified in the speeches in order to avoid overlaps. The informative function is somehow covered by the content category examined above as it also deals with subjects/topics in speeches (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 47).

In sum, the rhetorical analysis of the Steve Jobs speeches consists of *dispositio* and modes of persuasion. Next, the linguistic devices are introduced.

6.1.2.4 Linguistics

The analysis of linguistic devices in the Steve Jobs speeches is based on Ditlevsen et al.'s internal text analysis which consists of a micro and a macro analysis. However, as argued above, the analysis of linguistics in this thesis is divided into coherence and cohesion as only metaphors/figures/word play – or figures of speech – are used from the micro analysis. Figures of speech are the first to be examined. Next, coherence and cohesion are looked into.

The first part of the analysis of linguistics is figures of speech. As mentioned earlier, they are not part of either coherence or cohesion. This is due to the fact that researchers seem to disagree whether they should be analyzed as part of rhetoric or linguistics. In this thesis, however, they are analyzed as part of linguistics. This decision is based on the fact that both Ditlevsen et al. (2007, 79) and Den Hartog & Verburg (1997, 364) place metaphors on the linguistic level. Thus, as they serve as the framework for the analysis of speeches in this thesis, figures of speech are part of the linguistic analysis despite the fact that they are sometimes seen as a rhetorical device. This is seen in Shen, as he notes that figures of speech are “sometimes termed a ‘rhetorical figure’” (2006, 459). Jensen & Olesen agree on this and refer to “rhetorical tropes and figures” (2003, 78). However, Shen also argues that the study of figures of speech recently has moved from traditional rhetoric to poetics and again to cognitive sciences where linguistics is included (2006, 459).

After this discussion of where figures of speech belong, it is necessary to look at what they are. Shen describes figures of speech as “a word or a group of words used in some deviation from the strict literal sense of the word(s), or from the more commonly used form of word order or sentence construction” (2006, 459). Ditlevsen et al. only include metaphors as a figure of speech (2007, 77), but Shen also includes similes, oxymoron, metonymy, and irony

(2006, 460-462). For this thesis, it is not relevant to find out what type a certain figure of speech is but rather how often they are used. Therefore, a description and definition of each are not included here.

Interestingly, Ditlevsen et al. also include rhyme and alliterations in the same category where metaphors are. These are named 'figures' (2007, 77-78). They are, however, placed under cohesion in this thesis in order to avoid confusion with figures of speech. Next, coherence is examined.

Ditlevsen et al. do not define coherence. Thus, the definition used in this thesis is the one Collins & Hollo give:

“If a text, spoken or written, appears to “hang together” rather than being a random collection of sentences, it is said to have coherence. Such a text would make sense because it would appear logical and consistent in its development and structure, and would not contradict any of our presuppositions and knowledge about our world” (2000, 251).

In the analysis of coherence, Ditlevsen et al. mention text structure and themes. Text structure was introduced above as a rhetorical device – *dispositio*. Above, it was argued that themes are similar to Oshima & Hogue's notion of repetition of key nouns. They argue that a way to establish coherence is to repeat key nouns often (2006, 22). In this thesis, key nouns are dealt with by looking at ideas repeated throughout the text. Key nouns should not be confused with repetition dealt with in cohesion. Key nouns are identified by being used in the various parts of *dispositio* while repetition in cohesion is found within a distance of sentences only.

Words and phrases from the micro analysis are also part of coherence. Words and phrases are not used according to Ditlevsen et al.'s (2007) definitions. Instead, they are identified if they appear across the texts, for instance if Steve Jobs have a specific expression or topic used often throughout his speeches. As such, it is not coherence within a text but rather across texts.

The last part of the linguistic analysis in this thesis is cohesion. Ditlevsen et al. shortly describes cohesion as an attempt to get an overview and create consistency (2007, 226). However, this definition is rather vague and could be confused with the one for coherence above. Thus, the definition used in this thesis is “the devices that are used to relate parts of one sentence to parts of another across spans of texts” (Stillar 1998, 48). From the macro

analysis, only conjunctions are used as a means to establish cohesion in this thesis (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 81). However, as mentioned above, rhyme and alliteration, which are parts of figures in the micro analysis, are analyzed as means of establishing cohesion as well. Furthermore, parallelism and repetition are examined as well as words/phrases and sentences from the micro analysis.

Conjunctions are not explained by Ditlevsen et al. (2007). Thus, it has been necessary to look at others' definitions. According to Stillar, "cohesion through conjunction occurs when one sentence is marked as having a particular 'logical' relation to previous text" (1998, 50). Conjunctions can be divided into four categories; additive, adversative, causal, and temporary (Stillar 1998, 50; Collins & Hollo 2000, 172). In the analyses, conjunctions are identified by these four categories.

Rhyme and alliteration were mentioned by Ditlevsen et al. in connection to metaphors in the microanalysis. However, as seen above, metaphors have been placed in the group called figures of speech. Nevertheless, rhyme and alliterations are important. This is seen by the fact that Den Hartog & Verburg also include them (1997, 364). Therefore, they are placed in the analysis of cohesion following the placement here by Collins & Hollo (2000, 174). Collins & Hollo also mention parallelism which they also call word play. Word play was also mentioned by Ditlevsen et al. who define it as "different [...] ways to play with the language" (2007, 79). Parallelism exists when the same structure is used in more than one phrase or sentence (Collins & Hollo 2000, 175).

Another part of cohesion is repetition. According to Den Hartog & Verburg, repetition is along with metaphors, rhyme, and alliteration the "most frequently used to provide some insight in the composition of speeches by charismatic leaders" (1997, 364). Both repetition and rhyme are receiver-oriented as they make the audience remember ideas better because they attract attention (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 364). However, other than that Den Hartog & Verburg do not elaborate on repetition. Collins & Hollo argue that repetition is repetition of the exact same word, or other figures such as hyponymy, synonymy and antonymy (2000, 173).

Finally, the last part of cohesion is sentences. The reason why they are placed here is because of the focus on sentences which is mentioned in the definition of cohesion above. Ditlevsen et al. mention length, structure, and types of sentences – declarative, interrogative etc. – as interesting to analyze (2007, 75). However, only interrogative sentences are analyzed

because they are a way to involve the audience. Thus, they are interesting in a communication situation.

In sum, the linguistic analysis in composition/structure consists of three overall categories – figures of speech, coherence, and cohesion. Coherence and cohesion both have sub-categories. In coherence, key nouns and word/phrases are analyzed and in cohesion, conjunctions, rhyme, alliteration, parallelism, repetition, and sentences are looked into. As mentioned in the beginning of the section, the composition/structure category is rather comprehensive. Therefore, to get an overview, table 2 shows the devices analyzed in the speeches. Next, communicator style is examined.

6.1.3 Communicator style

The third element of the four elements of rhetoric is communicator style. It is part of the person side which means that focus has now shifted from the content of the speeches, the message side, to the sender. Communicator style is described as “the way in which one communicates” (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 361; Holladay & Coombs 1993, 411; Norton 1983, 47). Both Den Hartog & Verburg (1997) and Holladay & Coombs (1993) refer to Norton’s definition of communicator style as “the way one verbally, nonverbally, and paraverbally interacts to signal how literal meaning should be taken, interpreted, filtered or understood” (1983, 19). Furthermore, Norton also describes communicator style in interpersonal communication as “the signals that are provided to help process, interpret, filter, or understand literal meaning” (1983, 47). Thus, communicator style deals with both verbal and nonverbal communication in order to describe how someone communicates.

Communicator style is characterized by four traits. They are observable, multifaceted, multicollinear, and variable, but sufficiently patterned. The first trait, observable, is rather self-explanatory. Multifaceted means that a person does not have one particular communication style but many or aspects of many styles. The fact that communicator style is multicollinear means that the various styles are not independent from each other but can exist simultaneously (Norton 1983, 48). Finally, style as “variable, but sufficiently patterned” means that a person can communicate differently than he really is, that he can adjust his communication to deviate from his usual style pattern (Norton 1983, 49).

Norton operates with ten communicator style subconstructs (Norton 1983, 64). They are not described in detail here, but figure 5 below briefly examines them. However, in the

analysis of the speeches the styles found are of course accounted for, but at this state figure 5 suffices. It should be noted that the figure is created by Holladay & Coombs who also include an eleventh factor, precise. This is not mentioned by Norton (1983). However, since it is mentioned by Holladay & Coombs it is not excluded from the analysis. Except from the 'precise' factor, the figure follows Norton's own descriptions (see Norton 1983, 65-72).

Animated	The use of expressive nonverbal behaviors such as facial expression, eye contact, gestures, and body movements that reveal feelings
Attentive	Attending to others in ways that let others know they are being listened to; closely related to friendly
Contentious	The tendency to be argumentative and willing to debate points
Dominant	Communicator style indicates desire to take charge and control interaction
Dramatic	Tendency to dramatize points through exaggeration, emphasis, joking, storytelling, and other dramatic devices
Friendly	Positive recognition of others through behavior that encourages and validates; closely related to attentive
Open	Being frank, approachable, and willing to disclose information about one's self
Precise	Reflects a concern for accurate and precise communication of ideas
Relaxed	Indicates the degree to which anxiety is evident, as demonstrated through nonverbal and paraverbal communication
Impression leaving	Assesses the extent to which a person is remembered as a result of his or her manner of communicating; the communication and person are memorable as a result of the way something is said; impression leaving is closely related to communicator image and also can act as a dependent variable
Communicator image	Reflects one's abilities as a communicator; it involves evaluation of communicative ability with both strangers and known others; for this reason, communicator image may be used as a dependent variable

Figure 5. Communicator style subconstructs (Holladay & Coombs 1993, 413)

In relation to this thesis, it is particularly interesting that some subconstructs have been found to be related to charisma. Holladay & Coombs found that friendly, attentive, dominant, and open were all predictors of charisma, where friendly and attentive were the best predictors (1993, 421). In another study, Holladay & Coombs also found that the relaxed and dominant styles were predictors of perceptions of leader charisma (1994, 178). This means that these six subconstructs are particularly interesting in relation to Steve Jobs. For instance, if they are found in the last speeches, but not in the first, it could be correlated to Apple's organizational performance.

To sum up, communicator style consists of eleven subconstructs. A person can have more than one style of communication. As was seen in figure 5 and in the definition of communicator style, the subconstructs are made up by both verbal and nonverbal cues. In the next section, delivery, these nonverbal cues are examined along with other factors such as eloquence and fluency of speech.

6.1.4 Delivery

At first, it may seem rather difficult to distinguish communicator style from delivery when Den Hartog & Verburg define delivery as “the actual delivery of the speech including nonverbal aspects” (1997, 361). They also argue that the difference between communicator style and delivery is the fact that “delivery is less broad and refers to the actual presentation of the message, including nonverbal aspects and expressive behavior” (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 362). Holladay & Coombs make the distinction clearer as they argue that “[d]elivery represents one facet of the style construct as manifest through nonverbal and paraverbal communication” (1993, 411). Thus, by looking at the elements in delivery one is able to determine parts of the communicator style. These elements are examined below.

According to Holladay & Coombs, charismatic delivery factors consist of “eye contact, fluid rate, gestures, facial expressiveness, energy, eloquence, and voice tone variety” (1993, 408). Interestingly, eloquence can be related to *elocutio* which is the next step in preparation of speeches after *dispositio* which was discussed above.

Elocutio was recognized by Aristotle as an important part in order for a speech to be successful, and Cicero even emphasized delivery. However, it was not until the 18th century that delivery was examined in detail, and only in the 1960s delivery returned to communication research. Holladay & Coombs state that consistently, research has found that a strong delivery yields stronger credibility (1993, 409).

Elocutio consists of four parts: *aptum*, *puritas*, *perspicuitas*, and *ornatus*. *Aptum* means that the language is appropriate for the text, that is, whether it fits the audience, topic, and speaker. *Puritas* has to do with the language being flawless and without grammar mistakes (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 75). *Puritas* is thus compatible to Holladay & Coombs’ notion that delivery also looks at fluency rate (1993, 408). *Perspicuitas* means clarity, both in the sense that the language needs to be understandable but also that the text needs to be clearly formulated and easily understood (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 76). Finally, *ornatus* deals with aesthetics. Jensen & Olesen mention figures of speech, repetitions and comparison as means to establish *ornatus* (2003, 78). Thus, *ornatus* is found in composition/structure examined above. It should be noted here what was mentioned in the description of the relationship between rhetoric and linguistics above; rhetoric is made up by linguistic devices, but not all linguistic devices influence rhetoric.

The rest of the factors found in delivery are eye contact, gestures, facial expressiveness, energy, and voice tone variety. In their study, Holladay & Coombs (1994) manipulated delivery by instructing an actor to have either a strong or a weak delivery on the four factors eye contact, gestures, facial expressions, and vocal variety (1994, 172). Eye contact and facial expressions are rather explanatory, gestures involve the use of hand movements, and weak vocal variety is characterized by monotony (Holladay & Coombs 1994, 185). They found that strong delivery, that is, where the four factors were used more, had the strongest effect on the perception of charisma (Holladay & Coombs 1994, 179). In this thesis, the factors are identified in the analyses. However, as they are also part of determining the communicator styles used by Steve Jobs there is not much emphasis on them in the analyses other than identification. However, if there are significant differences in the amounts of nonverbal factors, this is of course accounted for.

In sum, the analysis of delivery consists of an examination of elocutio and the nonverbal factors eye contact, gestures, facial expressiveness, and vocal variety. The final part of this section is table 2 which sums up the approach to the analysis of the speeches. After that, an evaluation of the theoretical approach is made

Table 2. Overview of Analysis Approach

Message		Person	
Content	Composition/ Structure	Communicator Style	Delivery
Shamir et al. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Seven topics which charismatic leaders are more likely to use than non-charismatic leaders 	Rhetoric <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dispositio Modes of persuasion Linguistics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Figures of speech Coherence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Key nouns Words and phrases Cohesion <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conjunction Rhyme Alliteration Parallelism Repetition Sentences 	Norton and Holladay & Coombs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 11 Style Subconstructs 	Elocutio Non-verbal factors <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Eye contact Gestures Facial expressions Vocal variety

6.2 Evaluation of the Theoretical Approach

After the introduction of the theoretical approach in this thesis, it is necessary to critically assess it. In this section, both Den Hartog & Verburg's four elements of rhetoric and Ditlevsen et al.'s SPA text analysis model are evaluated. First, the four elements of rhetoric is examined.

Both positive and negative things can be said about the four elements of rhetoric, which serves as a framework for the analysis of the Steve Jobs speeches. The first issue that needs to be addressed is the fact that Den Hartog & Verburg (1997) do not make the distinction between communicator style and delivery very clear or give much attention to it. However, it has no impact on this thesis. Den Hartog & Verburg (1997) refer to other studies that have worked with the concepts. Thus, these studies were used in this thesis where they are necessary.

Another matter that needs to be addressed here is the fact that Den Hartog & Verburg do not elaborate on the distinction between message and person because they focus "primarily on the 'message side' of rhetoric" (1997, 362). However, the distinction seems to be based on extensive research within the field of charismatic rhetoric. This notion is based on table 1 with the four elements of rhetoric where three to four studies are mentioned in each category. For instance, Holladay & Coombs argue that there are two areas to examine when dealing with charismatic leadership; "the content of the leader messages and [...] the presentation of the messages" (1993, 407). This corresponds to the message and the person sides of the four elements of rhetoric.

It could be assumed that some elements are left out in the four elements of rhetoric as one study cannot cover all theories within one entire field. Especially in the composition/structure category, it was found that there are no elements of classical rhetoric even though rhetoric is a central concept in the model. This is noteworthy because Den Hartog & Verburg actually mention Aristotle (1997, 361). However, as the model is supplemented by the SPA text analysis model and other relevant theories, I argue that the four elements of rhetoric serves as a nearly complete point of departure for the analysis of Steve Jobs's speeches. Furthermore, due to the focus on charismatic leadership, the four elements of rhetoric includes only the relevant devices for analysis of the topic.

Another problem could be the fact that the point of departure in this thesis is taken in a model that only consists of others' research. Den Hartog & Verburg do not elaborate on why the elements are included. Also, the fact that the model is from 1997 makes it rather old. On the other hand, Den Hartog & Verburg argue that "although communication of vision and leader rhetoric are deemed important, only little explanation is available about why leader rhetoric is related to charisma or what makes a speech charismatic..." (1997, 359). Shamir et al. note the same; there are no explanations why rhetoric is linked to charisma (1994, 26).

Most recent research about rhetoric and charisma has focused on presidential rhetoric (e.g. Emrich, Brower, Feldman, & Garland 2001; Bligh, Kohles, & Meindl 2004; Seyranian & Bligh 2008; Schroedel, Bligh, Merolla, Gonzalez 2013) or on lower management as noted by Agle et al. (2006) (chapter 5.3). Thus, Den Hartog & Verburg's four elements of rhetoric was found to be the best for this thesis as it also focused on leaders of big international companies (Den Hartog & Verburg 1997, 356). The next part of this section gives an evaluation of the SPA text analysis model.

The first note about the SPA text analysis model that needs to be made is the fact that many elements are not used in this thesis. However, it is important to stress that the SPA text analysis model is used just as much as a limiting model as an enabling model. There are almost unlimited factors to look at in a text, and without limits the analysis could easily lose its focus. Interesting, however, is the fact that Ditlevsen et al. seem to limit themselves in that they only include still pictures in the analysis of visual signs. It would make sense if Ditlevsen et al. solely focused on *written* texts but several times they indicate that they also include oral correspondence as texts (e.g. 2007, 29 and 31). Also, they even include a model that take in visual signs such as eye contact and shaking one's head (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 29).

A problem already addressed above is the fact that Ditlevsen et al. do not describe all their concepts in detail. For instance, conjunctions are used in the macro analysis but it has been necessary to include Stillar's (1998) and Collins & Hollo's (2000) definitions of the concept. Although it might be seen as a weakness of Ditlevsen et al.'s model, it can be seen as a force in this thesis that others are included to support the concepts in the SPA text analysis model. This also shows that the concepts are not just randomly selected but that there are in fact others who have worked with them before.

It should also be noted that I am aware that the SPA text analysis model is part of a larger model which focuses on communication as a whole where the text is just an undefined

concept. The SPA text analysis model is part of what is called the triangle model (my translation). The triangle model focuses on the text and the relations between the elements found in the SPA text analysis model (Ditlevsen et al. 2007, 99). But only the SPA text analysis model is used in this thesis as it is merged with the four elements of rhetoric instead of the triangle model.

According to Ditlevsen et al., the triangle model is necessary is because the data extracted from the text in the SPA text analysis model need to be connected in order to find out how the text works in the situation (2007, 95). That is not the reason why the SPA text analysis model is used in this thesis. Although the concepts from the SPA text analysis model are not just identified, they are not connected to each other *within* the speeches. Instead, the data are compared *across* the speeches to find out whether there is a development. Therefore, only the SPA text analysis model is used in this thesis.

Finally, the fact that it has been necessary to make a synthesis between the four elements of rhetoric and the SPA text analysis model is both a weakness and an advantage. First, the use of a synthesis could be a weakness because it has not been tested before. As such, it cannot be compared to other studies. However, if other researchers should want to test my results or theoretical method, it is possible as it is described in detail above.

On the other hand, it is an advantage because it does not only rely on one theory. By inserting the SPA text analysis model into the four elements of rhetoric and supporting it with other theories, the theoretical approach is stronger and examines more aspects of rhetoric and linguistics than it would have done with one theory alone. The next section describes how the theory is applied to the analysis of appendices B-G and chapter 7.

6.3 Application of Theory

This section describes the practical approach to the analysis of the Steve Jobs speeches. The devices in the four elements of rhetoric are analyzed the same way in all six speeches in order to make them comparable. As mentioned in chapter 5.2, quantitative methods are used to find out if there is a development in the rhetorical and linguistic devices used the speeches.

For the analysis, six speeches by Steve Jobs are used. They were presented in chapter 5.4. There are two analyses in this thesis where the first one is found in appendices B-G. These appendices contain the speeches and an identification of the rhetorical and linguistic devices found in the four elements of rhetoric. The appendices thus contain the data that the analyses

in chapter 7 are based on. Chapter 7 has two parts, namely findings and comparison. First, findings look at the data in each speech individually. The individual analysis goes through the rhetorical and linguistic devices analyzed (chapter 6) and quantifies the findings in order to make them comparable to the other speeches.

Second, in the comparison, the results are compared. Here it is possible to see whether there is a development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills. In the end of the comparison, it is concluded whether or not a development can be traced, and whether it can be correlated to Apple's organizational performance. This sub-conclusion is elaborated on in the discussion (chapter 8).

In the first element of the four elements of rhetoric, the topics mentioned by Shamir et al. (1994) are identified and the number of times they appear is counted. The second part is composition/structure. Here, most elements are identified by the number of words they occupy in the speeches. They are then turned into percentages in order to be able to make a comparison of the speeches. However, some key nouns are just identified by presence or absence in the speeches and rhyme and alliteration are identified by number of appearance. The reason why they are not calculated in percentage is due to the fact that they rarely appear. Also, the five parts of *dispositio* are identified in the speeches by line numbers.

Third, communicator style is accounted for by looking at examples in the speeches. These examples back up the arguments for why a certain style subconstruct is found in the speeches. The style subconstructs are compared across the speeches. If a development is found, different subconstructs should be used in the speeches. Finally, the analysis of delivery only consists of *elocutio* because nonverbal factors are used in the analysis of communicator style. *Aptum* is evaluated by looking at whether the language fits the audience, sender, and topic. However, *puritas* and *perspicuitas* are accounted for in percentages.

It was stated in chapter 1.1 that the purpose of this thesis is to find out whether there is a development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills and if that development can be correlated to Apple's organizational performance. For a development to be evident in the various rhetorical and linguistic devices analyzed, a logical and consistent development must be present. Logical means that the numbers make sense and that they do not seem random. Consistent means that the percentage of a device either grows or falls over time.

Furthermore, in order to conclude whether there is an overall development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills, this development should be evident from the majority of the

devices analyzed. If only a few devices are found to develop, a generalization would be invalid and inaccurate.

If a development in a rhetorical or linguistic skill is found, the next step is to find out if it can be correlated to Apple's organizational performance. In order for a correlation to be made, it is required that a development is comparable to figure 2 and the figures in appendix A. All the figures show that Apple was most successful in 2011 and least successful in 1984. Thus, in the speech from 1984, the least amount of rhetorical and linguistic devices should be found and the most should be found in the 2011 speech. Furthermore, as the figures are flat up until around 2004, there should be few variations in the speeches until this point in time.

One point that has to be made here is the fact that Apple's stock price is not evident from 1984. The stock price serves as the point of departure in finding out whether a development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills can be correlated to Apple's organizational development (chapter 3 + appendix A). However, it is evident from the figures in appendix A that the stock price does not develop much until year 2000. Thus, the 1984 speech is still analyzed as it is also the speech that should be the 'worst' if a development is to be found in Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills.

Another point that needs to be made concerns the fall in Apple's stock price in 2008/2009 (figure 2 + appendix A). This is not considered in the analysis as three speeches analyzed in this thesis are from 2004, 2008, and 2011. When looking at the stock price, it grows from 2004 to 2008 and again from 2008 to 2011. If the fall in stock price was to be considered, a speech from 2009 should have been analyzed as well. However, then the distribution of speeches in phase 3 would be imbalanced and it could be argued that a speech from every year should be analyzed. As this of course is the ideal, it is not possible in this thesis due to a limitation of space and time. Furthermore, figure 2 in appendix A does not show this fall because it considers revenue and not stock prices. With this account of the approach to the analysis, the next chapter presents the analysis.

Chapter 7: Analysis

This chapter analyzes the data found in appendices B-G. First, an analysis of each speech is made and in the end, the data are compared in order to see whether it is possible to detect a

development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills. The findings of this analysis chapter are discussed in chapter 8.

7.1 Findings

This section looks at the findings from each speech. First, the Macintosh speech from 1984 is analyzed. Second, the Macworld speech from 1997 is examined. Third, the White iBook Introduction speech and then the European iTunes Introduction speech are analyzed. Fifth, is the Macworld 2008 speech and finally, the iPad 2 introduction from 2011 is analyzed.

7.1.1 Macintosh 1984

The first speech is Macintosh 1984. The sections below account for the findings in content, composition/structure, communicator style, and delivery, respectively. The data are found in appendix B.

Content

Content looks at references to the seven topics defined by Shamir et al. (figure 3). They are marked by numbers in the content column in appendix B. Five examples of topic 1 were found. For topic 2, 3, and 5, two instances were found for each. No examples of topic 4 were found. Finally, one reference to topic 6 and one to topic 7 were found. Table 3 shows an overview of the distribution of topics in the speech.

Table 3. Content 1984

Topic	References
1	5
2	2
3	2
4	0
5	2
6	1
7	1

Composition/Structure

The first part of composition/structure is rhetoric which consists of dispositio and appeals. In the 1984 speech, dispositio was distributed as shown in table 4.

Table 4. Dispositio 1984

Lines	Part of dispositio	Topic(s)
ll. 5-14	Exordium	Welcome + poem
ll. 18-19	Partitio	Board of directors
ll. 19-46	Narratio	Introduction of board of directors
ll. 58-108	Exordium	'Story' about IBM and Apple + 1984 ad
ll. 112-121	Narratio	Introduction of Macintosh
ll. 125-126	Partitio	Innovations in Macintosh
ll. 126-167	Narratio + argumentatio	Price, software, hardware, other products in the Macintosh family
ll. 169-171	Partitio	Macintosh to speak for itself
l. 173	Narratio + argumentatio	Macintosh 'speaking'
ll. 177-199	Narratio	Developers of Macintosh, the second desktop appliance for knowledge workers and college worker
ll. 203-236	Argumentatio	Why education is important for Apple
ll. 238-247	Narratio	Production of Macintosh
ll. 247-249	Partitio	To talk about how Macintosh is produced
ll. 251-299	Narratio + argumentatio	How the Macintosh was developed
ll. 303-339	Narratio	A new family of products
ll. 341-349	Peroratio	Summing up
ll. 353-354	Partitio	Handing over the meeting to Al Eisenstadt

As is seen from the table, Jobs uses multiple exordiums, partitios, narratios, and argumentatios. The speech is based mostly on partitios followed by a new narratio or a combined narratio/argumentatio. Two exordiums are found but only one peroratio.

The second part of rhetoric is appeals. All three modes of persuasion were found in the speech. Ethos constitutes 30 words. Out of 2,514 words they equal 1.19%. Logos is the dominant appeal. It takes up 1,321 words or 52.55%. Pathos is also present. 515 words are found which equal 20.49%.

The second part of composition/structure is linguistics which in this thesis consists of figures of speech, coherence, and cohesion. In this speech, figures of speech take up 415 out of 2,514 words. In total, figures of speech make up 16.51%.

The next part of linguistics is coherence which consists of key nouns and words/phrases. First, one key noun was found, 'Apple II'. In total, this key noun appears five times and makes up 0.40% of the speech (10 words). The second part, words/phrases, is defined by appearing across texts. In this speech, education is mentioned (marked with blue in appendix B). As is seen in the comparison (chapter 7.2), this is mentioned in others as well. In this speech it is referred to as "we care a lot about the educational process" (l. 207). The references to education are not measured in percentage because they appear differently in all speeches. Finally, adjectives, which are marked with green in appendix B, account for 4.38% of the words in the speech (110/2,514 words).

The last part of linguistics is cohesion. The first part to be analyzed is conjunctions. In the speech, 31 additive conjunctions were found which equal 1.23% of the speech. Adversatives were found four times. This equals 0.16%. One conjunction was causal and equals 0.04%. Finally, 17 temporary conjunctions were identified. They equal 0.68% of the speech. Alliterations and rhyme were not found in the speech. On the other hand, parallelism was found. 131 words appeared in parallel structures. Of 2,514 words that is a total of 5.21%. Repetition was also found. 73 words were repeated which make up a total of 2.90%.

Finally, interrogative sentences were examined. This was done by looking at how often Jobs poses a question. In the speech, three interrogatives are found. The length of Steve Jobs's speech is 36 minutes (appendix B). This gives a frequency of questions of 12.00⁵ (36/3). In the next chapter, communicator style is accounted for.

Communicator Style

In the 1984 speech, the animated, dominant, relaxed, and precise styles are found. The analysis of communicator style is based on the gestures and body language identified in the delivery column in appendix B.

During this speech, Steve Jobs stands behind a lectern and reads from his notes. No other speeches in the data collection had this setup. Jobs only walks away from the lectern to turn on the Macintosh computer (l. 172). This means that only few gestures are made. Nevertheless, gestures are used. Examples are clenched fists (ll. 127 and 131) and gestures

⁵ For this speech, the number is equal and a question is posed every 12 minutes. However, it is called frequency and not minutes/interrogative because the number of interrogatives does not give equal numbers in the rest of the speeches. For example the frequency in the 1997 speech is 2.46. This is not directly transferrable to minutes. The numbers are, nevertheless, comparable.

with the left hand (e.g. ll. 207, 239, 285 and 346). When he clenches his fists, Jobs underlines “pull” found in lines 127 and 131. The use of gestures to underline content is representative for the animated communicator style (Norton 1983, 68). Another feature of the animated style is facial expressions that reveal feelings. Steve Jobs both laughs and smiles several times (ll. 32, 180, 205, and 304).

The dominant subconstruct in the speech is the dramatic style which is characterized by “exaggerations, fantasies, stories, metaphors, rhythm, voice, and other stylistic devices” (Norton 1983, 67). Steve Jobs introduces the stakeholder’s meeting with a quote from Bob Dylan (ll. 9-13) and in lines 59-107, he tells a story about the development of IBM and Apple and makes a connection to George Orwell’s *1984* exemplified by the 1984 commercial following the story. Also, in lines 105-107 Steve Jobs’s tone of voice is exaggerated. Furthermore, as mentioned above, 16.94% of the speech consists of figures of speech.

The dramatic style is also found in the way Jobs uses different speech rates. It is most clear in the story about IBM and Apple where he deliberately slows down just to speak very fast in the next sentence (ll. 59-107). But he also speaks slowly later in the speech (e.g. ll. 267, 208, and 307). Finally, Norton also argues that the dramatic style reveals the speaker’s feelings (1983, 66). As mentioned above, Jobs’s feelings are revealed when he smiles and laughs.

A third style construct is the relaxed style. When compared to the other speeches, Jobs is less free from his manuscript here because he uses notes and is fixed to the lectern. On the other hand, he does not seem anxious or nervous but tells stories and even laughs at one point (l. 32). Nevertheless, compared to the other speeches, Jobs seems less relaxed.

The last style construct found is the one Holladay & Coombs call precise (1993, 413). They argue that it is “a concern for accurate and precise communication of ideas” (Holladay & Coombs 1993, 413). This construct is especially found in the extensive use of logos described above.

Delivery

Since nonverbal language in the speech was accounted for in the analysis of communicator style above, this section only deals with the three parts of *elocutio* used in this thesis; *aptum*, *puritas*, and *perspicuitas*.

First, the criterion of *aptum* is fulfilled; the language is appropriate for the audience, the topic, and the speaker. As the speech is given at a shareholder’s meeting, it is assumed that

the audience is rather diverse and thus, they might not have the same level of understanding for technical terms. However, Steve Jobs uses a clear language that is not heavily influenced by a computer industry jargon. The only places the jargon appears are in ll. 131-152 and ll. 314-327, but they are supported by explanations such as a “nine inch black and white screen which has over twice the number of dots on its screen of any current generation personal computer” (ll. 149-152).

Also, the language fits the speaker. Steve Jobs was the co-founder of Apple, so he knows what he is talking about. Finally, whether the speech fits the topic is hard to tell as it appears that the audience does not know what Jobs will introduce. This is seen in ll. 115-117: “Today, one year after Lisa, we are introducing the third industry milestone product, Macintosh”. On the other hand, the first part of the speech where Jobs introduces the board of directors is appropriate for a shareholder’s meeting (ll. 19-42).

Next, *puritas* deals with flawlessness of language (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 75). Steve Jobs says ‘err’ and the wrong words some times in the speech which makes the language less flawless. In appendix B, they are marked with red in the speech column. The speech consists of 2,514 words in total. The flaws make up 13 words which equal 0.52%.

Perspicuitas deals with how understandable and clear the language is (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 76). Twice in this speech, Jobs utters sentences that do not make sense. The first one is “Regrettably absent today is Phillip Schlein, who is chairman of Macy’s California, also a Director at Apple and of course John Sculley whom you’ll be hearing from in just a moment” (ll. 40-43). If John Sculley presented via satellite like Bill Gates does in the Macworld 1997 speech, it would make sense. But, John Sculley actually gives a speech after Steve Jobs (l. 55). The second instance where the speech is not understandable is in l. 191: “Because of the 235 people in America, only a fraction knows how to use a computer”. Jobs probably means 235 *million* people. These two sentences consist of 47 words which equals 1.87%. Next, the Macworld 1997 is analyzed.

7.1.2 Macworld 1997

In this section, the findings of the Macworld 1997 speech are presented. First, content is analyzed. The references to the topics from Shamir et al.’s list (1994) in this speech are distributed as seen in table 5.

Table 5. Content 1997

Topic	References
1	1
2	1
3	7
4	0
5	2
6	4
7	5

As is seen, topics 3 and 7 are the most dominant. Topic 3 refers to “followers’ worth and efficacy” and topic 7 are references to “hope and faith” (Shamir et al. 1994, 29).

Composition/Structure

Composition/structure is divided into rhetoric and linguistics. The first part, rhetoric, consists of dispositio and appeals. Dispositio in the speech is accounted for in table 6.

Table 6. Dispositio 1997

Lines	Part of dispositio	Topic(s)
ll. 5-7	Exordium	Welcome
ll. 7-10	Partitio	Getting Apple healthy
ll. 10-76	Narratio + argumentatio	How to get Apple healthy
ll. 78-79	Partitio	Board of directors
ll. 79-162	Narratio + argumentatio	New board of directors, thanks to old board members, video
l. 164	Partitio	Market focus
ll. 164-222	Narratio + argumentatio	Two segments
l. 224	Partitio	Core asset – customers
ll. 224-234	Narratio + argumentatio	Customers
ll. 238-239	Partitio	Getting analytical
ll. 239-249	Narratio	Core assets – brand and Mac OS
ll. 253-291	Argumentatio	Brand and Mac OS
l. 293	Partitio	Meaningful partners
ll. 293-304	Narratio	Meaningful partnership with Microsoft
ll. 308-399	Argumentatio	Microsoft Office, Windows, IE, Java, Bill Gates via satellite, and the need to work together
ll. 403-454	Peroratio	Summing up and how people who use Apple think differently

It appears from table 6 that all the parts of dispositio are used. Partitio, narratio, and argumentatio are used several times while there is only one exordium and one peroratio. Next, the second part of rhetoric is appeals. All three appeals were identified in the speech. Ethos accounts for 12.27% (458 words), logos for 13.93% (520 words), and pathos for 19.04% (711 words). The figures are calculated from a total of 3,734 words in the speech.

Linguistics consists of figures of speech, coherence, and cohesion. Figures of speech found in the speech make up 114 words in total. They equal 3.05% of the entire speech. In coherence, key nouns and words/phrases are analyzed. Three key nouns were found in the speech: references to “getting Apple healthy”, “core assets”, and “meaningful partners”. These words constitute 52 words which equal 1.39% of the speech.

Two words/phrases are found. The first is references to education which was found in the 1984 speech too. The second is the interjection ‘right?’. ‘Right’ constitutes 0.08 percent of the speech as it was found three times. 151 adjectives were found in the speech. Out of 3,734 words, they equal 4.04%.

The last part of linguistics is cohesion. First, all four categories of conjunctions were identified in the speeches. Additive conjunctions were found 23 times. This equals 0.62%. One adversative conjunction was found which equals 0.03%. Causal conjunctions were identified 9 times which makes up 0.24% and finally, temporary conjunctions equal 0.24% as they were found 9 times. Alliterations and rhyme were not found in the speech. However, parallelism was found in the speech. The words in parallel structures account for 10.04% or 375 words in total. Repetition was found in 99 words. They equal 2.65% of the speech.

The last part of linguistics is sentences. It was found that Steve Jobs uses interrogatives 13 times in approximately 32 minutes. This gives a frequency of 2.46.

Communicator Style

In the 1997 speech, the precise, relaxed, animated, dramatic, and open style subconstructs are identified. In this speech, logos is used often throughout the entire text (13.55%). This use is consistent with Holladay & Coombs’ notion that the precise style subconstruct uses accurate information about ideas (1993, 413).

The relaxed style subconstruct is also found. In this speech, Steve Jobs often folds his arms over the chest or puts his left hand on the right arm (e.g. ll. 11, 97, 122, and 332). This might

suggest uncertainty and that he is tense and anxious (Norton 1983, 69). The relaxed style – or lack of relaxation – is what dominates this speech because it is done often.

Another style subconstruct is the animated communicator style which is emphasized by facial expressions that reveal emotions, body movements and gestures to stress content, and smiling. As is seen in appendix C, Jobs often stresses and gestures a word. Examples are “two” (ll. 85, 206, and 240), “giant” (l. 227), and “overall” (l. 314). Also, he smiles and at one point he lifts his eyebrows (l. 115).

The dramatic style construct is identified in the speech through Jobs’s use of metaphors, other figures of speech and stylistic devices as seen in the above analysis. It is also seen through the use of voice to stress certain words and to speak fast or slowly (Norton 1983, 67).

Finally, the open style construct is found in the speech. Among other things, an open communicator discloses information about himself and is honest, not secretive (Norton 1983, 70). Examples of personal information are: “I have met some extraordinary people at Apple” (ll. 31-32) and “I’ve called the support lines myself. I’ve gotten very acquainted with the whole signal” (ll. 229-231). Next, the findings of delivery are examined.

Delivery

In delivery, *elocutio* is analyzed. The first part of *elocutio* is *aptum*. It is not found that the language is inappropriate for the audience, the speaker, and the topic. Thus, the criterion of *aptum* is fulfilled.

When looking at *puritas*, there are some instances in the speech where Jobs’ language is not flawless. Actually, 129 words out of 3,734 are either ‘erm’, ‘eh’, ‘err’ or repetitions of words that are considered flaws. The 129 words, which are marked with red in appendix C, equal 3.45%. Regarding *puritas*, there are a few places in the speech, where the language is unclear. These places are “if you like I’ll show it to you, just err, I ask the, we ask the board members a few questions and you can just maybe get a little, get a little familiar with them” (ll.149-152) and “So we’re scrambling to ship everything and if you’re, if it takes a little bit to get yours, please, err, I apologize for that but, we are scrambling” (ll. 287-289). In total, these words constitute 1.69% (63 words). The next speech analyzed is the white iBook introduction from 2001.

7.1.3 White iBook Introduction 2001

In this section, the white iBook introduction from 2001 is analyzed. The data for the speech is found in appendix D. In the first part of the analysis, content, most of the topics mentioned by Shamir et al. (1994, 29) are referred to by Steve Jobs. Only topic 2 is not found. The most dominant topic is the fifth which refers to values and moral (Shamir et 1994, 29). Table 7 shows the distribution in the speech. Next composition/structure is analyzed in the 2004 speech.

Table 7. Content 2001

Topic	References
1	2
2	0
3	1
4	1
5	5
6	2
7	1

Composition/Structure

The first part of composition/structure is the analysis of rhetorical devices. In this thesis, the first rhetorical device is dispositio. Table 8 below shows the division of the 2001 speech into the five parts of dispositio.

Table 8. Dispositio 2001

Lines	Part of dispositio	Topic(s)
I. 1	Exordium	Welcome
II. 2-5	Partitio	Announcements
II. 5- 23	Narratio	Update to Mac OS X
II. 25-26	Partitio	Notebooks
II. 26-85	Narratio + argumentatio	Titanium Powerbook G4 + iBook
II. 85-86	Partitio	New iBook
II. 88-370	Narratio + argumentatio	Features of the new iBook
II. 372-373	Partitio	Demonstration
II. 373-427	Narratio + argumentatio	Demonstration of iBook
II. 429-431	Partitio	Education
II. 431-551	Narratio + argumentatio	Education, computers in education, iBook in education, announcement of order of 23,000 iBooks to Henrico district in Richmond, presentation by superintendent from Henrico
II. 553-556	Partitio	Wants to show video
II. 558-577	Peroratio	Video sums up points, round of applause for developers, thanks for coming

It was found that all five parts of dispositio are used in the speech. Partitio, narratio, and argumentatio are used several times. Argumentatio is always combined with narratio, but narratio appears on its own once.

In the second part of rhetoric, modes of persuasion were analyzed. All three modes were identified. Ethos constitutes 214 words which equal 4.25% out of 5,037 words. Logos accounts for 31.80% (1,602 words) and pathos for 13.28% (669 words).

In linguistics, figures of speech, coherence, and cohesion are analyzed. The figures of speech found in this speech equal 2.34%; 118 words out of 5,037. In coherence, the first device analyzed is key nouns. One key noun was found in the speech, “our digital lifestyle” (first time in l. 312). This key noun is repeated four times with a total of 18 words or 0.36% of the speech. The second device is words/phrases that appear across the speeches. Three words were found. The first is the interjection ‘right’ and the second is words that refer to education (marked with blue in appendix D). ‘Right?’ appears twice in the speech (II. 156 + 244) and constitutes 0.04% of the entire speech. The third word is Jobs’s introduction and ending of the speech: “Thank you for coming/Thank you for coming today” (I. 1 + 562). This introduction and ending are found in the next three speeches as well. They are not calculated in percentage

as it is enough to state whether they are present. Finally, 238 adjectives are found in the speech. They equal 4.73% of 5,037 words.

The last part of linguistics is cohesive devices. First, all four types of conjunctions are found. Out of 5,037 words, additive conjunctions accounted for 1.13% (57 words), adversative for 0.14% (7 words), causal for 0.32% (16 words), and temporary conjunctions for 0.16% (8 words). Alliterations were found three times (ll. 307, 362, and 432) and rhyme once (l. 431). Parallelism was identified too. In total, there were 278 words in parallel structures. They equal 5.52%. Repetition was identified in the speech as well. The repeated words make up 2.56% (129 words).

In the speech, 19 interrogative sentences were found. The speech lasts approximately 41 minutes. This means that the frequency is 2.16.

Communicator Style

In the 2001 speech, the precise, open, dramatic, and animated style constructs were found. The precise style construct which is characterized by “accurate and precise communication of ideas” (Holladay & Coombs 1993, 413) is evident from the use of logos analyzed above. Steve Jobs is also open in his communication. He discloses information about his own feelings (Norton 1983, 70), for instance by using the words “I think”. An example is: “I think they have turned out an outstanding product” (ll. 567-568). Another way Jobs shows his feelings is through adjectives such as “amazing” (l.37), “wonderful” (l. 38), and “marvelous” (l. 39). Also, he seems friendly and answers questions from the audience (ll. 271-292) which corresponds to Norton’s description of the open communicator as being “affable, convivial, [and] gregarious” (1983, 70).

The dramatic style subconstruct is identified by voice, exaggeration, and joking (Norton 1983 65-66). The dramatic style is very clear from line 135 to 165. Here, Jobs compares the iBook with competitors’ products. In his visual presentation he has a table of what Apple, Dell, and Compac, respectively, offer in their notebooks. In lines 151-154, the pattern is built-in/yes, no, no. This pattern is stressed vocally by emphasis. Jobs also jokes in line 292 and in lines 218-221, he uses sarcasm: “Michael Dell said some disparaging things about us lately, publicly and err, we’re not getting engaged in that sort of thing but let me show you their product”. By showing the audience the notebook, he actually does engage in “that sort of thing”.

It was also found that metaphors and other figures of speech are present along with other stylistic devices. These are also part of the dramatic style (Norton 1983, 67). Figures of speech and other devices were found in the composition/structure analysis above. Also, Jobs uses his voice in different ways. In the delivery column of appendix D, it is found that some words are stressed and Jobs's voice changes to fast or slow at some points.

The last style subconstruct found in the speech is the animated style. An animated communicator style involves eye contact, facial expressions and many gestures (Norton 1983, 67). Gestures are used often as is evident from the delivery column in appendix D. Also, Jobs looks at the audience but it is impossible to know whether he actually makes eye contact. Another feature of the animated style is the use of gestures to emphasize content (Norton 1983, 68). Steve Jobs does that often. Examples are "climbing" (l. 29), "teachers, student, and consumers" (ll. 62-63), "four" (l. 169), and "in comes the cart" (l. 467).

Delivery

It is found that the language fits the audience, the speaker, and the topic. The audience is the press, and it can be seen that they understand the language spoken because they give applause and laugh at what is being said. The speaker is Steve Jobs and it is recognized that he knows what he talks about. The language also fits the topic. The topics are an update to Mac OS X (ll. 5-23) and the introduction of the new iBook. Jobs uses a language that is easy to understand but includes technical terms as well. Examples are "this amazing 15.2 inch landscape screen" (ll. 36-37), "a CD-RW drive" (ll. 175-176), and "one with Ethernet built in" (l. 514). So, the criterion of aptum is fulfilled.

When looking at flaws in the language, or puritas, 95 words are either 'err', 'erm' or wrong words that appear as flaws. Out of 5,037 words, these words equal 1.89%. Next is perspicuitas. There are some instances where it is unclear what is being said. It is found three times that Jobs mumbles and it is not possible to understand what he is saying. The examples are found in lines 300, 393, and 402. Other examples where Jobs mixes up the content of what he says are in lines 456-459: "And several cla, one to several classrooms which could be used, one to several rooms that are being used for computer labs, which could be used for classrooms are, are taken up" and in lines 190-193: "Erm, prior iBook started a 1499 with all of these new features, with a, the thinnest, lightest notebook in its class, with a ten by seven screen, with all this [IO] built in, starts at 1299". Since it was not possible to transcribe the

three places where Jobs is unclear, it is not possible to find out in percentage how much it constitutes of the speech. But the last two examples, where Jobs mixes up the content, make up 1.35% (68 words). Next, the European iTunes introduction is analyzed.

7.1.4 European iTunes Introduction 2004

The fourth speech analyzed is the European iTunes introduction from 2004. The data is found in appendix E. The distribution of references to topics is listed in table 9.

Table 9. Content 2004

Topic	References
1	1
2	0
3	0
4	0
5	3
6	0
7	2

It was found that only six references to the topics mentioned by Shamir et al. (1994) are used by Steve Jobs. The next part of the analysis in this section accounts for the findings of composition/structure in the speech.

Composition/Structure

The first part of composition/structure is rhetoric which consists of dispositio and modes of persuasion. First, table 10 shows the division of the speech into the five parts of dispositio.

Table 10. Dispositio 2004

Lines	Part of dispositio	Topic(s)
ll. 3-24	Exordium	Welcome and introduction to iTunes
ll. 25-28	Partitio	The philosophy behind iTunes
ll. 30-283	Narratio + argumentatio	Piracy, use rights, other features in iTunes, gift certificates, celebrity playlists, music videos, and iMix
l. 285	Partitio	The stores
ll. 285-325	Narratio	The UK, German, and French store
ll. 325-327	Partitio	Demonstration
ll. 329-571	Narratio + argumentatio (<i>mostly arguments for the features mention in ll. 30-283</i>)	Play songs, burn CDs, CD labels, Party Shuffle, Rendezvous, buying music, exclusives, search function, genre pages, AudioBooks, iMixes, the three stores, free gift certificates to the audience
ll. 573-576	Partitio	Where to listen to music
ll. 577-712	Narratio + argumentatio	Music on computer, iPods, the car, at home. AirPort Express.
ll. 714-755	Peroratio	Motivations, Alicia Keys performance, thanks

From the table it is evident that all five parts of dispositio are used. Partitio, narratio, and argumentatio are used several times. The second part of rhetoric is modes of persuasion. 80 words were found to be connected to the ethos appeal. Out of 6,749 words they equal 1.19%. Logos accounts for 24.26% (1,637 words) and pathos for 17.08% (1,153 words).

Linguistics consists of figures of speech, coherence, and cohesion. First, figures of speech take up 112 words in the speech. Out of 6,749 words in total, these words equal 1.66% of the speech. In this speech, coherence consists of key nouns and words/phrases. Three key nouns were found: references to iTunes being the best music store in the world, the word “integrated”, and references to quality. In total, these three key nouns constitute 1.27% of the speech (86 words). Words/phrases found across the speeches are references to education, ‘right?’, and ‘thank you for coming’. Two references to education are found in this speech (“donate it to your school”, l. 131 and “heads off to college”, l. 412), and ‘right?’ makes up 0.03% of the speech (2 words). Furthermore, both the introduction and ending include thanks to the audience for coming (ll. 4 + 750). Adjectives constitute 4.03% of the speech (272 words).

In linguistics, the first device analyzed is conjunctions. All four types of conjunctions were identified in the speech. Additive conjunctions constitute 1.53% (103 words), adversatives conjunctions 0.16% (11 words), causal conjunctions 0.86% (58 words), and finally, temporary conjunctions constitute 0.41% of the speech (28 words). Alliteration and rhyme were not found in the speech. Parallel structures in the speech account for 361 words. These words equal 5.35% of the speech. Repetition was identified in the speech as 88 words were repeated. These words equal 1.35% of the speech.

In the last part of linguistics, sentences were examined. In this speech, 15 interrogatives were found. As the speech lasts 56 minutes, this means that the frequency of interrogatives is 3.73.

Communicator Style

The communicator style subconstructs found in the 2004 speech are precise, open, dramatic, and animated. The precise style has accurate information about the content of the text as its central point (Holladay & Coombs 1993, 413). In the speech this style subconstruct is found in the use of logos which was examined above. The open subconstruct is found in Steve Jobs's revelation of information about himself (Norton 1983, 70). Examples are "how many of you have downloaded a song illegally. Go ahead... I tried it" (ll. 49-51) and "And it has taken more than a little negotiation, err, with us and the labels to arrive at a, I think, great use rights that costumers are responding very positive to (ll. 137-140). With "I think", Steve Jobs also seems honest. This is another characteristic of the open style subconstruct (Norton 1983, 70).

It is argued that the dramatic style subconstruct is found. Norton's definition of the subconstruct is the use of "exaggerations, fantasies, stories, metaphors, rhythm, voice, and other stylistic devices" (1983, 67). Metaphors and other figures of speech were identified in the analysis of composition/structure above along with other stylistic devices such as repetition and parallelism. Also, Jobs's voice is not monotonous as he sometimes speaks faster or slower (see the delivery column in appendix E).

The last style construct is the animated style. Holladay & Coombs describes it as "[the] use of expressive nonverbal behaviors such as facial expression, eye contact, gestures, and body movements that reveal feelings" (1993, 413). Although Jobs's facial expressions are limited to a smile and a laugh once in a while (e.g. ll. 169 and 258), he gestures and moves around

often. This is evident from the delivery column in appendix E. Also, Jobs uses gestures to exaggerate what he is talking about (Norton 1983, 68). Examples are “click” (l. 145), “one” (l. 148), “transferring” (l. 414), and “entire” (l. 586).

Delivery

The language in the speech fits the audience, the speaker, and the topic. The audience seems to understand what is being talked about given the applauses and laughter in the speech (appendix E). Also, the topic is iTunes which is explained and demonstrated (ll. 229-549). Thus, as the audience seems to understand what is being talked about, the language used to describe the topic is appropriate. Finally, the language also fit the speaker. Jobs seems confident and not hampered by the language.

The criterion of puritas is not entirely fulfilled. There are flaws in Jobs’s language. 146 times within the speech he says ‘err’, ‘erm’ or words that are not supposed to be there. The words are marked with red in appendix E. Out of 6,749 words, the 146 flaws constitute 2.16%. Instances of the absence of perspicuitas are also found in the speech. Three times in the speech, it is not clear what Jobs is talking about. All three times it seems Jobs forgets what he is talking about. The examples are: “We had over, in, in, in them, in them, let’s see, less than 60 days since we, err, turned on iMix, we’d had over 50,000 people post iMixes and over 100,000 people vote” (ll. 253-256), “Every song, err, is, err... this is a, err... every song is 79 pence” (ll. 439-440), and “And, err, you know, I got a, a, I got a, err, erm, let’s see... I’ve got err, a way to... see what I’m gonna show you here. Oh yes. Sorry” (ll. 447-449). In total, there are 78 words, so the lack of perspicuitas makes up 1.16%. The analysis of perspicuitas concludes the analysis of the European iTunes introduction. Next is the analysis of the Macworld 2008 speech.

7.1.5 Macworld 2008

In this section, the Macworld 2008 speech is analyzed. The speech is found in appendix F. The first part of the analysis is content. Despite this speech being the longest in the empirical data collection, there are very few references to Shamir et al.’s seven topics. In fact, only eight references were found. Table 11 lists the references in relation to topic.

Table 11. Content 2008

Topic	References
1	1
2	0
3	2
4	0
5	2
6	0
7	3

The most common reference is the seventh topic, “references to hope and faith” (Shamir et al. 1994, 29). However, one can hardly argue that it is dominant as there are two examples of both topic 3 and 5. Next, the findings of the composition/structure devices are accounted for.

Composition/Structure

Composition/structure is divided into rhetoric and linguistics. Rhetoric consists of dispositio and modes of persuasion. The table below shows how the speech is divided into the five parts of dispositio.

Table 12. Dispositio 2008

Lines	Part of dispositio	Topic(s)
ll. 5-9	Exordium	Welcome
ll. 9-11	Partitio	A look back at 2007
ll. 12-21	Narratio	2007; products and thanks to customers
ll. 25-26	Partitio	Four things introduced in the speech
ll. 26-1057	Narratio + argumentatio	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Leopard, Time Capsule, ad about Time Machine 2) iPhone and iPod Touch updates, demo of iPhone updates 3) iTunes, iTunes Movie Rentals, new Apple TV, demo of Apple TV 4) Macbook Air
ll. 1061-1118	Peroratio	Status of products launched in 2008, including the ones mentioned above, Randy Newman performance, thanks to the audience for coming

The structure, or *dispositio*, of the speech is rather simple. Jobs mentions very early that he will present four things. He sticks to that structure but as is evident from the *narratio/argumentatio* part of the speech, Jobs actually introduces much more than four things. It could be argued that within this part of the speech there are several *partitios*. Examples are “So let’s go to maps” (l. 176), “Well, we’re doing something pretty big” (ll. 345-346), and “Here’s what you can do with Apple TV” (ll. 508-509). It could also be argued that *peroratios* are found within the *narratio/argumentatio* section. An example is found in lines 479-488. This part sums up what has just been said about iTunes Movie Rentals.

When the examples mentioned above and similar examples found various places in the speech are not characterized as either *partitios* or *peroratios* in the analysis, it is because they are not linking to new parts of the speech. The “*partitio*” examples do not tell the receiver about what happens in the rest of the text (Jensen & Olesen 2003, 73). They only tell the audience what is happening immediately after. Likewise with the “*peroratios*”; in the speech they function more like repetitions of what has just been said which might be argued is necessary with the large amount of information Jobs is presenting. There is no sum up of the entire speech except in the actual *peroratio* shown in table 12.

The other part of rhetoric is modes of persuasion. First, *ethos* constitutes 394 words which equal 4.30% out of 9,156 words. *Logos* is found in 1,991 words which equal 21.73. Finally, *pathos* accounts for 874 words which equal 9.55.

The second part of composition/structure is linguistics which consists of figures of speech, coherence, and cohesion in this thesis. The figures of speech found in the speech constitute 1.63% as they make up 149 out of 9,156 words. The first part of coherence is key nouns. One key noun is found. Jobs introduces the speech with “there’s clearly something in the air today” (ll. 8-9) and mentions it again when introducing the fourth product (see table 12). In total, the key noun consists of 12 words which equal 0.13% of the speech.

The second part of coherence is words/phrases. As mentioned earlier, three words/phrases have been identified across the speeches, namely ‘right?’, references to education, and ‘thank you for coming’. ‘Right’ appears 13 times in the speech and makes up 0.14% in total. References to education are not found in this speech. Finally, only the ending includes a thanks to the audience but it is mentioned twice (ll. 1083-1084 + 1116). Finally, there are 371 adjectives in the speech which equal 4.05%.

In cohesion, conjunctions are analyzed. All four types of conjunctions are identified. Additives were found 81 times which equal 0.88% of 9,156 words. Adversatives constitute 0.05% of the speech (5 words), causal conjunctions equal 0.91% (83 words), and finally, temporary conjunctions were identified 19 times. They equal 0.21%. Rhyme is found once (l. 925), but alliterations are not found in the speech. However, parallelism was identified in the speech. In total, parallel structures account for 4.52% of the speech (414 words). Repetition was found in the speech as well. In total, 180 repeated words were found. This amount equals 1.97%. Finally, interrogative sentences were identified 47 times. The speech lasts 77 minutes. This gives a frequency of interrogatives of 1.64.

Communicator Style

Steve Jobs uses four different communicator styles in the 2008 speech. The style subconstructs are precise, animated, dramatic, and open. The precise subconstruct is present through the use of logos which is accurate information about the content (Holladay & Coombs 1993, 413). The animated style subconstruct is found in Steve Jobs's body language. As seen in the delivery column in appendix F, Jobs rarely stands still on stage but moves his arms, walks around, laughs, and smiles. Using body language often is a characteristic of the animated style subconstruct (Norton 1983, 67). Also, exaggerating or understating words with gestures is a way to use the animated style (Norton 1983, 68). Jobs emphasizes words several times. Examples are "look back" (l. 11), "plug it in, turn it on, and enable" (ll. 85-86), "flip" (l. 168), "entire" (l. 363), "sync them right back" (l. 532), "even further" (l. 831), and "compact" (l. 934).

Although it is not dominant, the dramatic style subconstruct is also found in the speech through the use of metaphors and other figures of speech and through Jobs's use of his voice (Holladay & Coombs 1993, 413); sometimes he speaks faster, sometimes slower, and sometimes he stresses certain words. This is evident from the delivery column in appendix F.

The last subconstruct found is the open style which, among other things, is characterized by "[b]eing [...] willing to disclose information about one's self" (Holladay & Coombs 1993, 413). Examples of this in the speech are "I'd love to run it for you now" (ll. 99-100), "they have awesome maps technology" (ll. 211-212), "That's a particular favorite of mine" (ll. 419-420), "this is really cool" (ll. 630 and 634), "isn't that incredible" (l. 682), and "unbelievable" (l. 1076). Being approachable and friendly are other characteristics of the animated style

(Norton 1983, 70). As mentioned above, Jobs smiles several times in the speech. This makes him approachable and friendly. Also, at one point the technology does not work (l. 677). Because of his iconic status (chapter 4) Jobs might seem to be in another league for some people. But here Steve Jobs – involuntarily, though – shows that although he is a computer guru, things do not always work for him either. This makes him approachable.

Delivery

The last part of the analysis of the Macworld 2008 speech is elocutio. Aptum is the first part to be analyzed. The language is appropriate for the audience, the speaker, and the topic. The speech is given at a Macworld Expo, and so the audience is very diverse (chapter 5.4.2). Steve Jobs makes the language understandable and not too technical at any point, although the four topics he talks about are technical (see table 12). The audience also responds by clapping and laughing at some points. Finally, the language fits Steve Jobs. It is very clear that he knows what he is talking about.

The second part of elocutio is puritas. It was found in the speech that 145 words are flaws (marked with red in the speech column in appendix F). They appear as ‘err’ or words that are repeated unnecessarily. Out of 9,156 words, the 145 makes up 1.58% of the speech. Perspicuitas, or in this case, the lack of clarity, is found twice in the speech. The two examples are “But let me go down and actually pick a movie, err, and, err. Let’s take a look at Blades of Glory. Right?” (ll. 557-559) and “And you can even, you have Mac installer disks inside a Windows PC, a PC can read a Mac disk with this special software and send it wirelessly over to your Macbook Air” (ll.970-973). In both cases, it is as if Steve Jobs starts with one idea but ends up with another idea. The two examples consist of 55 words in total. This equals 0.60%. The next section analyzes the iPad 2 introduction speech.

7.1.6 iPad 2 Introduction 2011

The last speech is the iPad 2 introduction from 2011. The first part to be analyzed is content. Table 13 below shows the distribution of topics in the speech.

Table 13. Content 2011

Topic	References
1	4
2	3
3	3
4	0
5	1
6	2
7	6

In this speech, four references to a collective history were found, the first topic on Shamir et al.'s list (chapter 6.1.1). Three references to both topic 2 and 3 were found. There were no references to the fourth topic and only one for the fifth, which is "references to values and moral justifications" (Shamir et al. 1994, 29). Two references to topic 6 were found. Finally, six references to hope and faith were found (Shamir et al. 1994, 29). Next, the findings in composition/structure are accounted for.

Composition/Structure

The first part of composition/structure is rhetoric which consists of two parts; dispositio and modes of persuasion. First, dispositio in the 2011 speech is shown below in table 14.

Table 14. Dispositio 2011

Lines	Part of dispositio	Topic(s)
ll. 3-8	Exordium	Welcome
ll. 7-9	Partitio	Announcements
ll. 9-51	Narratio	New publisher in iBooks, Apple IDs, App Store
ll. 56-57	Partitio	Apple's third post-PC product
ll. 58-77	Narratio	The first iPad
ll. 77-137	Argumentatio	Statistics on iPad +video
ll. 141-252	Narratio + argumentatio	2011 and iPad 2
ll. 256-258	Partitio	New accessories
ll. 258-344	Narratio + argumentatio	Accessories: HDMI cable and smart cover + video
ll. 344-345	Partitio	Software in iPad 2
ll. 345- 349	Narratio	iOS 4.3
ll. 351	Argumentatio	Scott Forestell about iOS 4.3
ll. 355-357	Partitio	Two more apps
ll. 357-380 + 386-392	Narratio	Developers and iMovie for iPad
ll. 382	Argumentatio	Randy Ubillos about iMovie
ll. 396-410 + 416-427	Narratio	GarageBand for iPad
ll. 412	Argumentatio	Xander Soren about GarageBand
ll. 431-492	Peroratio	Sums up features of iPad 2, generally about post-PC devices, and applause to the developers of iPad 2

It is evident from the table that all five parts of dispositio are used. Exordium and peroratio both appear once, while partitio, narratio, and argumentatio appear several times. Next, all three modes of persuasion are found. Out of 3,934 words, ethos was found in 118 words. In total that is 3.00% of the speech. Logos accounted for 36.25% (1,426 words) and pathos for 23.87% (939 words).

The second part of composition/structure is linguistics. First, figures of speech were found. In total they take up 66 out of 3,934 words in the speech. This equals 1.68% of the speech. Next, coherence is analyzed. In this thesis coherence consists of key nouns and words/phrases. Three key nouns were identified. The first one is “magical” which is referred to again by the word “chip wizard” (l. 159). Also, “1.3 pounds” and “the Year of the iPad” have been identified as key nouns. In total, these three key nouns constitute 0.74% (29 words).

As in most of the other speeches, three words/phrases were found. The first one is the interjection ‘right?’. It is found seven times in the speech and makes up 0.18% of the speech.

References to education are also identified (ll. 259-260). Finally, “Thanks for coming” (ll. 3-4 + l. 488) is mentioned both in the beginning and the end of the speech. Adjectives make up 157 words. Out of a total of 3,934 words, they equal 3.99%.

In the last part of linguistics, cohesion is examined. All four types of conjunctions were identified in the speech. Additive conjunctions were found in 45 words which equal 1.14% of the speech. Adversatives were identified three times. They equal 0.08%. Causal conjunctions were found 26 times which equals 0.66%, and temporary conjunctions made up 0.46% in that they were found to constitute 18 words. Alliterations were found four times (ll. 57, 59, 64, and 221-222) and rhyme was found once (l. 460). Also, parallelism was identified in the speech. 263 words appear in parallel structures. In total, they equal 6.69%. Repetition was found in the speech as well. 99 words were repeated which equal 2.52%. Finally, the number of interrogative sentences was examined. 16 were found. As the speech lasts 71 minutes, this means that the frequency is 4.44.

Communicator Style

The style subconstructs found in the iPad speech are precise, open, animated, and dramatic. The precise style subconstruct is characterized by “accurate and precise communication of ideas” (Holladay & Coombs 1993, 413) and is found in the speech through the use of logos analyzed above. The open communicator style is described by Norton as one in which the speaker seems friendly, honest, and reveals information about his own feelings (1983, 70). In the speech, Jobs smiles several times (e.g. ll. 4, 244, 395, and 490). This makes him seem friendly. Steve Jobs also reveals his feelings about the topics he speaks about. Examples are “Just wonderful, wonderful apps” (l. 106), “Our chip wizards have come up with this and... it’s great” (ll. 159-160), “We’ve got some really cool accessories” (ll. 256-257), “It’s awesome!” (l. 386), and “I’m blown away with this stuff” (ll. 416-417).

The animated style subconstruct is found in the body language. According to Holladay & Coombs, the animated style subconstruct is characterized by “[t]he use of expressive nonverbal behaviors such as facial expression, eye contact, gestures, and body movements that reveal feelings” (1993, 413). Norton adds that the gestures of an animated communicator are used to exaggerate or understate what is being spoken of. As seen in the delivery column in appendix G, Steve Jobs gestures almost all the time. This use of gestures emphasizes the animated style. Some of the gestures emphasize what Jobs is saying. Examples are found in

line 121 when Jobs's hand moves upwards in "going just like this", "roll out" in line 126, and "flat screen" (l. 260). As mentioned above, Steve Jobs smiles several times during the speech, and as facial expressions reveal feelings, the smiles are also indicators of the animated style.

Finally, the dramatic style subconstruct was identified. According to Norton, the subconstruct is identified by "exaggerations, fantasies, stories, metaphors, rhythm, voice, and other stylistic devices" (Norton 1983, 67). Although exaggerations, fantasies, and stories are not used in this speech, metaphors/figures of speech and stylistic devices are found. This is seen in the analysis of composition/structure above. Also, it is evident from the delivery column in appendix G that Jobs uses his voice to emphasize his points, either by speaking faster, slower or stressing some words.

Delivery

The last part of the analysis is delivery where elocutio is analyzed. The first part of elocutio is aptum and how the language fits the speaker, audience, and topic. In this speech, the language fit all three parameters. There are no instances in the speech where the language seems inappropriate or out of context. This is emphasized by the audience when they give applause and laugh. Also, it is natural for Steve Jobs to speak about the iPad 2 even though he was on medical leave at this point (chapter 4). It might be argued that Steve Jobs being the speaker is a break with aptum because it was unexpected. However, the language is not inappropriate and the audience reacts positively to his appearance (ll. 3-5).

In the 2011 speech, 1.27% (50 out of 3,934 words) consists of flaws such as 'err', 'erm' and words and ideas that are repeated unnecessarily. Thus, puritas is not fulfilled entirely. The same is the case with perspicuitas. There is one sentence, where the meaning is not entirely clear. This sentence is found in lines 231-232: "Now, some folks around there're saying, well, they're only a little bit more expensive than us at 799". Here it sounds like "they" are Apple. But in fact, "they" are "the folks". This sentence consists of 18 words which is 0.46% of the speech. This paragraph about delivery in the 2011 speech concludes the findings of the six speeches. In the next section, the findings are compared.

7.2 Comparison of the Speeches

In this section, the findings from the six speeches are compared. Four sub-sections are found. These sub-sections correspond to each of the elements in the four elements of rhetoric. In

each sub-section, the results of the six speeches are compared and it is concluded whether it is possible to trace a development.

7.2.1 Content

The first element of the four elements of rhetoric was content. Table 15 sums up the findings of how often Shamir et al.'s (1994) topics appear in the six speeches.

Table 15. Comparison of Content

Topic Speech	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
1984	4	2	2	0	2	1	1	12
1997	1	1	7	0	2	4	7	22
2001	2	0	1	1	5	2	1	12
2004	1	0	0	0	3	0	2	6
2008	1	0	2	0	2	0	3	8
2011	4	3	3	0	1	2	6	19

In the theory chapter, it was mentioned that a development was evident if Jobs uses the topics more often in his later speeches. This is not the case as is seen in table 15. Thus, there is no development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills when it comes to content. It could be argued, that by calculating the percentage of the speeches that refers to each topic, it would have been a different result. However, it is seen that the 1997 speech includes 22 references, and it lasts 32 minutes (appendix C). On the other hand, the 2008 speech lasts 74.5 minutes (appendix F), but only 8 references are found. Thus, counting the references is just as relevant as the percentage of the speeches. This count shows that there is no development in rhetorical and linguistic skills.

As a consequence, content does not show a development in relation to Apple's organizational performance either. Next, the findings of composition/structure are compared.

7.2.2 Composition/Structure

In this section, the devices analyzed in composition/structure are compared. Composition/structure is divided into rhetoric and linguistics. First, rhetoric is accounted for. It consists of dispositio and modes of persuasion. In the findings section above, a table for the distribution of dispositio was made for each speech. Below, the column in these tables that

accounted for ‘parts of speech’ are compared in order to see whether Jobs’s structure changes over time.

Table 16. Comparison of Dispositio

1984	1997	2001	2004	2008	2011
Exordium	Exordium	Exordium	Exordium	Exordium	Exordium
Partitio	Partitio	Partitio	Partitio	Partitio	Partitio
Narratio	Narratio + argumentatio	Narratio	Narratio + argumentatio	Narratio	Narratio
Exordium	Partitio	Partitio	Partitio	Partitio	Partitio
Narratio	Narratio + argumentatio	Narratio + argumentatio	Narratio	Narratio + argumentatio	Narratio
Partitio	Partitio	Partitio	Partitio	Peroratio	Argumentatio
Narratio + argumentatio	Narratio + argumentatio	Narratio + argumentatio	Narratio + argumentatio		Narratio + argumentatio
Partitio	Partitio	Partitio	Partitio		Partitio
Narratio + argumentatio	Narratio + argumentatio	Narratio + argumentatio	Narratio + argumentatio		Narratio + argumentatio
Narratio	Partitio	Partitio	Peroratio		Partitio
Argumentatio	Narratio	Narratio + argumentatio			Narratio
Narratio	Argumentatio	Partitio			Argumentatio
Partitio	Partitio	Peroratio			Partitio
Narratio + argumentatio	Narratio				Narratio
Narratio	Argumentatio				Argumentatio
Peroratio	Peroratio				Narratio
Partitio					Argumentatio
					Peroratio

As is evident, there is no logical development in the pattern of dispositio. The speech from 1997, 2001, 2004, and 2011 are very similar with several occurrences of partitio, narratio, argumentatio, or narratio and argumentatio combined. The speech from 1984 differs from the others by having two exordiums and a partitio at the end, and the speech from 2008 differs from the others by having a very simple structure.

From 1997 to 2008, a development is found in the speeches. This development is that the speeches have fewer and fewer parts. But, this changes in 2011 which is the speech the most parts. In sum, there is no logical development in the use of dispositio in Steve Jobs’s speeches. On the other hand, the data suggests that Jobs has used the same structure since

1984. Since there is no development in *dispositio*, there is no development in relation to Apple's organizational performance either.

The other part of rhetoric was modes of persuasion. All three appeals were found in all the speeches. In the table 17, the distribution in percentage is shown.

Table 17. Comparison of Appeals

Speech	Ethos (%)	Logos (%)	Pathos (%)
1984	1.19	52.55	20.49
1997	12.27	13.93	19.04
2001	4.25	30.80	13.28
2004	1.19	24.26	17.08
2008	4.30	21.73	9.55
2011	3.00	34.25	23.87

It is seen that there is no logical development over time in the use of *ethos*, *logos*, and *pathos*. It seems that *logos* is Jobs's preferred mode of persuasion except in the 1997 speech. When this speech is left out of account, *pathos* is the second most used in the speeches while *ethos* is the least common. In the 2008 speech there is remarkably little *pathos*. However, the relationship between *logos* and *pathos* in this speech resembles both the 1984 and the 2001 speeches.

It should be noted that *ethos* might not be reliable in this table as it should be recalled from the theory chapter that *ethos* has to do with credibility and how trustworthy the speaker is. This has more to do with the receivers' perception than what Jobs actually says. However, from the table above it might be suggested that Jobs has always found that he has a big *ethos* which has not been necessary to emphasize in the speeches. In sum, there is no development in Jobs's use of modes of persuasion. As such, no development can be seen in relation to Apple's organizational performance.

In linguistics, figures of speech, coherence, and cohesion are analyzed. First, table 18 shows the percentage of figures of speech found in the speeches.

Table 18. Comparison of Figures of Speech

Speech	Percentage
1984	16.51
1997	3.05
2001	2.34
2004	1.66
2008	1.63
2011	1.68

It is evident that Jobs uses fewer figures of speech in the last three speeches than in the first three. This development is surprising as figures of speech suggest good linguistic skills. Thus, this is a change rather than a development (chapter 5.1). The change does not follow Apple's organizational development as it can be argued that figures of speech should be used more in the later speeches. Instead, the change in figures of speech shows the opposite.

The next part of linguistics is coherence. The first part of coherence is key nouns. The distribution of key nouns in the speeches is seen in table 19.

Table 19. Comparison of Key nouns

Speech	Number of key nouns	%
1984	1	0.10
1997	3	1.39
2001	1	0.36
2004	3	1.27
2008	1	0.13
2011	3	0.74

Table 19 shows a pattern in the number of key nouns, although it might be a coincidence. However, the percentages these key nouns account for in the speeches do not show a development over time. Therefore, there is no development in Jobs's skills or in relation to Apple's organizational performance.

In the second part of coherence, three words/phrases were identified. The first one regards education and related words. As is seen in table 20, only the Macworld 2008 speech does not have any references to this topic. Nevertheless, it shows that there is no development – education has always been a value to Apple.

Table 20. Comparison of Words/Phrases

Word Speech	‘Education’	‘Right?’ (%)	‘Thank you for coming’ (beg./end)
1984	+	0.00	-/-
1997	+	0.08	-/-
2001	+	0.04	+/+
2004	+	0.03	+/+
2008	-	0.14	-/+
2011	+	0.18	+/+

The second word in the speeches is ‘right?’. As is seen in table 20, there is a development. In the 1997 speech, the word appears three times and in the 2001 and 2004 speeches, the word appears twice. However, percentagewise they differ a little. Steve Jobs uses ‘right?’ more in his later speeches, but the development does not correlate to Apple’s organizational development. It would have required the numbers for 1997 and 2004 to be switched.

The third word/phrase identified is ‘thank you for coming’. It is used in the last four speeches except in the beginning of the 2008 speech. But as the pattern appears in the majority of speeches, it cannot be seen as a development.

Lastly, adjectives. Table 21 shows the percentages used in the speeches.

Table 21. Comparison of Adjectives

Speech	Adjectives (%)
1984	4.38
1997	4.04
2001	4.73
2004	4.03
2008	4.05
2011	3.99

It is evident that there is no development in the use of adjectives. There is less than 1% difference in the use of adjectives in the speeches. Although the last speech has the least amount of adjectives, there is no consistent development. Furthermore, the development is not logical. Therefore, a development cannot be correlated to Apple’s organizational performance either.

The first part of cohesion is the analysis of conjunctions. Table 22 shows the results from the speeches.

Table 22. Comparison of Conjunctions

Speech	Additive (%)	Adversative (%)	Causal (%)	Temporary (%)
1984	1.23	0.16	0.04	0.68
1997	0.62	0.03	0.24	0.24
2001	1.13	0.14	0.32	0.16
2004	1.53	0.16	0.86	0.41
2008	0.88	0.05	0.91	0.21
2011	1.14	0.08	0.66	0.46

It is clear that there is no logical development in the use of the four types of conjunctions. Thus, there is no development in this linguistic skills. Hence, a correlation to Apple's organizational performance cannot be made.

Next, it was found in the speeches that rhyme and alliterations were not common. Rhyme was found once in three speeches, and alliterations only appeared in two speeches. Therefore, they have only been identified by number of appearance. Table 23 shows the findings.

Table 23. Comparison of Rhyme and Alliteration

Speech	Rhyme	Alliteration
1984	0	0
1997	0	0
2001	1	3
2004	0	0
2008	1	0
2011	1	4

Although the percentage that rhyme and alliterations account for in the speeches has not been calculated, it is clear that there is no logical development in the use of them. It could, however, be argued that rhyme is used in the later speeches, but that does not explain why it is found in the 2001 speech and not in the one from 2004. There is no development in alliterations. Hence, for both rhyme and alliteration there is no development and therefore, a correlation to Apple's organizational performance cannot be made.

Next is parallelism. Again, no logical development is found. Table 24 shows the findings from the six speeches.

Table 24. Comparison of Parallelism

Speech	Parallelism (%)
1984	5.21
1997	10.04
2001	5.52
2004	5.35
2008	4.52
2011	6.69

It appears that Jobs uses around 5-6% parallelism in each speech except in the 1997 speech where he uses the double amount. Thus, a general development is not found and hence, a correlation to Apple's organizational performance is not found either.

The next part of linguistics was repetition. It is evident from table 25 that there is no development. The 2004 and 2008 speeches have remarkably less repetition than the others, but more repetition appears in 2011. Thus, no development is found in Jobs's skills or in relation to Apple's organizational performance.

Table 25. Comparison of Repetition

Speech	Repetition (%)
1984	2.90
1997	2.65
2001	2.56
2004	1.35
2008	1.97
2011	2.52

Finally, the last part of composition/structure is sentences. Table 26 below shows the frequency of interrogative sentences in the speeches.

Table 26. Comparison of Sentences

Speech	Frequency
1984	12.00
1997	2.46
2001	2.16
2004	3.73
2008	1.64
2011	4.44

As can be seen from the table, there is no significant development. It seems rather coincidental whether Jobs uses questions in his speeches. However, he asks more questions to the audience after he returned to Apple in 1997. But after that they appear both more and less frequent (the lower the number, the more frequent are the questions). Thus, there is no development in the use of sentences or a relation to Apple's organizational performance.

In sum, the analysis of composition/structure showed that there are only developments or changes in Steve Jobs's use of figures of speech and in the use of the word 'right?'. However, for both these devices, a correlation could not be made to Apple's organizational performance. For all the other devices analyzed in composition/structure, no logical or consistent development was found. Therefore, a correlation to Apple's organizational performance was not found either.

7.2.3 Communicator Style

In communicator style, gestures were used to find the style subconstructs used by Steve Jobs.

Table 27 shows an alphabetical overview of the styles used in the speeches.

Table 27. Comparison of Communicator Style

Speech	Communicator style subconstructs
1984	Animated, dramatic, precise, relaxed
1997	Animated, dramatic, open, precise, relaxed
2001	Animated, dramatic, open, precise
2004	Animated, dramatic, open, precise
2008	Animated, dramatic, open, precise
2011	Animated, dramatic, open, precise

It is found that the animated, dramatic, and precise styles are used in all speeches. The relaxed style is found in the first two. However, the relaxed style is found because Jobs does not appear relaxed in these speeches like he did in the others. Finally, the open style is found in the last five speeches.

In sum, as the style constructs used in the speeches do not differ much in the speeches, it cannot be argued that there is a consistent development. Thus, a development in relation to Apple's organizational development is not found either.

7.2.4 Delivery

In this thesis, delivery consists of *elocutio* and nonverbal factors. It was mentioned in chapter 6.1.4 that nonverbal factors were only accounted for if there were significant differences. In the 1984 speech, Steve Jobs is placed behind a lectern. Therefore, there are not as many gestures as in the other speeches. However, this is the only speech with this setup, and significant differences in the five other speeches were not found. Thus, there is a development from 1984 to 1997. However, it cannot be seen as a consistent development as the last five speeches have the same setup. So, as there is no development, a correlation with Apple's organizational performance cannot be made either.

The other part of delivery, *elocutio*, was analyzed by three of its parts; *aptum*, *puritas*, and *perspicuitas*. First, it was found that the criterion of *aptum* was fulfilled in all speeches. Second, all speeches had linguistic flaws. Table 28 sums up the findings of *puritas* in the six speeches.

Table 28. Comparison of *Puritas*

Year	Percentage
1984	0.52
1997	3.45
2001	1.89
2004	2.16
2008	1.58
2011	1.27

At first it may seem there is no logical development given the fact that the first speech is the one with the fewest flaws. It is assumed that the more practice one has giving speeches, the fewer flaws one makes. However, it should be noted that Jobs had notes for this speech. In the others, Jobs speaks without notes. If the 1984 speech is omitted, it is possible to see a development. Only the 2004 speech does not fit into the logical development. However, in the last speech, Jobs has the fewest flaws, and it is thus possible to argue that there is a development. But it is not possible to detect a correlation to Apple's organizational performance. For that to be possible, the 2004 speech should have had fewer flaws than the 2001 speech.

Finally, the third part of *elocutio* was *perspicuitas*. Table 29 sums up the results of the findings.

Table 29. Comparison of Perspicuitas

Year	Percentage
1984	1.87
1997	1.69
2001	-
2004	1.16
2008	0.60
2011	0.46

At first glance, it seems that there is a development. The 2011 speech is the one with most clarity – or fewest instances of unclear language. However, as was mentioned in the analysis of the 2001 speech, Jobs speaks unclearly a few times. This had the consequence that it could not be transcribed and thus, not calculated. With this uncertainty, it is not possible to tell exactly whether there is a development in Jobs's rhetorical skills or a relation to Apple's organizational development.

The analysis of perspicuitas concludes the comparison of findings. In sum, only three devices analyzed showed a development in Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistics skills: in figures of speech, the use of the word 'right', and in puritas. However, the development in figures of speech is opposite the expected as Jobs uses less of this linguistics device. Thus it is more appropriate to call it a change. Also, the development of puritas is not clear as the 2004 speech has more flaws than the 2001. Finally, it was found in the comparison of the speeches that none of the devices analyzed correlate to Apple's organizational development. The next chapter discusses the findings and relates them to the problem statement of this thesis.

Chapter 8: Discussion

In the previous chapter, the findings of the speeches were compared. The result of this comparison showed that Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills have not developed over time. Only three of the rhetorical and linguistic devices showed a development or change. The three are figures of speech, the word 'right', and puritas. However, a development in a rhetorical or linguistic device three places does not mean it can be generally stated that Jobs's skills have developed. Thus, the first part of the problem statement, *whether Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills developed from the foundation of Apple in 1976 to his death in*

2011, can be answered: Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills have not developed over time. Although the first speech analyzed is from 1984, it might be assumed that Steve Jobs's skills did not develop from 1976 to 1984 as there is no development from 1984 to 2011 either.

However, the conclusion that Steve Jobs's skills did not develop does not mean that Steve Jobs did not have any skills. In fact, the analysis shows the exact opposite as Steve Jobs uses all the rhetorical and linguistic devices analyzed in this thesis. It can be concluded that Steve Jobs was always a skilled speaker and a talented user of rhetorical and linguistic devices when giving a speech. This notion generates the question of whether Jobs was aware of rhetoric and linguistics and actively used it in his speeches or whether he just had a natural talent for knowing what worked in presentations. Although this is a highly relevant and interesting question, a more thorough answer to it is unfortunately outside the scope of this thesis.

However, based on the analysis made in this thesis, it can be assumed that Jobs intuitively knew what worked in a speech and what did not. If Jobs had studied rhetoric and linguistics intensively, it would probably have been possible to detect a development in the speeches as he might have used rhetorical and linguistic devices more often or for instance flaws in puritas and perspicuitas less often. After all, 1984-2011 is a period of time of 27 years, almost a whole generation so a development is more likely to have occurred if Jobs was actively learning about rhetoric and linguistics.

As a final notion to the first part of the problem statement, it is rather surprising that Steve Jobs did not change the way he gave speeches from 1984-2011. Or at least did not change rhetorically and linguistically. But, when looking at the videos, it is evident that the layout of presentations and his clothes did change. In the last four speeches, Jobs wears the clothes he became famous for (chapter 4), and the presentations are different in font and color except the last three. However, since clothing and layout of presentations were not part of the theoretical approach used in this thesis, it has not been taken into account earlier. Nevertheless, the fact that these two factors changed does not make it less interesting that Jobs's rhetoric and linguistic skills barely developed.

The second part of the problem statement was *whether a development could be correlated to Apple's success*. In chapter 5.3, a relation between rhetoric, charisma, and organizational performance was examined. It was seen that some researchers see a connection between rhetoric and charisma, and others find a connection between charisma and organizational performance. Hence, I argued that with Steve Jobs's charisma as the mediator, his rhetorical

and linguistic skills might have had an influence on organizational performance. But since there was no development in Steve Jobs's speeches, a correlation cannot be found between Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills and Apple's organizational performance.

With this conclusion it is tempting to suggest that rhetoric and linguistics do not have an influence on organizational performance. It would, however, not be correct to state that the researches who claim that charisma has an influence on organizational performance are wrong. In order to make such a conclusion, it would require at least a more thorough examination of charisma than the definition presented in this thesis. Furthermore, Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills might actually have had an influence on Apple's organizational development. This notion is based on the above mentioned fact that Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills were good. For further research, this would be an interesting idea to examine, but for this thesis it is unfortunately out of scope.

The last part of the problem statement was *to conclude whether Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills could serve as examples for other business leaders*. The following discussion gives some suggestions of what business leaders could do with their rhetorical and linguistic skills in order to achieve what Steve Jobs did.

The first thing that comes to mind from the analysis of the speeches is the consistency in Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills. Although there were variations, and developments were found in three devices, Jobs's speeches more or less resemble each other. For the followers and receivers, this could have a positive influence as they know what to expect. When they do not have to think about the setup, they can focus on the content. Also, if they have had a good experience once, that experience is likely to repeat itself due to a similar speech the next time. Furthermore, the consistency could also have been one of the contributors in building Apple and Steve Jobs's image. As was argued in chapter 3, Apple is a highly successful company, and other business leaders are assumed to want to achieve the same success. This might be achieved by consistency in presentations and speeches.

It was also mentioned above that it would be interesting to find out if Jobs had a natural talent for rhetoric and linguistics, or whether it was an acquired skill. Since the speeches do not show a consistent development over time, it could be argued that Steve Jobs found it natural to speak the way he did. Other business leaders who do not find it as natural could study rhetoric and linguistics or watch videos of Steve Jobs in order to study body language and other nonverbal factors such as the use of voice.

Although business leaders could learn from Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills or strive to be like him, it could, however, also be argued that Steve Jobs cannot serve as an example alone. This is based on the conclusion made above that Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills cannot be correlated to Apple's organizational performance. It suggests that other factors are just as important for business success. Without going into too many details here, as it would be outside the scope of this thesis, factors such as the products themselves, design, Apple's brand, quality, and recommendations from friends could also have influenced Apple's organizational performance.

This notion leads to the last point made here, which also argues that Steve Jobs's rhetoric and linguistic skills might not serve as an example to others. Steve Jobs was an iconic person (chapters 1 and 4), and it could be argued that his success in speaking cannot be copied because he had this iconic status. Thus, business leaders should work on their own reputation and maybe study charisma if it can be acquired at all. Also, it was mentioned in chapters 1 and 4 that few companies have been so dependent on and synonymous with their leaders as Apple was – and maybe still is. Thus, it might be suggested that other business leaders make themselves visible to the public so stakeholders can get to know them. With this final notion, the next chapter, the conclusion, sums of the main points of this thesis.

Chapter 9: Conclusion

This thesis has sought to answer the following problem statement (chapter 1.1).

The aim of this thesis is to find out if Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills developed from the foundation of Apple in 1976 to his death in 2011 and whether this development can be correlated to Apple's organizational performance. Finally, this thesis aims to conclude whether Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills could serve as an example for other business leaders.

In the thesis, the problem statement was divided into three parts. First, a quantitative analysis of Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills was made. This analysis was based on Den Hartog & Verburg's (1997) four elements of rhetoric. The second element was supplemented by Ditlevsen et al.'s (2007) SPA text analysis model. Six speeches were

analyzed. The first one was from 1984 which was phase 1 of Apple's history. The last five speeches were from phase 3. The first speech was from 1997 when Jobs returned to Apple and the last one was from 2011; one of the last speeches Jobs gave before his death on October 5, 2011.

The analysis showed that Steve Jobs did not development his rhetorical and linguistic skills from 1976 to 2011. However, three changes in the use of rhetorical and linguistic devices were found. These changes appeared in the use of figures of speech, the interjection 'right?', and puritas. But the changes were not enough to state that there was a general development in Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills.

The second part of the problem statement was to find out whether a development in Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills could be correlated to Apple's organizational development. This was based on the quantitative results from the analysis, but a qualitative approach was applied as well because focus was on development. Since a development in Jobs's skills was not found, a correlation to Apple's organizational development could not be made either. However, the researchers who claimed that there is a relation between charisma and organizational performance could not be proven wrong because it would have required a more thorough examination of charisma. Furthermore, it cannot be concluded from the analysis of this thesis whether Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills might have had an influence on organizational performance although they did not develop from 1976 to 2011.

In the third part of the problem statement, an evaluation was made of whether other business leaders could learn from Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills. It was argued that business leaders could learn from the consistency used in Jobs's speeches and acquire similar skills by studying rhetoric and linguistic or watch videos of Steve Jobs. Furthermore, it was argued that the missing correlation between Steve Jobs's linguistic skills and Apple's organizational performance might suggest that business leaders should also focus on other aspects of the organization such as the brand and design of products. Also, because of Steve Jobs' iconic status, it was argued that business leaders should focus on their own reputation and study charisma if that is a skill that can be acquired. Finally, business leaders should consider making the connection between themselves and their companies more visible.

As induction has been used in this thesis, the results are generalizations based on a large data collection. But it might be argued that if a completely different data collection was used, nuances might appear when compared to the analysis in this thesis. On the other hand, this is

the nature of generalizations. Also, as seen from the analysis of this thesis, there was very little development in the rhetorical and linguistic devices analyzed. As such, it is argued that the results and conclusion are valid and in line with the inductive approach, even if another data collection was used.

In conclusion, Steve Jobs did not develop his rhetorical and linguistic skills over time and as such, a development could not be correlated to Apple's organizational performance. Finally, Steve Jobs's rhetorical and linguistic skills can serve as an example for other business leaders.

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