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The Rhetorical Construction of Performance Appraisal: Argument and Persuasion in the Talk of Appraisees and Appraisers

A thesis by

Warda Najeeb Jamal

Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Durham University Business School
Durham University
United Kingdom

August, 2017

Abstract

In view of the potential for controversy associated with performance appraisal (PA), the study considers it as the object of controversy worthy of rhetorical attention. However, being the object of controversy, which attracts rhetoric, PA becomes a less significant focus for the thesis. Instead, the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks becomes the primary subject of the research, particularly with regard to understanding how they construct the reality of their PA. Accordingly, the rhetorical framework of the study is drawn from the ideas of Aristotle (1991) and the contemporary authors, Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996). The study contributes towards understanding the importance of rhetoric in an organisational context characterised by the controversy or the potential for controversy. For example, the evidence of the presence of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers throughout the analysis represents rhetoric not only as an important aspect of PA, but also demonstrates it as a valuable persuasive skill used by them. Respectively, this contributes towards building a theory of PA from the perspective of rhetoric. Hence, as a practical implication of the study, rhetoric should be regarded as an important skill to be mastered by appraisees and appraisers. Moreover, the application of the rhetorical framework for the analysis contributes towards testing the theory, which constitutes the rhetorical framework, on the talk of appraisees and appraisers. Similarly, the rhetorical framework used in the study provides an important methodological contribution and implication for future studies For example, it may be used in the future studies which are based on organisational practices characterised by the controversy or potential for controversy. Another important contribution of the study involves the 'argumentative context' and 'justification process' as the analysis demonstrates how people anticipate the arguments of absent audiences, and use rhetorical devices to justify their own arguments, regarding a potentially controversial matter. In this regard, an interesting phenomenon observed in the analysis is the code-switching of the appraisees and appraisers, from English to Urdu, when they discussed the sensitive or taboo subjects, which suggests their preference for their native language for the potency in their expressions.

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the work presented in this thesis is my own. Material from the published and unpublished sources and work of others which is referred to in the thesis is credited to the source and author in question in the text. Ethical issues in the research have been considered and handled adequately in accordance with the Durham University Business School procedures and guidelines.

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Acknowledgement

This thesis would not have been possible without the guidance and the help of several individuals who in one way or another contributed and extended their valuable assistance in the preparation and completion of this study.

First and foremost, I am immensely thankful to my supervisor, Dr Peter Hamilton, for providing continuous support throughout different phases of my research. I gratefully acknowledge his patience, motivation, immense knowledge and invaluable suggestions. Thank you for always keeping your door open for me, and assisting me to overcome my writer's block. I would also extend my thanks to Professor Mark Learmonth, my second supervisor, for his useful advice and support during this research.

Secondly, I wish to express my best gratitude to the two private commercial banks in Pakistan for providing me with an orientation of their appraisal processes and access to their managerial employees. And most importantly, for providing me with a comfortable and conducive environment to conduct interviews.

My sincere thanks also goes to the managerial employees of the banks that are central to my research. I thank them from the bottom of my heart for finding some time to squeeze me in their hectic working schedules so that they could participate in the interviews.

Big thanks also to Durham University Business School which enabled excellent research facilities and working environment.

Finally, I owe my loving thanks to my family—I know I can't be that far from you when we are looking at the same side of the moon.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my father, Dr Najeeb Uddin Jamal, and my mother, Rehana Najeeb Jamal—who inspire me to be strong, courageous and beautiful.

Chapter 1−Introduction

The study of rhetoric has its roots in classical Greek philosophy (Symon, 2000) which can be traced back to the 5th century. At that time, one's ability to argue a case was viewed as a skill (Symon, 2000). Similarly, the study of rhetoric calls attention to the work of ancient Greek philosophers, such as Aristotle and Protagoras (Symon, 2008). These philosophers developed "various dimensions of rhetoric" (Hamilton, 1997: 229) which can still be utilised in current scenarios of arguments and so the field of rhetoric provides the opportunity to the contemporary scholars to use such dimensions in a variety of different ways. For example, in their own writings to argue about something and in the spoken words of others to identify how other people argue. Aristotle (1991) defined rhetoric as the art of persuasion. Clearly, it is a broad definition of rhetoric but it may be seen as a good starting point in terms of developing the foundation for the rhetorical framework used in the current study. Of course, Aristotle is considered more than just a starting point in this thesis.

The rhetorical framework of the current study has its foundation within the boundaries of both the classical and contemporary rhetorical tradition as it focuses on both the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric. The idea of taking into consideration both the classical and contemporary rhetorical traditions for the current study is generated from the fact that classical rhetoric is commonly considered to restrict itself to the study of formal public speeches while contemporary rhetoric is considered to include all kinds of situations in which there is persuasion by words (Bonet, 2014) and visuals. However, classical rhetoric is the theory of persuasion which is not merely restricted to the study of formal public speeches (Bonet, 2014). For example, according to Aristotle (1991: 70), rhetoric is about "the detection of persuasive aspects of each matter". In doing so, rhetoric has its greatest impact by defining the situation in such a manner as to make the speaker's conclusions seem naturally right, so that the listeners feel that they have discovered for themselves something that should have been obvious right from the start (Krebs, 2015). Hence, Aristotle (1991) considered rhetoric as a tool for creating common sense for persuasion. Therefore, the current study is based on both the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric. In fact, the emphasis on classical rhetoric provides the reason to emphasise its argumentative dimensions (the idea may be better understood as this chapter will progress). For example, Perelman & Olbrechts-Tyteca (1969/1971), referred to rhetoric as the practice of both argumentation and persuasion.

Similarly, with its focus on the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric, the current study rejects the common negative view of rhetoric in contemporary times which considers it as "cunning, manipulation, underhandedness, distortion of 'facts' or emptiness" (Hamilton, 1997: 230). Hence, the rhetorical framework of the current study appreciates the positive view of rhetoric and draws its inspiration from both classical and contemporary rhetorical traditions. Particularly, this involves utilisation of the ideas from the works of Aristotle (1991), Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996). It is this rhetorical framework which provides the basis for the analysis in the current study as it determines the codes for the analysis.

As far as the application of the rhetorical framework for the analysis is concerned, it is applied to the talk of appraisees and appraisers, regarding their performance appraisal (PA), which assists in our understanding of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. For example, the evidence of the presence of the codes, which are determined by the rhetorical framework, assists in our understating of how the appraisees and appraisers construct the reality of their PA through the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. These appraisees and appraisers belong to two banks within Pakistan. The talk of the appraisees and appraisers is attained through the utilisation of semi-structured interviews in which they were asked about different aspects of the PA process practiced in their banks. The banks and the respondents' names are not disclosed in this thesis so as to safeguard their confidentiality. Hence, the banks are referred as Bank A and Bank B in the entire thesis.

Moreover, the responses from 32 interviewees (14 from Bank A and 18 from Bank B) were considered for the rhetorical analysis in the current study. As these interviewees belong to two groups, appraisers and appraisees, they were organised in dyads for maintaining the dyadic relationship between them throughout the data collection process. Similarly, the dyadic relationship between the appraisers and their respective appraisees is also carried forward to the analysis. Therefore, 32 interviews with the appraisers and their respective appraisees from the 7 dyads were considered for the analysis. Each dyad includes one appraiser and a number of appraisees who were appraised by that appraiser in the dyad. These interviewees were selected by application of the convenience sampling technique. In fact the sample selection process and the collection of data happened simultaneously which initially produced 69 interviews from 11 dyads. But later in the research process, they were

screened down to 32 interviews from 7 dyads. This is all explained in detail under the research methodology (chapter 5).

However, it is important to underline here that even though 32 interviews with the appraisers and appraisees were considered for the analysis in the current study, the actual analysis in the current thesis is conducted on the final selected interviews' extracts of the appraisees and appraisers from the 7 dyads. Accordingly, those final selected interviews' extracts of the appraisers and appraisees from the 7 dyads are the unit of analysis in the current study. Therefore, there have been multiple screening levels used in the current study for various different reasons to reach to the final interviews' extracts for the analysis. Again, the chapter on research methodology explains this all in detail.

Another important point is that the PA process used in the two banks is mainly based on the PA forms, while the appraisal interviews (AIs) (or feedback interviews of PA) are not considered as mandatory in both of the banks. This makes the occurrence of such interviews a rare activity in both of the banks. As a result, rather than observing such interviews which rarely happen, semi-structured interviews with the appraisees and appraisers regarding their PA was the best choice for the data collection. This is one reason which justifies the use of the semi-structured interviews as a method of data collection. Other reasons which justify the use of semi-structured interviews will be discussed in the methodology chapter.

With regard to the reason behind choosing the talk of the appraisees and appraisers for the analysis, it lies in the notion that PA is a potentially controversial practice. For example, there are many different parties involved in the process with potentially different views and interests. Appraisees and appraisers are considered to be the two important parties to the PA process. This suggests that not only the PA process, but also the talk of the appraisees and appraisers regarding the process, is worthy of rhetorical attention. This is because rhetoric has long been linked to the controversial topics, issues and phenomena. Accordingly, the reasoning is that when something which is controversial attracts attention from the discipline of rhetoric then something which is potentially controversial should also be worthy of rhetorical attention. Therefore, the element of the potential for controversy in PA points to its rhetorical significance. These ideas are further discussed in chapter 2 (critical literature review on rhetoric), and chapter 3 (critical literature review on PA) in details. Specifically, chapter 3 substantiates the grounds for the rhetorical attention

to PA, by establishing the link between PA and rhetoric, and discusses where the current study stands.

Similarly, according to Billig (1991), the old writings about oratory are full of insight regarding the psychology involved in argumentation. Accordingly, from the ancient texts, it can be taken as an insight that thinking itself is rhetorical and argumentative (Billig, 1991). Hence, it is an essentially rhetorical and argumentative matter to hold opinions (Billig, 1991). These opinions determine our attitudes in terms of representing our positions or arguments in a matter of controversy (Billig, 1996).

Therefore, in view of the potential for controversy in PA, "the interviewees can, therefore, be seen to express attitudes, that is," (Hamilton, 1997: 239) "evaluations which are for or against things, issues, people or whatever" (Billig, 1996: 206). This requires us to appreciate the "argumentative context" (Billig, 1987: 91), "that is the possible counter-positions against which the speaker is arguing – we can only understand a particular argument if we know what is being argued against" (Symon, 2000: 478). Therefore, the arguments or positions of the appraisers and appraisees during the course of interviews can be regarded as the reality of their PA itself as they are their anticipated positions of each other based on their experiences of each other and their PA as a whole. These ideas have also been discussed later in this chapter, and in chapter 4 (rhetorical framework), as they are the essence of the current study.

Further to the previous discussion, I will now state the purpose, focus and the contributions of the current study. The purpose of the current study is to rhetorically analyse how the appraisees and appraisers construct the reality of their PA through the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. Hence, the focus of the current study is the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric.

Moreover, owing to the potential for controversy associated with it, PA is considered as an object worthy of rhetorical attention. Therefore, being considered as an object worthy of rhetorical attention, it is a less significant focus for the thesis. Instead, the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding their PA is the primary subject of the research. This is in order to determine how they construct the reality of their PA through the use of such dimensions in their talk.

Consequently, the study mainly aims to contribute towards our understanding of rhetoric and its uses in controversial or potentially controversial matters.

In this regard, certainly, it is important to know the reality of the PA that is constructed by the appraisees and appraisers. (e.g., it is important to know their arguments or positions about their PA). What is essentially focused in the current study is how they have constructed it. Needless to say that without knowing what they have argued or constructed about their PA (or what the reality is of their PA), it is not possible to know how they have argued or constructed about their PA (how the reality of their PA is constructed). What they have argued or constructed as the reality of their PA, therefore, provides the material for the rhetorical analysis to find out how they have argued or constructed that reality of their PA. There is a very fine line between the two and so the study should not be confused. For example, the use of semi-structured interviews as a method of data collection, in the current study, provides the data regarding what they have argued about their PA, while the implementation of the rhetorical framework provides the method to analyse that data in order to understand how they have argued about their PA. This suggests the study's methodological contribution in a sense that such rhetorical framework may be used in the future studies which are based on organisational practices characterised by the controversy or potential for controversy.

Having discussed the purpose, focus and the apparent contributions, the current research aims to answer the following three research questions:

1. *What are the antagonistic characteristics of the arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the performance appraisal (PA) practiced in their banks?*

2. *How do appraisees and appraisers employ persuasive appeals to construct the arguments in their talk regarding the PA practiced in their banks?*

3. *What are the dominant stylistic aspects (figure of speech, particularly tropes) of the arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks?*

The focus of the current study, which is on the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric, can be clearly noticed in the three main research questions. This further

elucidates that the rhetorical framework, which is employed for the analysis, mainly emphasises the persuasive discourse (Nelson et at., 1987). Accordingly, Aristotle's (1991) available means of persuasion are given importance in this regard (e.g., logos ethos and pathos). Whilst advocating the ideas of contemporary scholars, Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996), emphasis is given to the argumentative nature of rhetoric. Needless to say, the emphasis on the persuasive discourse itself emphasises the argumentative nature of rhetoric (as mentioned earlier). This calls to attention the idea of dialogueic characteristic or two-sidedness of the arguments which contributes to the rhetorical framework of the current study.

The idea of two-sidedness of the arguments has its roots connected to an ancient Greek philosopher, Protagoras, who particularly contributed to the discipline of rhetoric with the notions of 'logoi' and 'dissoi-logoi' (logos and anti-logos). On the other hand, within the boundaries of the cotemporary rhetorical tradition, these are the notions which Billig (1987) utilised to combine and contribute to the two disciplines, classical rhetoric and social psychology. Therefore, Billig's stance on rhetoric "is very much Protagorean" (Simons, 2014: 26). "Protagoras's assumption was that any 'logos' could be matched by a counter-statement" (Billig, 1987: 75). Billig (1987: 75) referred to the term "counter-statement" as "anti-logos", while he referred to "logoi" as any form of "discourse, speech or talk which can always be challenged by counter-statements, the anti-logoi" (Hamilton, 1997: 234). This also forms the base for Potter's (1996) ideas on rhetoric which further contributes to the rhetorical framework of the current study.

Potter (1996) referred to two techniques which are used by the speakers, and on the basis of which one can identify 'logoi' and 'anti-logoi'. They are offensive and defensive techniques of rhetoric which Potter (1996) also termed as "ironizing" and "reifying" discourses where "ironizing" can be seen as offensive rhetoric and "reifying", on the other hand, can be regarded as defensive rhetoric (Potter, 1996: 107). Potter (1996) suggested that such descriptions are a central feature of rhetoric where rhetoric is treated as a feature of antagonistic relationship between versions (in other words, how a description counters an alternative description, and how it is organised to resist being countered). Accordingly, offensive and defensive rhetoric (or ironizing and reifying discourses) can be referred to as the argumentative dimensions or devices of rhetoric which are used by speakers (such as appraisees and appraisers) to construct the reality of some phenomena (such as PA). Hence, the presence of these dimensions or devices in the talk of appraisees and appraisers

would suggest the presence of the antagonistic relationships between their accounts or versions, and so these dimensions or devices can also be referred to as the antagonistic characteristics of their arguments.

In addition, Potter (1996:107) stated that "many weapons serve both purposes". In other words, speakers can use several other argumentative dimensions or devices to "reify" and "ironize", or to build up and undermine the "factual status of descriptions" (Potter, 1996: 176). Those other argumentative dimensions or devices can potentially affect the speaker's construction of the offensive and defensive rhetoric in either positive or negative way, based on how well they have been utilised by him or her. And so, this can affect the persuasiveness of the arguments respectively. Therefore, those other argumentative dimensions or devices are also being investigated in the talk of appraisees and appraisers. All these dimensions or devices are later discussed in this chapter as codes for the analysis while the rhetorical framework (chapter 4) provides a detailed discussion about them.

Moreover, in consideration of the positive view of rhetoric in the current study, the argumentative rhetorical dimensions or devices, which will be identified in the analysis of the talk of appraisees and appraisers, should not be regarded as their tactics to manipulate the reality. In fact, their arguments should be taken as the reality of the PA itself (as discussed earlier). However, the use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions (or devices) of rhetoric in the talk of the appraisees and appraisers will have a positive or negative effect on the persuasive power of their arguments; for example, in terms of their arguments being taken or not taken as naturally right (Krebs, 2015). This suggests an Aristotelian conception of rhetoric which has been discussed earlier in this chapter and throughout in chapter 2 (Critical literature review on rhetoric).

All the previous discussion regarding the argumentative dimensions of rhetoric provides an understanding in answering the first research question. So now I will specifically discuss all the three main research questions from the perspective of the rhetorical framework used in the current study. However, it is important to mention that the detailed discussion regarding the rhetorical framework is done in chapter 4 (rhetorical framework). With regard to answering the first research question, it can be noticed from the previous discussion that the rhetorical framework focuses on the argumentative dimensions of rhetoric. In other words, the rhetorical framework utilises the ideas from the work of Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996). Therefore, rhetoric is treated "as a feature of the

antagonistic relationship between versions: how description counters an alternative description, and how it is organised, in turn to resist being countered" (Potter: 1996: 108).

A number of argumentative dimensions or devices, from the rhetorical framework, have been decided upon as the codes for the analysis of the talk of the appraisees and appraisers. The codes are: arguments and counter arguments / offensive and defensive rhetoric / ironizing and reifying discourses, ethnomethodological understanding of reflexivity, managing the dilemma of stake (stake invocation, stake inoculation, stake confession, category entitlement, out-there-ness (empiricist discourse, consensus and corroboration and vivid detail) and ontological gerrymandering. Hence, these codes are sought in the talk of the appraisees and appraisers, for the analysis, in order to answer the first research question. Accordingly, the presence of these argumentative dimensions or devices of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers will suggest the antagonistic characteristics in their arguments.

With regard to answering the second research question, the rhetorical framework focuses on Aristotle's (1991) persuasive appeals. They are classified as ethos (i.e., appeal based on the character and credibility of the persuader), pathos (i.e., appeal directed to the emotions of the persuadee) and logos (i.e., appeal based on evidence and reason) (Shapiro & Schall, 1990). Therefore, these three persuasive dimensions (or devices) have been decided as the codes for the analysis of the talk of appraisees and appraisers. Accordingly, the arguments of the appraisees and appraisers are analysed for their utilisation of these three persuasive appeals.

With regard to answering the third research question, the rhetorical framework focuses on Aristotle's (1991) canon of style (or 'elocution'). This involves a focus on the stylistic aspects in the talk of appraisees and appraisers. In comparison, the first two research questions fall under Aristotle's (1991) canon of invention (or 'inventio'), which involves focus on the technical argument in the talk of the appraisees and appraisers. Therefore, answering the third research question requires a search for the dominant figures of speech (particularly tropes). Ever since antiquity, figures of speech have been commonly associated with ornamentation for its own sake (Cicero, 1954, cited in Kallendorf & Kallendorf, 1985). However, in the current study, the reason behind searching for the dominant figures of speech in the talk of appraisees and appraisers is to observe the persuasive artistry and imagery in it. In addition, as the figures of speech have been

associated with logic and reasoning at various points in the history of rhetoric (Kallendrof & Kallendrof, 1985), so their relation with the persuasive appeals and the argumentative dimensions or devices is also considered in the current study (e.g., in terms of their positive or negative effects on the persuasiveness of the appraisees and appraisers' arguments). For example, McGuigan, (2010) maintained that rhetorical devices, such as figures of speech, can make an argument stronger and more convincing. However, their inefficient use potentially result in a weak non-persuasive argument.

Accordingly, the efficient use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions (or devices) of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers will essentially be considered in the analysis. This will not only be done on an individual basis (e.g., how efficiently they have been used by the appriasees and appraisers in their respective arguments), but also in comparison (e.g., how efficiently they have been used by the appriasees and appraisers in terms of their dyadic relationship).

Having discussed all three research questions from the perspective of the rhetorical framework used for the analysis, I will now particularly discuss the current study from the perspective of rhetorical analysis (e.g., in terms of what the RA enables us to achieve). For example, "The rhetorical analysis enables us to see how the actors are rhetorical beings who construct their own organisational 'realities'" (Hamilton, 1997: 239). Therefore, the focus of the rhetorical analysis in the current study is: how the reality of the PA is constructed by the appraisers and appraisees with their use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions (or devices) of rhetoric in their talk. Moreover, with an effort to maintain the dyadic relationship between the appraisees and their respective appraisers, the current study provides an opportunity for the comparison in the analysis (e.g., a comparison between the arguments of the appraisees and their respective appraisers based on how they construct their arguments for attaining persuasion).

Here again, the current study suggests the methodological significance and contribution in relation to our understanding of rhetoric. For example, in terms of how the talk regarding a potentially controversial practice is analysed through the use of a rhetorical framework which is based on the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric. At the same time, it is an empirical study. Hence, the evidence for the presence of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers would suggest the importance of the use of rhetoric to the stakeholders of PA. Similarly the

rhetorical analysis contributes in the sense that it delineates a thorough way for management researchers to study the rhetoric of members of organisations regarding a potentially controversial, and important, management and human resource management (HRM) phenomenon. Moreover, the theory, which constitutes the rhetorical framework in the study, is tested on the actual talk of the appraisees and appraisers. While the evidence of the presence of the codes, which are determined by the rhetorical framework, in the talk of the appraisees and appraisers builds a theory of PA from the perspective of rhetoric. This contributes to the literature of both rhetoric and PA.

However, the important thing to emphasise is that neither are they the only aspects of rhetoric which can be explored, nor they are the only approach to rhetoric which could have been drawn upon (Edwards & Nicoll, 2006). In view of this, the current study may inspire the use of rhetorical analysis in a variety of different ways in future research. For example, within the boundaries of the positive view of rhetoric, the talk of appraisees and appraisers may potentially be rhetorically analysed with the use of different rhetorical frameworks. Similarly, different methods of data collection may be utilised for rhetorical analysis by the future researchers (such as recorded observations of the feedback interviews of the PA), along with the utilisation of a different rhetorical framework. On the other hand, a similar rhetorical framework, as in the current study (e.g., which integrates concepts from both the classical and contemporary rhetorical traditions), may be used for the analysis of the talk of the parties to a controversial or potentially controversial management and HRM practice.

Last but not least, I will discuss the importance of this study in terms of its novelty. The current research's novelty lies in the fact that it has fused together a number of factors, such as its attention to the PA from the perspective of rhetoric, the particular rhetorical framework which has been employed in the study for the analysis of the talk regarding a potentially controversial practice (e.g., PA), the data collection method used in the study (e.g., semi-structured interviews), the dyadic consideration in both the data collection and analysis, and finally, the context of the study which is the PA process of the two banks within Pakistan. All these factors expand the scope of the current study from the methodological perspective. Therefore, these factors are regarded as the strengths of the current study. They all have been discussed and justified time and again in the current thesis.

In this regard, simply take the case of the context of the current study (e.g., which is the PA process of the two banks within Pakistan). The organisations of Pakistan are under researched in terms of such study. However, this does not mean that such study is not worth conducting. For example, despite of the potential for controversy associated with PA, it is a widely used HRM practice in the organizations within Pakistan. Thus, making the scenario of the organizations in Pakistan immensely suitable for such study. Additionally, the scope of the current study is not limited from the methodological perspective. For example, the PA process practiced in the two banks may be similar to, or different from those utilised in the other banks within Pakistan. It may even be similar to, or different from, the banks and organisations of other countries. Nevertheless, as long as there are controversial or potentially controversial management and/or HRM phenomena to study, and there is an involvement of people (or an involvement of the rhetorical beings) in those phenomena, there will always remain an exigency to study those phenomena from the rhetorical perspectives of the people who are the part of those phenomena. Similarly, there will always be an exigency to investigate how the parties to those phenomena construct their realities of those phenomena with the use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. This is an important aspect to emphasise for the studies because, in turn, this cannot only be used for understanding the positions of the parties involved in those phenomena, but also in understanding the realities of those phenomena through their positions.

1.1. Structure of the Chapters

The next two chapters, chapter 2 and 3, critically review the literature on rhetoric and performance appraisal (PA). In these two chapters, different concepts, studies, theories and frameworks of different authors, scholars, researchers and philosophers are discussed through a critical lens which substantiate the grounds of the current study. Subsequently, chapter 4 is concerned with the rhetorical framework which is based on a combination of views from the classical and contemporary rhetorical traditions. Specifically, it is based on the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric with a focus on the ideas from the work of Aristotle (1991), Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996). It is the framework which establishes the basis for the analysis. Next is chapter 5, research methodology, which mainly discusses the different methodological considerations of the current research. Following this, chapter 6 comprises the findings and analysis. It rhetorically analyses the talk of the appraisees and appraisers, in accordance with the rhetorical framework and the three research questions, and presents the findings simultaneously. Finally, chapter 7 provides a conclusion and discussion which mainly reflects the results of the study, suggests limitations, and provides contributions and future directions.

Chapter 2−Critical Literature Review on Rhetoric

This chapter critically examines the literature on rhetoric in order to substantiate the grounds for the current study as it covers all the important areas concerning the current study from the perspective of rhetoric. However, this chapter is only one of the two chapters on literature. The next chapter on literature covers the area of performance appraisal (PA), and critically examines the important literature regarding it in relation to the current research. Moreover, after critically examining the literature in this chapter, it is towards the end of next chapter that the close link between rhetoric and PA is established. Therefore, both the chapters on literature are important to substantiate the ground for the current study.

2.1. Rhetoric: An Introduction

Since antiquity, rhetoric has been recognised as a potent and important social phenomenon (Hopfl, 1995). According to Kennedy (1998), human beings are imbued with the rhetorical instinct as they can reflect on their past, speculate about their future, tell stories, create literature, philosophize about politics and ethics and last but not least speak about speech. This makes rhetoric "a natural phenomenon: the potential of it exist in all life forms that can give signals, it is practiced in limited forms by nonhuman animals" (Kennedy, 1998: 4). Thus, Kennedy (1998) argued that rhetoric has an importance in reality for the speakers, writers, critics, teachers and audiences.

Raymond (1982) asserted that when the discipline of rhetoric is applied to the humanities or any other field, it is more useful than when it is applied to the science. This is "because it deals with questions that the science methodologically excludes"; for example, "questions about values, ethics, esthetics, meaning, politics, justice, causality involving human motives and causality involving an indeterminate number of variables" (Raymond, 1982: 781*)*. As such, physics can tell us how to build a nuclear reactor; however, it cannot tell us whether we should build one, or on balance, whether the costs will overshadow the benefits (Raymond, 1982*)* of such a decision. The reason behind this is that these are the issues which involve the potential for controversy and so require debate or arguments and persuasion. In other words, these issues involve rhetoric. Similarly, the perspective of the current study is that when the appraisees and appraisers talk about their PA, a potentially

controversial practice, they are involved in debate or arguments and persuasion. In other words, their talk cannot be seen as a mere talk but it is rhetoric. This means that the notion of the current study lies within the boundaries of the positive view of rhetoric, which emanates from the classical discipline of Aristotle's (1991) rhetoric. However, in this regard, the current research has come across a vast amount of literature which is based on Plato's (1999a) common criticism or view on rhetoric, where he "dismissed rhetoric as 'mere cooking'" (Tonks, 2002: 807).

2.2. Rhetoric and Oratory

In the ancient Greek times, rhetoric was primarily concerned with the oral discourse as the students were taught rhetoric to become orators or public speakers (Yulong et al., 2006). The 'word' rhetoric itself is derived from the Greek 'word' rhetorike, and the 'word' rhetorike is derived from the Greek 'word' rhetor (e.g., where rhetor as a 'noun' means orator or a public speaker, and as a 'verb' means to speak) (Yulong et al., 2006). Hence, the 'word' rhetoric was used to refer to the art of an effective public speaking (Yulong et al., 2006).

The speaker in rhetorical public speech was therefore someone more than merely a person who says words in the presence of others (Crick, 2014). He was considered to have adequate skills for persuading the audience. In other words, he was considered to have adequate rhetorical skills. For example, according to Crick (2014), a rhetorical public speaker is called a 'rhetor' because he is considered as a conscious instigator of social action who uses persuasive discourse in order to achieve his ends (Crick, 2014). Therefore, there was a close relationship between rhetoric and oratory in the ancient times. The latter was considered as the means of achieving the former.

According to Watson (1994) rhetoric has traditionally been associated with grand speeches and flights of oratory. The relationship between rhetoric and oratory can be further explained with what Yulong et al. (2006: 1) argued: "Oratory can be considered the foundation of rhetoric. Oratory is more than ordinary speech but a special kind of public speaking. The orator speaks for a special purpose, in a special way and at a special time. Oratory rises above the common level of speech and has a greater level of appeal and emotional impact of the audience. Its purpose is to impress, convince, or move the audience to action. Oratory had been practiced long before the ancient rhetoricians

developed a theory and a vocabulary for rhetoric. The ancient rhetoricians observed that certain orators were effective and others were not. They then developed a set of principles for successful communication. These principles make up the art of rhetoric."

However, one needs to understand that rhetoric as a field of study is a very broad field. It is neither merely restricted to speech and writing, nor it is merely confined to public and political speeches. In its true spirit, rhetoric can be applied to all sorts of disciplines (e.g., music, architecture, advertisement, management, etc.), social situations (e.g., my interviewing of the appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks), and even to those fields and situations where there is no apparently visible audience (e.g., one may possibly be his or her own audience, and so potentially be persuading himself or herself through his or her cognitive or thinking process).

In case of the current study, the application of the rhetorical analysis on the interviews' talk of the appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks is an important approach to study how they construct the reality of their PA. Therefore, this rhetorical approach in the current study should not be regarded as an inadequate approach, especially when the rhetorical analysis is considered as an emerging approach, which is applied to a number of areas in the organisational and management studies, in a variety of different ways, for attaining different purposes. There is a whole portion, discussed later in this chapter, which covers the literature regarding the rhetorical analysis in different organisational and management studies.

2.3. Towards Defining and Understanding Rhetoric

The 'word' rhetoric has been associated to both the positive and negative connotations; therefore, it has taken on a wide range of meaning over the years (Yulong et al., 2006). Nash (1989: ix) asserted that rhetoric is an "ordinary human competence … an ordinary thing with some extraordinary manifestations, some graceful, some less so". We often experience that "the term has become almost wholly used in a pejorative way, to label talk which is contrived, fanciful and devoid of substance" (Watson, 1994: 183). This sort of negative view of rhetoric has been discussed in detail in the later part of this chapter. However, it is important to mention that although many people assign negative connotations to rhetoric, others do not. According to Watson (1994: 183), "Writers like Nash are keen to restore rhetoric to its proper place as a widely used human skill". In this sense, the current study can be seen as an affirmative contribution.

Therefore, in the consideration of different meanings attached to the 'word' rhetoric, the task of defining it is not very straightforward. For example, Poulakos (1999: 19) affirmed that since Plato's attack on rhetoric as "mere cookery," one of the persistent questions that rhetoricians have sought to answer is: "What is rhetoric?" The answers have been wide-ranging, from Aristotle's ''the faculty wherein one discovers the available means of persuasion in any case what so ever,'' to Francis Bacon's ''the application of reason to the imagination for the better moving of the will,'' to Kenneth Burke's concept of "identification" which assumes that "you persuade a man only insofar as you can talk his language by speech, gesture, tonality, order, image, attitude, idea, *identifying* your ways with his," to Group Mu's notion of rhetoric as stylistics (Poulakos, 1999: 19). In some cases the definitions attributed to rhetoric have made it as narrow as to include little more than style and delivery within its purview while in other cases, its meaning has been as broad as to colonise and include all other forms of discourse, ranging from logic to poetics (Poulakos, 1999).

Winsor (1998) maintained the fundamental and frequently suggested definition of rhetoric, which is 'the art of persuasion', where rhetoric is viewed as a persuasive discourse. Similarly, according to Adegoju (2008), the studies of persuasive speaking essentially require an exploration of the art of rhetoric. However, Adegoju (2008) emphasised that persuasive speech always occurs in a situation where two or more point of views exist (Adegoju, 2008). Adegoju's (2008) idea is parallel to what Lucas (2015) argued, that is, there is no need of persuasion in the cases where there is no disagreement. Given this viewpoint, Adegoju (2008) further argued that persuasive speeches centre on four types of propositions or arguments: propositions of fact, value, policy and concern about a problem. O'Hair et al. (1995) explained that propositions of fact assert that something is true or false, propositions of value allege that something is or is not worthwhile, propositions of policy recommend a course of action or policy as necessary and desirable / unnecessary and undesirable, and the speech designed to create concern about a problem asks an audience to agree that specific conditions should be perceived as a problem requiring solution. Adegoju (2008) asserted that the classification into these categories is often mixed as a topic in one category could easily be made to fit into another.

Now back to Winsor. Winsor's (1998) definition of rhetoric has its roots in Aristotle's definition of rhetoric. Aristotle's work on rhetoric is the foundation of the system commonly called classical rhetoric (Corbett, 1967). According to Aristotle (1991), the

speech can produce persuasion either through the character of the speaker (ethos), the emotional state of the listener (pathos) or the argument (logos) itself. In particular to examining the advertising industry, Adegoju (2008) explicated that Aristotle's work on rhetoric was a remarkable departure from the earlier works which had neglected "the power of observing the means of persuasion on" (Aristotle, 2010: 7) the key subject matters of proof. For example, in the view of Adegoju (2008), the earlier works on rhetoric were mainly confined to explore the emotional appeal of persuasion in the argument (and ignored the other two, logical and ethical appeals). Hence, Freese (1959) argued that Aristotle's contribution to the art of rhetoric marked a systematic and scientific orientation to rhetorical theory as it considers the presence of all the three appeals or means of persuasion.

Therefore, to this point, it will not be wrong to say that the notions of rhetoric and persuasion go hand in hand together (de Wet, 2010) or in other words, persuasion is inseparable from rhetoric (Alo, 2012). One may develop a clear understanding of their relationship after understanding them from Aristotle's perspective. For example, Aristotle (2010: 6-7) argued: "Rhetoric may be defined as the faculty of observing in any given case the available means of persuasion. This is not a function of any other art. Every other art can instruct or persuade about its own particular subject-matter; for instance, medicine about what is healthy and unhealthy, geometry about the properties of magnitudes, arithmetic about numbers, and the same is true of the other arts and sciences. But rhetoric we look upon as the power of observing the means of persuasion on almost any subject presented to us; and that is why we say that, in its technical character, it is not concerned with any special or definite class of subjects."

The three interconnected Aristotelian concepts (or appeals to persuasion), logos (logical appeal), ethos (ethical appeal), and pathos (emotional appeal), represent the relationship between the speaker and audience, and have survived as important notions, not only for the speakers wishing to be effectively persuasive, but also for the rhetorician seeking to evaluate arguments (Summa, 1990). Summa (1990) further argued that the first two of these dimensions, ethos and pathos, have to do with the character of the relationship between the author and the audience. It is interesting to see that although these two dimensions do not refer to the basic content of the argumentation, they are connected to the forms that arguments take as they actually occur in the particular human context (Edmondson, 1984). Logos, in comparison, refers to the abstract intellectual construction of the argument itself (Edmondson, 1984).

Similarly, Rapp (2002) explained that the persuasion is accomplished by character when the speech is delivered in such a way that it generates the credibility of the speaker among the audience. In addition to the credibility of the character, the persuasive efforts depend on the emotional dispositions of the audience (Rapp, 2002). Hence, the speaker has to stimulate the emotions of the audience because emotions have the power to modify their judgements (Adegoju, 2008). Finally, the speaker persuades by the argument itself (Adegoju, 2008) with its logic and reasoning.

Similar to Winsor (1998), as discussed earlier, Munz (1990) also maintained rhetoric as 'the art of persuasion'. In this sense Munz's (1990) ideas of rhetoric are similar to Aristotle's (1991) ideas of rhetoric. According to Munz (1990), any sort of persuasion is rhetorical as long as it does not rely on physical coercion. For example, in Munz (1990) views, persuasion is mostly done by language; however, it can also be done by ceremonies, body language, or staged displays of sounds or images. However, further Munz (1990) emphasised on the notion that there is one great exception where persuasion takes place without rhetoric. In the elabouration of this notion, Munz (1990: 122) pointed to what he considered as a fundamental distinction between truth and persuasion as he asserted: "People can be persuaded of the truth of a statement when there is reasonable or rational grounds for the statement. In that case no further persuasion over and above the evidence or the rationality of the argument itself is required. This exception is indicative of the heart of the matter. We believe we rely on rhetoric when there is no or little evidence for a statement and when there is no or little logical argument to support it. The heart of the matter is that when a statement can be shown to be true, no rhetoric is required to persuade people to give their assent. When it cannot be shown to be true and even when it is believed to be false, nevertheless people can be persuaded to give their assent by the employment of rhetoric".

Munz (1990) argument is debatable. For example, how does one decides on whether there is a rational or reasonable ground for the statement where rhetoric is not needed for persuasion? Moreover, one may argue that saying that rhetoric isn't required in such a situation is itself rhetoric? Munz (1990: 122) further asserted: "Truth, provided it shows itself to be true, commands assent. When there is no truth or when such truth as there is cannot be shown, other forms of persuasion are needed. Rhetoric is important for persuasion even when truth can be exhibited. But the great problem and questionable merit

of rhetoric is that it can be employed successfully even when the statements, which people are persuaded, by rhetoric, to give their assent to, are not true. The reason why the importance is attached to rhetoric is an index to the history of ideas lies precisely in this relationship between rhetorical persuasion and persuasion by truth. In ages and in societies in which there is no established manner of finding truths and in which propositions are counted as true because they are current in a given community or in a culture in which all positions are considered to be equally valid, rhetoric obviously must take pride of place. Also in situations in which communities with different standards of behaviour and belief rub shoulders, rhetoric is the only way in which differences of opinion can be ironed out. Finally, in ages and societies in which there is no "science," the value of different opinions can only be assessed by rhetorical devices." However, the issues still remain debatable as Munz's (1990) explanation leaves rational persuasion outside of rhetoric (McCloskey, 1990).

In the views of McCloskey (1990:143), "Munz has not grasped the main point of *The Rhetoric of the Human Sciences,* which is that intellectual historians need an art of argument." For example, according to Munz (1990), rhetoric is merely limited to persuasion in case the rational methods fail. McCloskey (1990) considered identifying rhetoric with irrationality as a persistent error made by Munz (1990). Even what Munz (1990) considered as logic and evidence are themselves dependent on rhetorical decisions which we human beings make (McCloskey, 1990).

Similarly in case of the current study, when the appraisees and appraisers talk about the PA practiced in their banks, one may expect them to talk rationally or realistically and so rhetoric cannot be dismissed as a product of such situations where rationality or reality is absent. Especially when their talk is about a potentially controversial practice where one may expect them to involve in arguments or debate. Moreover, one may be interested to see how the appraisees and appraisers construct the reality of the PA practiced in their banks. For example, what sort of rhetorical devices they use to construct the reality of their PA. Even if we suppose that their arguments are beyond rationality, it opens room for debate and arguments in order to ascertain how their arguments are beyond rationality. Thus, rhetoric cannot be dismissed because of its argumentative dimensions which involve cognition and thinking. And these are the ingredients to rationality.

Therefore, it is important to mention that the current study does not agree to the beyond rationality conception of rhetoric, and so considers the talk of the appraisees and appraisers as reality based on rationality (or in other words, reality based on the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric). Accordingly, the study practically seeks the presence of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of the appraisees and appraisers in order to determine how they construct the rationality or reality of their PA. In this regard, a particular rhetorical framework is being used, which emanates from the work of Aristotle (1991), and the contemporary scholars such as Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996). The rhetorical framework is discussed in chapter 4.

Now back to more definitions and conceptions of rhetoric from the perspective of different scholars. Bizzell (1992: 218) brings our attention back to rhetoric's traditional notion and asserted that "Rhetoric is the study of the personal, social, and historical elements in human discourse - how to recognise them, interpret them, and act on them, in terms both of situational context and of verbal style. This is the kind of study one has to perform in order to effect persuasion, the traditional end of rhetoric".

Moreover, Burke (1969: 41) introduced the concept of 'identification' and defined the fundamental function of rhetoric as "the use of words by human agents to form attitudes or induce actions in other human agents". Therefore, Burke (1969) did not take away the focus from the traditional view of rhetoric, persuasion. According to Burke (1969) 'identification' is a fundamental process for human beings to communicate because all human being are different from each other; therefore, they seek to identify with each other through communication which results in overcoming their differences with each other. In other words, Burke (1969) emphasised rhetoric as something which is action-oriented with the fundamental concept of 'identification'. For example, in order to prove his point, Burke (1969) associated the concept of 'identification' with persuasion: "a speaker persuades an audience by the use of stylistic identifications; his act of persuasion may be for the purpose of causing the audience to identify itself with the speaker's interests" (Burke, 1969: 46).

In addition, Kennedy's (1998: 3) defined rhetoric as "a form of mental and emotional energy". According to Kennedy (1991), this energy is inherent in the emotions and thoughts, which is transmitted to others through a system of signs and language in order to influence their decisions and actions. In order to make this idea clear, Kennedy (1998: 5) further explained that "Rhetoric, in the most general sense, may thus be identified with the energy inherent in an utterance (or an artistic representation): the mental or emotional

energy that impels the speaker to expression, the energy level coded in the message, and the energy received by the recipient who then uses mental energy in decoding and perhaps acting on the message. Rhetorical labour takes place."

Furthermore, Booth (1988: xiv-xv) affirmed that rhetoric holds "entire dominion over all verbal pursuits. Logic, dialectic, grammar, philosophy, history, poetry, all are rhetoric." Again, this represents the idea of omnipresence or universality of rhetoric which has been discussed earlier in the chapter. Similarly, Richard McKeon (1987) virtually expressed the same opinion as for him rhetoric is best understood as (Herrick, 2016) "a universal and architectonic art" (McKeon1987: 108). All right, we understand that "Rhetoric is universal, that is, present everywhere we turn" but what McKeon (1987) meant by architectonic? (Herrick, 2016: 3). In order to answer this question Herrick (2016: 3) further explained: "By this term, McKeon meant that rhetoric organises and gives structure to the other arts and disciplines". This is because rhetoric is, among other things, the study of how we organise and employ language effectively, and thus it becomes the study of how we organise our thinking on a wide range of subjects." These points provide a base for the use of the semi-structured interviews in the current study (e.g., for the rhetorical analysis of the talk of the appraisees and appraisers in order to know how they construct the reality of their PA).

There is an interesting move in understanding rhetoric from the perspective of discursive social psychology (DSP) which combines two fields, discourse analysis (DA) and social psychology (SP). Therefore, much of the modern interest, particularly among discursive researchers, in the link between attitude and argument in discourse draws upon Billig's (1987) work on rhetoric (McKinlay & McVittie, 2008). In Billig's (1987: 111) views, "humans do not converse because they have inner thoughts to express, but they have thoughts to express because they converse". Billig (1987) work suggested the importance of studying the way which emphasises that expressions of attitude are publicly adopted positions which are located within current controversy. This means that expressing an attitude involves either implicitly or explicitly criticising possible counter-positions and so from this perspective, then, all attitudinal discourses are rhetorical (McKinlay & McVittie, 2008). Similarly, in the current study, when the appraisees and appraisers talk or argue about their PA, they can be regarded as expressing their attitudes through which they criticise the potential counter-arguments implicitly or explicitly. In this way, Billig's (1987) approach to rhetoric drives our attention beyond the approach of rhetoric which merely confines it to the political or public speeches and courtrooms. For example, one of

the consequences of adopting Billig's (1987) approach is that, if all attitudinal talk is essentially rhetorical, then the ideas such as argument and rhetoric become applicable in a whole range of situations or contexts: "beyond those which are typified by the ideological persuasion observable in political speeches or the explicitly persuasive blandishments of the courtroom lawyer" (McKinlay & McVittie, 2008: 126). Hence, this justifies the setting of the current study which is appraisees and appraisers talking about the PA practiced in their banks during a course of one-to-one interviews with them.

Similar to Billig's (1987) views on rhetoric, Potter's (1996) views are also inspired from the discipline of DSP. According to Potter (1996), Billig's (1987) views can be applied to the factual accounts. For example, Billig's (1987) perspective on rhetoric emphasises the way that attitude of objects are socially constructed by the production of accounts which are designed to be heard as factual statements (McKinlay & McVittie, 2008). Accordingly, Potter (1996) emphasised this rhetorical approach of Billig (1987) in order to suggest that such factual accounts are essentially argumentative (McKinlay & McVittie, 2008). This gives the idea that there is a presence of an antagonistic relationship between different versions of the factual accounts produced by the speakers (Potter, 1996).

However, Potter (1996) argued that treating such factual accounts as essentially rhetorical does not rely on the notion of cognitive SP in which the efficacy of persuasion is measured by establishing whether the audience's mental state (such as the mental representations encoded within their attitudes) have changed or not (McKinlay & McVittie). Instead, according to Potter (1996: 108), the antagonistic relationship between different versions produced in factual accounts should be studied in terms of "the traditional notion of 'suasive' rhetoric, which is discourse designed to elicit expressions of agreement from an audience". This again drives our attention to Billig's (1987) perspectives on rhetoric. Therefore, there is a need to identify the ways through which people persuasively justify their own accounts while undermining the positions of others (McKinlay & McVittie, 2008; Potter, 1996).

2.4. Discourse Analysis (DA), Discursive Psychology (DP) and Discursive Social Psychology (DSP): The Rhetorical Turn

DA is basically analysing the use of language in writing, speech, conversation, or symbolic communication in order to know how individuals construct the events (Edwards & Potter, 1992a; Edwards, 1997; Harre & Gillett, 1994). According to Edwards (2005), in general

term, DA covers a range of somewhat related but mostly contrasting kinds of work; for example, sometimes it is proposed as a general methodology (Wood & Kroger, 2000) while on the other, it is proposed as the critique of social power and oppression (Fairclough, 1992; Parker, 1992; Wodak, 1998), and last but not the least, sometimes it is proposed as the theory and critique associated to social constructionism (Gergen, 1994; Harre & Gillett, 1994; Potter, 1996). Therefore, in order to understand the difference between the various types of DA, it is important to consider different methods through which DA is performed (Edwards, 2005). According to Stubbs (1983), some discourse analysts are linguists or applied linguists so they analyse the textual materials, which are often written texts rather than spoken interaction, in terms of their grammatical structures. On the contrary, other discourse analysts mainly base their studies on conversation analysis (CA) and analyse the transcribed recordings of everyday talk in terms of the social actions performed in each successive turn (Edwards, 2005). In addition, there are those discourse analysts who do not rely on particular procedures of detailed analysis; instead, they look for the patterns of the language use that can be related to broader themes of social structure and ideological critique (Parker, 1992). Last but not the least, some discourse analysts mix one or more approaches with the other (Edwards, 2005). For example, one kind of DA, critical discourse analysis (CDA), combines the linguistic analysis and ideological critique (Fairclough, 1992; Kress & Hodge, 1979) and another combines these elements with the construction of cognitive models of how people think (van Dijk, 1998).

In the modern vein (Mininni et al., 2008) "the ancient ideas of rhetoric show the gaps in modern psychological theories (Billig, 1996: 51). DP is the application of ideas from DA to the central topic in social psychology (Potter & Edwards, 2001). It is not social psychology of language but an approach to psychology which fundamentally takes in to consideration the action-oriented and reality constructing features of discourse (Potter & Edwards, 2001). Edwards & Potter (1992a) developed the concept of DP. It is considered as a way of studying what people are and what they do through their dialogueical practices (Harre & Gillett, 1994). In other words, it insists on the considerable skills of interaction used by the ordinary people (Brown & Reavey, 2013) and shifts the focus of theoretical and methodological analysis from (Mininni et al., 2008) "individual cognitive events and processes to situated interaction" (Hepburn & Wiggins 2005: 595).

According to Brown & Reavey (2013), from an early age, human beings are all capable of using discourse and rhetorical resources to accomplish an enormous range of social acts and so the concept of DP ought to be principally concerned with the social development

and enactment of these abilities (Brown & Reavey, 2013). For example, Edwards & Potter (1992a) maintained that if a cognitive process (such as memory) is studied in the real world setting within which it is occasioned, the main focus should be on the conversational pragmatics through which the psychological act is accomplished (Brown & Reavey, 2013). In the case of memory, Edwards & Potter (1992a) "took issue with the way experimental psychologists make the assumption that it is possible to clearly establish the truth or veridicality of a given recollection, in such a way that claims can be made about the accuracy or distortions present in testimony" (Brown & Reavey, 2013: 49). However, according to Brown & Reavey (2013: 49), "establishing 'what happened' is precisely what a great deal of social interaction around memory is seeking to accomplish". Here it is important to mention the famous study conducted by Neisser (1981) regarding the testimony given by John Dean to the Watergate hearings. For example, even though the hearings do step outside the labouratory to explore a real world instance of the Dean's recollection; however, Neisser (1981) relied on the idea that it is ultimately possible to establish the truth of such recollections (Brown & Reavey, 2013). Edwards & Potter (1992b) proposed that the analytically interesting aspect in the case study of Neisser (1981) is to look at how the participants, including Dean, "fit their claims about what happened into the evolving conversational contingencies of the hearings" (Brown & Reavey, 2013: 49).

Moreover, DA focuses on the rhetorical organisation as persuasive and morally consequential features of language use (Potter & Edwards, 2001). Therefore, in DP, DA is sensitive to the idea that discourse is guided towards persuasion (Potter & Edwards, 2001). This in typical sense results into an argumentative organisation of the talk and text (Billig, 1991) which in practical terms means that the talk and text can be analysed in terms of how they orient to or take into consideration culturally available opposing argumentative positions (Potter & Edwards, 2001).

Rhetorical analysis (RA) enhanced by DP aims to highlight interaction-oriented, dialectical and situated nature of the production of meaning where "people are recognizable as human beings through what they do within specific contexts of encounter where they strive (with different degrees of consciousness) to make sense of their experience" (Mininni et al., 2008: 236-237). Therefore, "the rhetorical asset that defines 'how' is as relevant as the conceptual (propositional and semantic) asset which marks 'what'" (Mininni et al., 2008: 237). The same idea can be explained in a more specific manner from the perspective of the link between DSP and rhetoric. Discourse is considered as both an object and a practice

in DSP as it is defined as talk and text, studied as social practices (Potter & Edwards, 2001).

Therefore, for theoretical, methodological and empirical reason, DSP takes discourse as central to social life; for example, most social activity involves or is directly conducted through discourse (Potter & Edwards, 2001). In the views of Billig (1987 and 1991), DSP conceptualizes discourse as pervasively rhetorical. This means that claims and descriptions that are offered in the talk are often designed to counter potential alternative descriptions and resist attempts, which may perhaps be actual or potential, to disqualify them as false, partial or interested (Edwards & Potter 1992a). In other words, they are constructed with the use of both the offensive and defensive rhetorical strategies (Potter, 1996) as Billig (1991) argued that when the people provide evaluations or arguments about something, they are, by and large, involved in the business of countering some other evaluations or arguments. These ideas suggest the importance of rhetoric in the disciplines of DA, DP and DSP with the notion that rhetorical forms are unavoidably involved in shaping the realities (Simons, 1990). Hence, these ideas provide the base for the current study. For example, during the interviews, when the appraisees and appraisers talk about their PA, they can be regarded as being involved in the rhetorical business of producing both an offensive and defensive rhetoric. Moreover, these ideas also rationalize the use of semi-structured interviews in the current study. Therefore, even though the matter of using interviews as a method of data collection for the current study has been discussed in the research methodology (chapter 5), but I have also discussed it in this chapter and in chapter 3 (critical literature review on PA) because it is an important matter in terms of the contents of these chapters.

2.5. Significance of Interviews in a Rhetorical Study from the Perspective of Discursive Social Psychology (DSP)

According to Cruickshank (2012), the discursive context of the interview guides how the subject perceives or pictures reality. As such, the subject is something considered as essentially social and de-centreed; for example, its position does not spring from itself but attributed from the symbolic and inter-subjective reality (Cruickshank, 2012). Cruickshank (2012) further asserted that the subject does not have any centre, core or essence that can produce intentions or meaning (Cruickshank, 2012). In other words, it means that human beings do not inhabit any pre-discursive unconscious core (an id that is indifferent from

reality) in their psyche (Cruickshank, 2012). This is the point where Lacan (1995) departed from Freudian psychoanalysis which maintains that human beings inhabit such a core in their psyche with some degree of agency (Cruickshank, 2012).

Similarly, in an agreement with Lacan's (1995) notion, which is contrary to the notion of Freudian psychoanalysis, Stavrakakis (1999: 20) emphasised on what Lacan (1995) stated: "By submitting to the laws of language the child becomes a subject in language, it inhabits language, and hopes to gain an adequate representation through the world of words". Therefore, if one agrees with Lacan's (1995) notion then it seems adequate to use interviews for the studies which are inspired by DSP as the words of the subject may exactly be considered as the reality. However, Billig (1999: 7) argued that he never enjoyed reading Lacan's work, for he finds it incomprehensible, and in contrast, appreciated Freud's work which he remarked as "intellectual writing at its finest". This doesn't mean that Billig (1999) dismissed the idea of the use of interview data for the studies which are embedded with rhetorical flavor in DSP. In fact, interviews seem to be one of the appropriate choices available for such studies. The idea can be understood in the successive discussion.

According to Edwards & Potter (2005), DP focuses on person and event descriptions in the talk and text as it examines how factual descriptions are assembled, how they are built as solidly grounded or undermined as false, and how they handle the rational accountability (or otherwise) of actors and speakers. In this regard, Edwards & Potter (2005: 243) particularly focused on what they "(provisionally) call 'mind and reality' – on how people deploy common sense notions of an 'external' reality as a kind of setting for, and evidential domain for inferences about, a range of mental states and personal characteristics". Moreover, Edwards & Potter (2005) emphasised on the rhetorical organisation in DP; for example, how descriptions and their inferences routinely (and not only in adversarial contexts) attend to possible or actual counter versions. Similarly, this emphasis is considerably apparent in Billig's (1987; 1991; 1996) work.

Moreover, Cruickshank (2012) argued that DP takes a slightly different direction from the traditional discourse theory, by making the agency of the subject as an object of the investigation, as the traditional discourse theory does not make the agency of the subject as part of the analysis. This is because, in the traditional discourse theory, human beings are not considered to have any unambiguous attitude for which they need statements or arguments to express it (Cruickshank, 2012). Hence, discourse analysis (DA) is

traditionally used to study the way the subject appears in the interview which leads one to question about the role and conceptualization of the human subject or interviewee (Cruickshank, 2012). On the contrary, in DP, the human subject is not only considered to mirror a deeper psychological or social reality, but also it is considered to construct the reality (Cruickshank, 2012). This means that one may reject an extreme view regarding interviews, that is, the data obtained through interviews cannot provide an insight into an external reality (Mihelj, 2013).

Therefore, when we say that descriptions are constructive of their objects, it doesn't mean that talk brings things into the world (Edwards & Potter, 2005). It means that the reality is constructed through talk or argument as psychological phenomena are not hidden in mental units, but they arise from social activities (Billig, 2001). "Minds and selves are constructed from cultural, social and communal resources" (Wetherell 2001: 187). Hence, showing agreement to Billig's (1987; 1991; 1996) notions of rhetoric in DSP, Edwards & Potter (2005) argued that there are always actual or potential alternatives available to the descriptions as they are categorizations, distinctions, and contrasts. As such, in the current study, using interviews' talk of the appraisees and appraisers, regarding their PA, seems quite an appropriate approach for the rhetorical analysis (RA).

Furthermore, rhetoric in DSP is not treated as guaranteeing persuasion, it is considered as oriented to persuasion; therefore, it is not surprising to see that any rhetorical device can have a range of counters (Potter & Edwards, 2001). For example, categorization can be countered by particularization (Billig, 1985). Therefore, in the current research, it would be interesting to see that how the appraisees and appraisers use the particular rhetorical devices in their interviews' talk regarding a potentially controversial practice, PA, which is practiced in their banks. Here it is important to mention that DSP focuses on how discourse performs action or practices of various kinds such as blaming, invitations, displays of neutrality, and so forth (Potter & Edwards, 2001). Therefore, in DSP, the focus is on the way cognitions are constructed in talk and how their implications are oriented which makes DSP a constructionist phenomenon (Potter & Edwards, 2001). Specifically, rather than treating attitudes of people as their inner entities which drive their behaviours, in DSP, attitudes are considered as constructed evaluations which are studied as part of discourse practice (Potter, 1998). Potter & Edwards (2001) argued that such an approach might consider the way evaluations are organised in an interaction. Interviews provide a good opportunity for an interaction. However, this sort of interaction may not be among the participants of the study alone, it may be between the interviewees and interviewer where

the interviewees are the participant of the study but not the interviewer (e.g., the case of the current study).

Here it is important to explain what it means when one says that DSP is constructionist. According to Potter & Edwards (2001: 105-106), DSP is considered to be constructionist in two ways: (1) it "studies the way discourse itself is constructed. Words, metaphors, idioms, rhetorical devices, descriptions, accounts, stories and so on are drawn on, and built, in the course of interaction and in the performance of particular action"; and (2) it "studies the way discourse constructs versions of the world. That is, it studies how versions of inner life, of local circumstances, of history and broader social groups and structures are produced to do particular things in interaction".

Therefore, it will not be wrong to say that from the rhetorical perspective, the discourse in DSP "is both constructed and constructive" (Potter & Edwards, 2001: 106). It is constructed in a sense that how it is constructed (which gives the attention to the rhetorical devices, both argumentative and persuasive, used in the discourse in order to construct it) and constructive in a sense that what it is oriented to or what action it is oriented to (which gives the attention to the end result of the discourse, that is to achieve persuasion). Here it is important to mention that in rhetorical sense the end result of the discourse is to achieve persuasion, not argumentation. People use both the argumentative and persuasive rhetorical devices to achieve persuasion. The current study follows this notion.

In addition, the idea of constructionist approach in DSP particularly emphasises on the construction of versions in discourse as the process of assembling and stabilizing versions to make them factual and independent of their producer (Potter & Edwards, 2001). If we add the rhetorical flavor to DSP, then again we needs to see this constructionist approach from the perspective of discourse being both constructed and constructive as explained earlier. For example, how versions are considered as factual and independent of their producer (which again drives our attention to the rhetorical devices used to construct such versions) and why the versions are needed to be made as factual and independent of their producers or what such versions are oriented to (which drives our attention to the outcome of such versions, that is to achieve persuasion).

Therefore, in the view of the constructionist approach, interviews seem a good method to collect data (or such versions). For example, one can argue that if the evaluations are both constructed and constructive then it doesn't matter that whether they are captured in a

naturally occurring (or mundane) environment of every day talk or in a separate interview setting. This is because they can be viewed as constructed and constructive in both the situations if the constructionist approach is applied. In fact, one can further argue that in the separate interview setting, the evaluations from the participants provide more insight to the topic area which may not be observed in the naturally occurring environment due to the presence of various variable factors (such as the time constraint to observe a naturally occurring environment by the observer or researcher, the time constraint to perform certain activity in the natural occurring environment by the participants which may lead them to perform or deal with some of the areas of their activity on the specific day or days of their observation while some on some other days or time when the activity is repeated or performed again, the participants may be conscious of the regular surveillance of their organisation and it may make the matter worse for them or pressurize them when they know that they are being observed for a study while already being under the surveillance of their organisation, and so forth). All these factors may have been present in the current study if the naturally occurring environment was preferred over the interview method.

According to Potter & Hepburn (2005), one reason often given in defence for the use of interviews in a research is that due to the sensitivity of topic, it is often impossible to do research any other way; for example, the practicalities and ethics of access to delicate material are complex. This exactly depicts the case of the current study as the access to the naturally occurring environment of the feedback interviews of PA is a sensitive matter so the banks denied any such access. Therefore, the best alternative method, interview, had been adopted for the current study. Similarly, Mihelj (2013) argued that in some cases, it may simply be unfeasible or impossible to gain access to the natural setting; for instance, obtaining access to a relevant talk in a natural setting may prove too cumbersome or time consuming and may result in a wealth of material or otherwise. Such material may not be valuable for the topic area of the study. In this regard, one may say that the interviews give the control to the researchers to remain within the boundaries of their topic areas with the help of the questions they ask.

Now to sum up the whole argument from the perspective of the rhetorical turn in DSP, and the use of interviews in the current study, once again we need to recall the idea of rhetoric which is considered as both constructed and constructive in DSP. In the current study, even though the arguments of the appraisees and appraisers are not occasioned in the natural setting of the feedback interviews of the PA, they are still constructed (by the appraisees and appraisers with their use of the rhetorical dimensions) and constructive of persuasion

(or in other words, oriented to achieve persuasion by the appraisees and appraisers). Therefore, the knowledge of these rhetorical dimensions or devices is important in terms of how they are used by the appraisees and appraisers to construct their arguments. Hence, the important area in the study is how the appraisees and appraisers construct their arguments regarding the PA practiced in their banks in order to achieve persuasion. Similarly, as the current study follows the notion that positions or opinions are given because there are always potential alternative counter-positions or opinions, this makes the appraisees and appraisers an audience of each other's rhetoric. In this regard, they are not essentially required to be the part of each other's interviews (e.g., as a visible audience of each other). Thus, the use of interviews in the current study is justified from both the constructionist and argumentative perspective of rhetoric.

2.6. Rhetoric and Language, Particularly in Relevance to the Field of Management

According to Giddens (1984) and Heracleous & Barrett (2001), rhetoric, like all language use, involves institutionalization processes and continues to exist as text. It creates reality by constructing and using persistent social structures (Giddens, 1984; Heracleous & Barrett, 2001). Rhetoric does this by means of tropes (figures of speech). In this regard there are four popular master tropes, such as metaphor-where an object or action is represented by a word or phrase to which it is not literally related (Morgan, 1996; Oswick & Grant, 1996), metonymy-where the actual name of a thing or concept is substituted by the name which associates to it in terms of meaning (Hamilton, 1997;Watson, 1995a), synecdoche-where a part of something is used for referring to the whole of it or otherwise (Oswick et al., 2002), and irony-where language is used in a way which suggests the opposite of what actually is meant (Hatch, 1997). However, these are just the so-called four master tropes. The stylistic features of rhetoric offer more than these four tropes.

Fahnestock (2011) argued that the rhetoricians have always had taken into account the inexplicitness of real-world arguments, and the audience's role in filling in and filling out. Therefore, in addressing the audience, rhetoric shows sensitivity to the audience's response by using commonplaces or appeals to ethos, logos, and pathos (Aristotle, 1959), by establishing audience identification (Burke, 1966), by appeal to the universal audience (Perelman & Olbrechts- Tyteca, 1969/1971), or by alignment with celebrated folk stories (Fisher, 1987). The achievement of all these matters essentially requires the use of

language. However, this does not mean that rhetoric is impossible without the use of language. Non-verbal elements may be as appealing for the audience as the verbal ones.

Burke (1969: 43) defined rhetoric as "the use of language as a symbolic means of inducing cooperation in beings that by nature respond to symbols". He further distinguished the symbols as "the verbal parallel to a pattern of experience" (Burke, 1968: 152). Similarly, according to Sillince (2006), rhetoric usually involves the use of language, but it also has a symbolic meaning beyond the literal. Such meaning can be complicated to comprehend. For example, we find that meaning in images such as silent advertisements, in words such as figures and tropes (Corbett & Connors, 1999), in actions such as the medical equipment in doctors' offices (Burke, 1969), in firing of top executives, and in closing of factories (Johnson, 1990). According to Cheney et al. (2004), additional complexity arises because rhetoric usually has an ambiguous intent as it seeks to have a strategic effect which is beyond a self-contained effect (Cheney et al., 2004). However, persuasion remains an important aspect in the use of language (Sillince, 2006). For example, the use of figurative language or figures of speech by the speakers and writers is mainly inclined to achieve persuasion. Similarly, Malmkjaer (2002) argued that rhetoric originates from the theory of how best a speaker or writer can achieve persuasion by the application of linguistic devices. In addition, Alo (2012) argued that persuasion refers to both the speaker's intention and the textual outcomes. Therefore, the measure of a successful rhetoric is its ability to persuade (Alo, 2012) where language plays a significant role.

Moreover, language has a very important role in the field of communication. In this regard, there is a strong relation between rhetoric and communication. Sillince (1999) argued that human communication cannot avoid being rhetorical. Similarly, Clifford (1988) maintained that discourse, on the whole, is a communication scheme. The reflections and discussions about the theory of communication take place within philosophy, "inter alia under the label of rhetoric" (Trop, 2015: 35). Bonet & Saquet (2010) argued that from the modern perspective, rhetoric is an important theory of communication, which focuses on persuasion, meaning, and arguments. They further argued that even though along its history, rhetoric has focused on public speeches, it has been very significant in the ways of writing (Bonet & Saquet, 2010).

However, in rhetorical studies, there has been a great debate regarding the relationship between language and reality. Rhetoric has a long history of being considered as an object

of suspicions because of being linked to the notions of manipulation and deception (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). This is the reason, it is often portrayed in contrast to reality. Particularly, elocutio (or style) is one of the five cannons of the classical rhetoric which has been viewed as the potential refuge of deception (Trop, 2015). The view has been imported from the classical Greece where Plato stands as the prime exponent of this sceptical attitude towards rhetoric (Trop, 2015).

In this regard, Kamoche (1995) distinguished between rhetoric and plain speaking, and maintained a rift between language that is straightforward and perfunctory (with pure content being transferred from sender to receiver in line with the traditional conduit model of communication) and language that is used to control and possibly deceive. It is due to this recurring distinction made by various scholars that rhetoric is often classified as being separable from content, thus represents it as superfluous and even impoverished (Hunt, 1994). In criticising the positive view of rhetoric, Carter & Jackson (2004) argued that despite of the negative connotations associated with it, the 'word' rhetoric has been liberally applied in discussions of the language of management knowledge and practice. On the other hand, there is also no shortage of people pointing out that the language of management is rhetorical in pejorative sense (Carter & Jackson, 2004). Surely, this is a very common misunderstanding regarding rhetoric.

The concepts and activities of creating meaning, sense making and symbolic actions relate contemporary rhetoric to modern management (Bonet & Saquet, 2010). In the views of Hartelius & Browning (2008), rhetorical scholarship's attention to the discipline of management has arrived because of the language of management; for example, rhetoric is conceptualized as the spoken dimension of the ideological practices of the management. Nevertheless, ideology is viewed as the larger collection of beliefs which includes values, paradigms, codes, and other sets of ideas and rule structures which guide in terms of how to act (Amernic & Craig, 2004; Heracleous & Barrett, 2001; Holt, 2006). Accordingly, Astley & Zammuto (1992) argued that the main objective of the managerial language game is to facilitate the practical action. For example, they described leadership as the language game which largely aims to preserve organisational coherence (Astley & Zammuto, 1992). Similarly, Gardner & Avolio (1998: 42) argued that charisma is a language game in which a leaders make use of rhetorical tropes such as "rhythm, repetition, balance, and alliteration" in order to influence or inspire their followers.

Moreover, the rhetorical studies in management are notably concerned with the issue of power and control where the language of the management scholars plays an important role. However, there is a significant tension (Hartelius & Browning, 2008) among the management scholars. This is because management scholars who use rhetorical terminology seem to be torn between different understandings of rhetoric (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). Again this brings our attention back to the negative view of rhetoric in the field of management. On one hand, some scholars draw on rhetoric's centrality in organisational language clear and obvious, and treat it as a source of influence (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). On the other, many management scholars relegate it to a marginal position in human interactions and theorize it as being superficial or supplementary to substance (Goldberg & Markóczy, 2000; Hunt, 1994).

All this discussion about rhetoric and language, under the current headline, is particularly important because one area of the current study focuses on hunting the dominant stylistic features (e.g., figures of speech, particularly tropes) in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks. For example, how these tropes help in the construction of reality or persuasive arguments in their talk.

2.7. Historical Background of Rhetoric

2.7.1. A Brief Overview

According to Munz (1990), one of the remarkable features of the second half of the 20th century is the revival of an interest in rhetoric. In ancient times, among the Greeks and the Romans, rhetoric was considered to be of great importance, particularly because there was no other recognised way to resolve the clash of opinions (Munz, 1990). Therefore, "Originally, rhetoric arose as the art of persuasive discourse in public life: the social practice of *using language to effect"* (Moberg, 1990: 70). Subsequently, by the time of Cicero, the art of rhetoric included both oratory and written composition (Moberg, 1990).

Then "Gradually through medieval times - especially after the invention of printing - rhetoric as a term came to include the rules for producing discourse in general" (Moberg, 1990: 70). People started taking rhetoric, as a part of a course, together with grammar and dialectic (Munz, 1990). They had authoritative books to decide issues and for people who could not read, there were authoritative clergies (Munz, 1990). Therefore, throughout the

medieval period, rhetoric played a cardinal role in education (Caplan et al., 1997); in particular, the great field of persuasion was used in preaching the winning of souls for God (Leff, 1974). For example, St. Augustine of Hippo (an early philosopher and Christian theologian, who influenced the development of western philosophy and Christianity through his writings) "turned classical rhetoric into Christian art of speaking and preaching" (Trop, 2015: 41). While due to the fashion of trial by ordeal or combat in that era, rhetoric was not considered as required (Munz, 1990). This made rhetoric less influential during the medieval time. Thus, by the end of the medieval period, rhetoric was excessively used in derogatory sense (Moberg, 1990).

According to Munz (1990), it was only with the cultural revival of the Italian state in the 13th and 14th centuries that rhetoric once again came to the forefront (Munz, 1990). This was because community life at close urban quarters made it imperative for people to resolve differences of opinion and for groups to win support by persuasion (Munz, 1990). Hence, the age of renaissance approached. It is considered to be a great age for bringing innovation in the theory of rhetoric; for example, according to Kristeller (1979), rhetoric is one of the characteristics of renaissance humanism. Rhetoric appealed to the humanists because it trained people to use full resources of the ancient languages, and because it offered a genuinely classical view of the nature of language and its effective use in the world (Mack, 2011). Therefore, between 1460 and 1620, more than 800 editions of classical rhetoric texts were printed all over the Europe (Mack, 2011). Thousands of new rhetoric books were written, from Scotland and Spain to Sweden and Poland, mostly in Latin, but also in other languages such as Dutch, English, French, German, Hebrew, Italian, Spanish, and Welsh (Mack, 2011). Moreover, rhetoric was regarded as a dialectical 'controversia' discipline (Conley, 1994) "which considered itself with seeing things from different sides" (Trop, 2015: 42).

In the 17th century however, the situation of rhetoric changed very rapidly (Munz, 1990). For example, from being regarded as a discipline of dialectical 'controversia' (Conley, 1994), "rhetoric was now viewed as a method of affecting the emotions of the listeners" (Trop, 2015: 42). As such, the focus was on the stylistics aspects of rhetoric, as they were considered effective and more instrumental aspects for communication (Trop, 2015), which could be particularly used for arousing the emotions of the listeners. This was the era of enlightenment as well. The scientific revolution provided information and theories for which there was evidence (Munz, 1990). Therefore, it was commonly thought that the

evidence could compel the agreement and so people were considered to be persuaded without the recourse to rhetoric (Munz, 1990). However, rhetoric continued to flourish in the houses of parliament but not in the royal society (Munz, 1990).

And then, in 19th century, rhetoric remained being viewed as the effective and more instrumental aspect for communication which was considered to be largely a matter of how opinions could be imposed upon and emotions could be aroused among the listeners (Trop, 2015). In this regard, several pieces were published on lecturing and the art of reading distinctly (Trop. 2015) as a resource in order to merely help the speakers to learn how to imposing opinions and arousing emotions. This led the scholarship of rhetoric to come under the negative light. Therefore, the common views of scholars regarding it were negative in the era and they remained so until the middle of 20th century when the situation started to change again (Munz, 1990). Accordingly, Moss (1997) stated that a spate of recent work on rhetoric illustrates the continuing interest of scholars in classical rhetoric of Aristotle. This continuing interest has also been transferred to our 21st century.

2.7.2. Classical Antiquity

Sometime around 465 BCE, the citizens of Syracuse, a Greek colony on the island of Sicily, overthrew their tyrannical dictators and established a democracy (Conrad, 2011). This flooded the courts with lawsuits regarding the rightful ownership of property as the people who had owned property before the tyrants took it away from them suddenly regained control of it and the people who had obtained titles to the property during the reign of the tyrants believed that it was rightfully theirs, especially if they had spent a great deal of their own money improving it (Conrad, 2011). Since Greek law required the parties to speak for themselves and many of the would-be land owners were not skilled speakers, a group of entrepreneurs such as Corax initiated a new industry of training people in courtroom rhetoric (Conrad, 2011). Therefore, Sicily is considered to be the origination or birthplace of rhetoric as a practice.

Soon Corax's student, Tisias, imported rhetorical training to mainland Greece, where it caught the attention of a group of itinerant philosophers – teachers called 'Sophists' (Conrad, 2011). The word 'Sophists' is generated from a Greek word 'Sophos' which means wise (Conley, 1994). These were the events which supported the emergence of the tradition, classical rhetoric.

The Sophists fulfiled a very valuable social function in the democratic society of Greek by providing the practical training required of young men in order for them to succeed (Kent, 1993). Best represented by Potagoras and Gorgias, the Sophists travelled from city to city instructing citizens, primarily young patrician men, in the important art of rhetoric - where the instructions particularly included practical training in the important day-to-day activities required in the Greek political, legal, and economic social life (Kent, 1993).

Although different sophists adopted different versions of this idea, all of them focused on rhetoric as the key to creating a good society (Conrad, 2011). For example, Protagoras focused on debate because he believed that there are a variety of sides to every issue, Gorgias believed that the power of language was grounded in poetic dimensions which could be tought through training in impromptu speaking, and Isocrates focused on teaching his students to use rhetoric for political manoeuvring which is a form of knowledge that the sophists referred as deceit or cunning (Heidelbaugh, 2001; 2007). Among all the sophists, Aristotle is considered as "the father of classical rhetorical theory" (Evans, 2011: 71). Even now, when many centuries have passed, his rhetoric is still regarded by most rhetoricians (Evans, 2011) as the most important single work ever written on persuasion (Golden et al., 2007). Conrad (2011: 13-14) discussed the two important implications emerged from the debates over classical rhetoric that took place during the classical era: (1) "*rhetoric and its use inherently involve issues of power and social control"*, and (2) *"rhetoric inherently involves issues of truth and claims to knowledge*." These implications are still emphasised in the contemporary rhetorical studies.

2.7.3. Cicero and Quintilian

After Aristotle, the contributions of Cicero and Quintilian, in the discipline of rhetoric, cannot be overlooked. They were Roman rhetoricians and their contributions in the field of rhetoric significantly locate within the fundamentals of Aristotle's classical rhetorical tradition. Therefore, it will not be wrong to say that the fundamentals of classical rhetoric, which were developed by Aristotle, thereafter served as the touchstone (Bizzell & Herzberg, 2000) for their rhetoric. Even though I have given reference to both Plato and Aristotle, a number of times previously; however, they will be discussed in detail, under separate headings, later from the perspective of where they stood in the history and ideas.

According to Cicero, humanity was realised through speech (Trop, 2015); therefore, the ideal orator was required to be virtuous and moral (Cicero, 2009). For example, Cicero

(2009: 55) argued: "[T]he greater power is, the more necessary it is to join it to integrity and the highest measure of good sense. For if we put the full resources of speech at the disposal of those who lack these virtues, we will certainly not make orators of them, but will put weapons into the hands of madmen." Similarly, according to Quintilian (1933) one should not reject rhetoric as a bad thing in itself just because it can be used for both good and bad; for example, sword is good in the hand of a solder but harmful in the hand of a robber. Therefore, it basically depends on whether the practitioner of rhetoric is a good person or bad in order for the rhetoric to lead to good result (Quintilian, 1933). The reason why both Cicero and Quintilian focused on the good person is that the relationship between truth and expression known from the Greek concept of rhetoric was breached in the Roman understanding (Deetz, 1992). So these two rhetoricians tried to rebuild it. For example, according to Aristotle, the truth and expressions are two sides of the same coin as truth is derived from expression itself (in other words, communication is so to speak the loaded truth) (Trop, 2015).

2.7.4. Aristotle's Background

The classical tradition in rhetoric, developed by Aristotle and modified by the Roman rhetoricians, Cicero and Quintilian, was designed for use chiefly in law courts, political meetings, and religious ceremonies (Bator, 1980). The classical approaches to rhetoric assume that human beings are reasonable and can be swayed by rational argument (Young et al., 1970). For example, the underlying principle of Aristotle's rhetoric is that the man is a rational animal who is capable of using logical reasoning as the basis for argument (Bator, 1980). Therefore, the strategy Aristotle used to analyse rhetorical transactions is focused on the processes of logical reasoning; for example, the rational man using reasonable means (such as enthymemes) in exhorting or dissuading (deliberative rhetoric), in praising or blaming (epideictic rhetoric), and in accusing or defending (forensic rhetoric) (Bator, 1980). Today, within the positive realm of rhetoric, the notion that Aristotle stands in a pivotal position in the Greek transition from oratory to literacy (which is not only the ability to read and write and use numbers, but also the ability to express and argue about ideas and opinions, solve problems, make decisions, and so forth) is encouraged in the scholarly literature (Graff, 2001). This is certainly inspiring for researchers from various different disciplines to use Aristotelian framework of rhetoric in their studies. Accordingly, this is what the current study has done.

Born the son of a Macedonian physician in 384 BCE, Aristotle lived during one of the most remarkable eras of human history (Molina & Spicer, 2004). By the time of his birth, the Greeks had established a cultural heritage that extended back many centuries (Molina & Spicer, 2004). For example, the fields of art, history, poetry, architecture, politics, music, drama, and, of course, philosophy all had rich and established traditions in the classical Greek world (Molina & Spicer, 2004).

As a young man, Aristotle studied at the Academy under Plato (Molina & Spicer, 2004) but his ideas differed from his mentor's in important ways (Conrad, 2011). Later he served as the personal tutor of Alexander the Great (Molina & Spicer, 2004). Upon Alexander's ascension to the throne, Aristotle founded his own school, 'the Lyceum', in the ancient city of Athens (Molina & Spicer, 2004).

Aristotle was a keen observer of the world around him and spent his life trying to make sense out of it, primarily through categorizing its every aspect (Conrad, 2011). Like Plato, he recognised the power of rhetoric and was very much concerned that it could be used to bring out the worst elements of human nature (Conrad, 2011). Also like Plato, he observed that some teachers of rhetoric taught techniques for swaying the emotions of judges and legislators instead of teaching their students how to help an audience arrive at the best decisions for itself and for the broader society (Conrad, 2011). However, he was also aware that rhetoric could be used to bring out the best in human beings and to help them construct the best possible societies (Conrad, 2011). Accordingly, to Aristotle (1962), rhetoric could become an ethical branch of politics based on the proper training given to the people (Conrad, 2011).

However, in today's time, we cannot time bound Aristotle's notion of rhetoric to the antiquity or the political practices of his time. This is because writing nearly 25 centuries ago; Aristotle developed a prolific corpus of work covering a vast array of subjects, much of which still has great relevance for us today (Molina & Spicer, 2004). For example, according to Molina & Spicer (2004), nearly every college and university in the western world offers an introductory logic course that, in every important respect, can be thoroughly recognizable to Aristotle (in terms of the system of reasoning that he created). As such, his influence on the development of western intellectual thought is immeasurable (Molina & Spicer, 2004).

2.8. Understanding the Conception of Aristotle's Rhetoric

As previously stated in this chapter, Aristotle's (1991) definition of rhetoric is 'the art of discovering all the available means of persuasion'. As the word 'art' is quite prominent in the definition, this indicates that the ancient Greeks pursued a wealth of rhetorical dimensions or devices for achieving persuasion on their arguments. In this regard, Self (1979) argued that 'art' is a state of affair concerned with a true course of reasoning, and lack of 'art' on the contrary is a state of affair concerned with a false course of reasoning. Therefore, by definition, making an artful discourse requires pursuing a true course of reasoning in examining the available means of persuasion and knitting them into an appeal for obtaining a particular response from a particular audience (Anderson, 1968). The particular response which is sought from the audience therefore is Persuasion. However, in regard to the false course of reasoning, Self (1979) argued that avoiding such a careful process of invention and composition in favor of a false course of reasoning, perhaps displayed in attempts to manipulate or distort the judgements of the audience, is definitely possible, but it is not artistic (Self, 1979). Surely, such non-artistic notion (applying the false course of reasoning in order to manipulate or distort audience's judgements) is not what Aristotle's rhetoric is about and so the current study do not favor it.

Accordingly, the rhetorical dimensions or devices used by the appraisees and appraisers are sought in their arguments for the analysis with a view that they have used them in their efforts to pursue a true course of reasoning for persuasion. And so, their reasoning is considered as the reality of the PA. However, how effectively they have used the rhetorical devices in their talk is a different matter. For example, their inefficient use of rhetorical dimensions or devices will not allege them to be using false course of reasoning (e.g., for manipulation or distortion purpose), but it will have an adverse influence on the persuasiveness of their arguments. Similarly their effective use of rhetorical devices will suggest that their arguments are persuasive. In this regard, for example, Self (1979) maintained the notion that Aristotelian definition of rhetoric, as an 'art', emphasises the process of discovering 'all the available means of persuasion' and not just the achievement of persuasive effects. As such, one may argue that the persuasive effects can naturally be achieved to the fullest when 'all the available means of persuasion' are discovered. This is the reason that Aristotle (1991) emphasised on 'all the available means of persuasion' and not just the achievement of the persuasive effects. These classical 'available means of

persuasion' or 'artistic proofs' are known as the rational appeal (logos), the ethical appeal (ethos), and the emotional appeal (pathos), which may be sought in the talk (arguments), facts, figures, testimonies, etc. For example, in case of the current study, the interviews' talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks is sought for these 'artistic proofs'.

Moreover, according to Molina & Spicer (2004), the 'available means of persuasion' or 'pisteis' (as Aristotle termed them) may be divided into two classes: the non-artistic and the artistic. Molina & Spicer (2004) further added that laws, witnesses, and contracts are all examples of the non-artistic 'means of persuasion' because they involve no creative element on the part of the speaker (as they are simply given) while in contrast, artistic means of persuasion are those methods that are invented or constructed by the speaker. It was these artistic means of persuasion that Aristotle (1991) was chiefly interested in exploring (Molina & Spicer, 2004).

Furthermore, in Aristotle's rhetoric, the enthymemes are the very important substance of persuasion as they are the basic method of stirring up the values and premises of the audience on behalf of a particular judgement (Bitzer, 1959). Aristotle's 'available means of persuasion' (logos, ethos, and pathos) function as enthymemes and, though any of the 'artistic proofs' may be used independently, rhetorical demonstration which is directed toward achieving judgement from the audience in the area of human action demands specifically a presentation from the speaker which confronts all three 'artistic proofs' (logos, ethos and pathos) (Grimaldi, 1972). Therefore, obviously the rhetorical speaker needs knowledge of all the aspects of the human soul and the ability to achieve in each situation the appropriate balance of appeals ('artistic proofs') to evoke the desired response in the audience (Self, 1979).

In addition, other than the 'available means of persuasion' (Adegoju, 2008), Aristotle (1991) partitioned rhetoric into three branches. For example, with his passion for categorization, he distinguished between and among what he called deliberative, forensic and epideictic forms of rhetoric (which according to him operate within a definable temporal sphere) (Robinson, 2006). They can be also referred as three kinds of rhetorical speeches (Adegoju, 2008). In the deliberative kind of speech, the speaker either advises the audience to do something or warns them against doing something (Adegoju, 2008). The audience has to judge things that are going to happen in the future and have to decide

whether they will cause harm or advantage (Rapp, 2002). In the forensic speech, the speaker either accuses somebody or defends someone or himself/herself (Adegoju, 2008). Naturally, this kind of speech treats things that occured in the past (Adegoju, 2008). Rapp (2002) explained that while the deliberative and forensic species have their context in a controversial situation in which the listener (audience) has to decide in favor of one or two opposing parties, the third species does not aim at such a decision. The epideictic speech praises or blames somebody for it tries to describe the deeds or things related to the respective person as honourable or shameful (Adegoju, 2008).

What's more, Aristotle (1991) explained that rhetoric and dialectic are alike as they are both inductive and deductive means of proof. Induction involves reasoning from particular facts or cases to general principles (Molina & Spicer, 2004). By making many observations, for example, that individual human beings die, one may reasonably be led to the conclusion that all human beings are mortal (Molina & Spicer, 2004). Deduction, on the other hand, involves reasoning from general principles or premises to a logical conclusion (in a specific case) (Molina & Spicer, 2004). For instance, the major premise that all human beings are mortal, when coupled with the minor premise that Socrates is a human being, leads to the conclusion that Socrates is mortal (Molina & Spicer, 2004). For Aristotle, in rhetoric, inductive reasoning is demonstrated through the use of paradigms, and deductive reasoning is demonstrated through the use of rhetorical syllogisms or enthymemes (Molina & Spicer, 2004). However, it is important to mention here that the focus of the current study is not on the three branches of rhetoric (deliberative, forensic and epideictic) or the inductive and deductive reasoning. Here it is important to state that Aristotle's (1991) rhetoric is an important part of the rhetorical framework used in the current study; therefore, it is discussed in chapter 4 as well. A few basic concepts are explained here for a later discussion in the rhetorical framework.

2.9. The Background and Understanding of the Negative View of Rhetoric

According to Nichols (1987), the notion of rhetoric has fallen into disrepute. As such, Molina & Spicer (2004) stated that one often uses the term rhetoric to describe inflammatory speech that is meant to win the public over to some cause through incitement, fear, or anger. Similarly, according to a view, a man who uses rhetoric appears to have something to hide; for example, he uses his talk about justice and the common good as a cloak for his selfish aims and unjust purposes (Nichols, 1987). According to this

view, rhetoric is not considered as a mean to convey knowledge; it is rather considered as a tool used by those who would distort the truth for their own motives (Nichols, 1987).

However, these criticisms on rhetoric are not new. Their roots go back to the antiquity. Rhetoric was subject to the same criticisms in Aristotle's time as it is in our time (Nichols, 1987). Aristophanes and Plato are considered to be the two major attackers on Aristotle's rhetoric from the ancient times. In his comedy play, 'The Clouds', Aristophanes (1994) accused those whom he thought use rhetoric to subvert justice by making a weak argument seem compelling. For example, in 'The Clouds', Aristophanes (1994) portrayed 'Socrates' as an amoral Sophist who teaches men to cheat through the use of rhetoric (Molina & Spicer, 2004). Aristophanes (1994: 103) did this through one of his characters, 'Koryphaios', who asserted: ''Now then, I freely admit that among men of learning I am—somewhat pejoratively—dubbed the Sophistic, or Immoral, Logic. And why? Because I first devised a method for the Subversion of Established Social Beliefs and the Undermining of Morality. Moreover, this little invention of mine, this knack of taking what might appear to be the worse argument and nonetheless winning my case, has, I might add, proved to be an extremely lucrative source of income.'' Therefore, through his character 'Koryphaios-Socrates', Aristophanes (1994) associated what he thought was an 'unjust rhetoric' to Sophists and philosophers (Nichols, 1987).

Similarly, the 'Socrates' of the Platonic dialogueue, 'Gorgias', criticised rhetoric just as harshly as did the 'Socrates' portrayed by Aristophanes (Nichols, 1987) in his play, 'The Cloud'. Walter (1984), considered Plato among the most brilliant and artistic writers of antiquity who had a unique theory of rhetoric. For example, according to Quimby (1974), Plato was first interested in rhetoric because he considered that it was the Sophists' method and substance for inculcating the qualities of virtue and leadership in their disciples and second, Plato was himself concerned about the development of virtuous leaders. Accordingly Walter, (1984) argued that even though the conventional 20th century's thought about Plato is that he condemned rhetoric; however, Plato's actual notion of rhetoric may still have been either unknown, or ignored, or misunderstood.

However, McComiskey (1992) stated that Plato's disdain for sophistic doctrines, especially those concerning rhetoric, is not a secret. Much has been written about Plato's attitude toward rhetoric, and the majority of writers have believed that Plato disdained it throughout his life (Quimby, 1974). Kerferd (1984) also considered Plato's treatment of

sophists extremely hostile. In fact, according to McComiskey (1992), throughout the Platonic work, sophistic doctrines are criticised; for example, in the 'Gorgias', the sophist from 'Leontini-Sicily' is completely ridiculed. Here the point to be noted is that when Plato wrote the 'Gorgias', the Adenine democracy was in an unstable condition (McComiskey, 1992). Hence, this may depict the context behind his ridicule.

In 'Gorgias', Plato (1999a) had 'Socrates' condemn rhetoric by confronting his famous master, also called 'Gorgias', and by demonstrating that although 'Gorgias' claims to be a teacher of justice, he does not know what justice actually is (Molina & Spicer, 2004). By showing that 'Gorgias' does not know the meaning of what he discusses, Plato's 'Socrates' carries Aristophanes' criticism of rhetoric to philosophic grounds which is based on the thought that rhetoric is not based on the truth (Nichols, 1987). Moreover, 'Socrates' in 'Gorgias' argued that not only 'Gorgias' doesn't know what justice is, but also he doesn't know what is good for his audience and so instead of aiming at their good, he tried to give them pleasure (Nichols, 1987). Similarly, 'Socrates' in 'Gorgias' further argued that rhetoric is like cooking (Molina & Spicer, 2004). For example, this sort of cooking, 'Socrates' pointed out, is to give pleasure to the body without reference to what is actually good for the body (Molina & Spicer, 2004).

However, in his later work, 'Phaedrus', Plato (1999b) pointed out what he saw as the requirements for a true 'art' of rhetoric which confined his notion of a true 'art' of rhetoric to only private speech because according to him, public speech did not take into account the differences between men (Molina & Spicer, 2004). For example, Plato thought that other than its instability to comprehend the needs and ends of a variety of individuals, public speech both fall short of the truth and is basically unjust (Nichols, 1987). Therefore, in 'Phaedrus', Plato (1999b) used 'Socrates', who dialectically determined truth and the natures of the souls of his audience, in order to sketch a proposal for the 'art' of rhetoric (Eades, 1996). And that proposal was what Plato (1999b) considered as a true 'art' of rhetoric, which should be followed by the speakers. As such, it is quite apparent that Plato did not condemn rhetoric but the practices of the Sophists (Walter, 1984). Today, many scholars of contemporary rhetorical studies claim that Plato in the 'Phaedrus' advocated a positive view of rhetoric, which is philosophical or dialectical rhetoric, and so Plato should be understood as a rhetorician in his own right (McAdon, 2004).

Here, it is also important to mention that when rhetoric was charged with the similar (negative) allegations in Aristotle's time, which are being discussed, Aristotle provided a defence of rhetoric (Nichols, 1987). For example, according to Nichols (1987), Aristotle's (1991) account of rhetoric answers not only the ancient criticisms of rhetoric, especially Plato's, but it also constitutes a defence against rhetoric's modern critics (Nichols, 1987). Moreover, contrary to the charge that rhetoric undermines, what Aristophanes (1994) called, 'established social beliefs', Nichols (1987) further argued that Aristotle's (1991) concept of rhetoric subordinates itself to widely held opinions about what is noble, good, and just. According to Aristotle (1991), the rhetorician should move beyond widely held opinions because such opinions are not homogeneous, and are composed of a variety of elements, which may be contradictory to one another (Nichols, 1987). Therefore, Aristotle's account of rhetoric teaches rhetoricians how to incorporate into their speeches (or arguments) the variety of goods that men seek which means that in practice, it is based on a comprehensive understanding of human nature (Nichols, 1987). And because it is based on a comprehensive understanding of human nature, it is considered both true and just to the extent that human affairs permit; therefore, it is persuasive (Nichols, 1987). Likewise, the current study rejects the negative criticism on rhetoric and views it in a positive light. In other words, it is persuasive of persuasion aspect of rhetoric.

2.10. Rhetoric and Controversy, Particularly from Organisational and Management Perspective

Cicero's (2009) De Oratore illustrated a particular rhetorical method which is known as controversy in the modern expression. The method was referred as 'controversia' by the Romans which involved the conduct of argument by placing two or more opposing claims in juxtaposition (Mendelson, 1998). Mendelson (1998) maintained that instead of discussing 'controversia' in a formal manner, by abstracting its general nature and detailing its logical parts, Cicero chose to dramatize 'controversia' by going beyond its abstract principles in order to allow his students the direct access to argument in action.

Similarly, Carter (1988) argued that Cicero's method for analysing and inventing arguments in the instances of 'stasis' is his method of 'controversia' (Carter, 1988). 'Stasis' is a Greek word. The typical translation of the word 'stasis' is issue, but it has a double identity as a discursive phenomenon and a heuristic for using that phenomenon (Pullman, 1995). Accordingly, 'stasis' suggests both motionlessness and interference

(Pullman, 1995). For example, it is the discursive pause created when a difference of opinion occur or interfere (Pullman, 1995). Hence, a point of 'stasis' may be recognised as a point where the articulation of an opinion stops due to the introduction of a counter opinion (Carter, 1998). It may also signify a disruption of common opinion, the point at which progress as usual stops because an equally strong counter opinion is introduced (Carter, 1998).

Carter (1988), further defined 'stasis' as the method by which speakers in the classical rhetorical tradition identified the area of disagreement, the point that was to be argued, and the issue on which the case was based. Therefore, the method of 'controversia' constituted a dialogueical testing of various positions that could elevate ordinary conversation to serious debate (Carter, 1988). Although this method was rooted in court room debate, for Cicero, its great value laid in pitting philosophical schools against one another in order to test their claims (Carter, 1988).

A very similar concept to 'controversia' or 'Ciceronian controversia' is 'contrarianism'. According to Sloane (1997), 'contrarianism' (or controversy) is of the essence in rhetoric. Sloane (1997) further illustrated its presence throughout the rhetorical tradition; for example, in 'disputation', 'Ciceronian controversia', 'pro and con thinking', 'the dissoi logoi', 'the Erasmian via diversa', 'argument in utramque partem', and so forth. Burke (1969) considered controversy as one of the important things which make rhetoric necessary as he argued that controversy attracts rhetoric. Therefore, Burke (1969) suggested that the rhetorical analysis should always be ready to expose the mystification of the social world. Similarly, according to Sillince (2006), rhetoric is the particular use of language deployed when a speaker addresses an audience in the form of a proposition about a controversy. This involves the conscious, deliberate and efficient utilisation of persuasion to bring about behavioural or attitudinal change and occurs in a context that suggests a persuasion motive (Cheney et al., 2004). However, in views of a number of scholars, because we use rhetoric in everyday language about common controversies, we often draw on it in situations characterised by an absence of credible source, clear evidence, certain backing, or logical support (e.g., Bryant, 1953; Cheney et al., 2004; Nelson, 1987; Perelman & Olbrechts-Tyteca, 1969/1971).

According to Tjosvold (1985), controversy is a special kind of conflict and occurs when one person's ideas, opinions, conclusions, theories, and information are incompatible with

the other person when they discuss problems and make decisions (Tjosvold, 1985). Accordingly, conflicts exist when incompatible activities occur (Deutsch, 1973; 1980). Particularly, decision makers disagree when they define issues or problems, outline alternatives, make choices, and implement solutions (Tjosvold, 1985). They disagree throughout decision making and need to resolve such conflict in order to move into the next level of decision making (Tjosvold, 1985). Therefore, in the context of decision making, controversy involves differences of opinion that at least temporarily prevent, delay, or interfere in the making of a decision (Tjosvold, 1985). This is because persons in controversy have opposing views about how they should proceed and face the pressures to resolve these differences in order to reach a decision and move forward (Tjosvold, 1985).

Other than the conflict which occurs due to the difference of opinions, another major kind of conflict, conflict of interests, occurs when the actions of one person pursuing his or her own benefits interfere, prevent, or block the actions of the other person who is doing the same (Deutsch, 1973; Johnson & Johnson, 1982). These conflicts arise due to differences in needs, preferences, goals, and scarcity of resources (Tjosvold, 1985). For example, labours and management negotiations often involve conflict of interests where labours' demands for higher wages interfere with the attempt by management to retain earnings in the company (Tjosvold, 1985). These conflicts typically provoke negotiations, in an attempt to reach to a compromise that will satisfy, to some extent, the interests of both parties (Tjosvold, 1985). However, according to Thomas (1976), organisational research has focused on conflict in general, without differentiating between controversy and conflict of interest. Controversy can often be resolved with a decision that is more effective for all, whereas conflict of interests is typically resolved through compromises that are only partially satisfying to the parties involved (Tjosvold, 1985).

Moreover, Controversy research may investigate a number of issues in organisational and management setting such as conflicting discussions that are constructively managed through elabouration of positions and supporting arguments, people's attempts to understand each other's reasoning, integration of opposing views, and making of good quality decisions (Tjosvold, 1985). Tjosvold (1985) further argued that controversy and conflict of interests should be considered as pure types. Although many actual conflict situations are mixture of the two, there may be more one type than the other (Tjosvold, 1985). For example, labour and management have conflict of interests over wage

settlements, but also have controversies about how the company's productivity can best be improved (Tjosvold, 1985).

Recent studies have elabourated on the value of controversy (Tjosvold, 1985). People in controversy have been found to be motivated to know others' positions and to develop understanding and appreciation of them (Tjosvold et al., 1981; Tjosvold, 1985). Controversy can also result in open-mindedness, interpersonal attraction, and incorporation of opposing views into one's own (Tjosvold & Deemer, 1980; Tjosvold, 1985). By promoting interest, communication, and understanding, controversy may facilitate solutions to problems (Tjosvold, 1985).

Specific to the context of decision making, the controversies, or conflicts of ideas, are an inevitable part of decision making and problem solving (Tjosvold, 1985). It is not surprising that a wide range of issues have been suggested for stimulating controversies in organisations (Tjosvold, 1985). For example, performance appraisal (PA) process can be regarded as one such issue as there is an involvement of many different parties in it such as appraisees, appraisers, management, and so forth. Maier (1970) argued that groups whose members are heterogeneous are more likely to experience controversy. For example, according to Mann & Janis (1983), every one express criticism and reservations about the dominant positions; therefore, dividing the group into two or more groups and assigning them opposing positions to defend can stimulate controversy, especially if some groups are assigned with more dominant positions than the other. Same may be said about the appraisees and appraisers as they are two different parties in a sense that one evaluates and the other is evaluated.

The reason of discussing the current literature, regarding controversy, is to substantiate the notion that PA is a potentially controversial practice and so it attracts the rhetorical attention. In the current heading, much of the discussion has been made about rhetoric and controversy, and controversy in the organisational and management context, while the issue that how PA is a potentially controversial practice has not been discussed. This is because chapter 3 (critical literature review on PA) discusses the matter in detail.

2.11. Rhetoric and Persuading One's Own Self or Self-Persuasion, Particularly from Organisational and Management Perspective

This extension of rhetoric is fertile because it sets argumentation, persuasion, negotiation and therefore micro politics to the front, and discovers dynamism in social life (Carrithers, 2005). Through the prism of rhetoric we can see that, in any moment of interaction, some act to persuade, others are targets of persuasion; some work, others are worked upon (Carrithers, 2005). The eventfulness of life, the historicity, is moved by the rhetorical will, the 'energeia', of those who for the moment hold the floor and aim to realise a plan or intention, and upon, others (Carrithers, 2005). Of course, one's own persuasion is essentially important in order to peruse the rhetorical will to persuade others.

According to Fernandez (1986), the rhetorical effort makes a movement (of mind) and leads to a performance. This is not to say that persuasion is always effective, or that plans are always realised, but rather that the motive force of historicity (or eventfulness of life) lies ultimately in the will to persuade (Carrithers, 2005). However, the will to persuade others comes from one's own persuasion of the substance about which others are needed to be persuaded. Moreover, it may be considered as misleading and deceitful, but it is not rhetoric if the speaker him/herself is not persuaded on the subject matter about which he/she is persuading others. This is the reason, why in many discourses, it is clearly noticeable that the speakers not only try to persuade the audiences but also themselves.

It is interesting to see how people tend to use the same rhetorical methods on themselves which they use on others (Billig, 1996; Nienkamp, 2001). Similarly, according to Carrithers (2005), thinking or thought itself is an argument with one's own self as an argument with others; therefore anything which involves thinking involves persuasion of not only others but also one's own self. In other words, thinking is arguing with one's own self, and so it involves persuasion of one's own self than just the persuasion of others. Accordingly, in the context of organisations, beyond the rational approach to management, 'persuasive management' approach (Bonet et al., 2011) is on rise. This approach emphasises the role of persuasion, pointing out that a central activity of modern managers is not only to persuade people (from inside and outside the organisation), but also to persuade themselves (Iglesias & Bonet, 2012).

Similarly, according to Heath (1990), corporate management not only uses rhetoric to influence persons inside and outside their organisations, but also is an audience of their own rhetoric. Therefore, their own persuasion is important before they attempt to persuade others. However, Heath (1990) pointed out that their own persuasion can have implications. For example, if they become convinced of what they are saying then the culture they create shuts them off to alternative interpretations of reality (Heath, 1990). Heath's (1990) argument about the implication is debatable. This is because Heath (1990) did not take in to consideration that organisations as social entities are at a continuous process of evolution, as any other aspect in the social world. Therefore, thinking and thoughts are evolved as well in this process. Thus, the things which were considered to be a reality of the past, may not be considered as the reality of the present, and the things which are considered as the reality of today, may not be considered as the reality of future. Hence, when the thinking and thoughts are evolved on continuous basis then the managers may still be open to alternative interpretations and arguments, depending on how convincing or persuasive the alternative interpretations and arguments are in comparison of their own.

In addition, in the history of philosophy, the concept of judgement has been defined in many ways by important philosophers, and of these we present the following notion: a judgement is a mental activity whereby we recognise that an object (subject) has a property (predicate) (Bonet, 2014). In other words, it is a mental process in which we introduce, think and evaluate a statement about something and accept or reject it as true or false (Bonet, 2014). Judgement has two aspects: the mental acts of judging, whose study belong to psychology and philosophy, and the content or product of these acts, whose study belong to logic (Bonet, 2014). Modern logic, to avoid confusion with the mental acts, in which it is not interested, uses the term proposition instead of statement (Bonet, 2014). Beyond cases of immediate evidence and "a priori" statements, the mental activities of judgement are complex and we perform them continuously (Bonet, 2014). They involve reflections, comparisons, choices and decisions (Bonet, 2014). The logical vision of judgement has neglected the fact that these activities involve persuasion, but the rhetorical activity of self-persuasion is always present in judgement (Bonet, 2014).

Furthermore, according to Schutz (1962), our eyes receive some visual inputs from the object and our imagination and fantasy complete the mental image. These mental operations involve the recognition of the object as a specific kind of object, such as a tree

or a dog (Bonet, 2014). Our mental image has a hypothetical character, which is influenced by our expectations, and can be confirmed or refuted. For instance, we are waiting for John, we see somebody coming and we think that it is him (Bonet, 2014). A closer look shows that we are wrong and we feel surprised by this misunderstanding (Bonet, 2014). Schutz did not explicitly use the concept of judgement nor the concept of meanings in the subject of perception, but it is clear in his comments and examples that perception involves judgement, creation of meanings and, therefore, the rhetoric of self-persuasion (Bonet, 2014). A central point of Schutz's paper is to emphasise that an intentional action is constituted by the purpose of changing one state of affairs into another state, a mental project or mental rehearsal of the action and the performance of the act (Bonet, 2014). Even if Schutz does not make it explicit, considering alternative purposes and choosing one of them, making decisions on different ways of achieving a specific purpose and finally performing the act are activities that involve judgement and self-persuasion (Bonet, 2014). In particular the mental project is an anticipation or a hypothesis of the performance and, in the performance the actor has to check if the realization of the project is successful or has to be modified (Bonet, 2014). The main thesis of Schutz is the following: we cannot directly observe the purpose nor the mental project of other people's actions, and we have to interpret them to understand their acts (Bonet, 2014). An action has different meanings for the actor and the observers (Bonet, 2014) or audience. Therefore, as an actor and our own audience, we are performing both the activities, judgements and self-persuasion (Bonet, 2014).

Before moving to the next topic, I will point to the concern Carter & Jackson (2004) raised, that is, whether managers believe their own rhetoric or use it cynically in organisations. There have been a number of scholars, such as Kunda (1992), Poole & Mansfield (1992) and Watson (1994) who have argued that managers do appear to believe in their own rhetoric. This is because it is a part of their job to persuade others. In this regard, they use arguments and discourses which involves them in the cognitive and thinking process. This implies that they cannot persuade others if they are not themselves persuaded of their own arguments. Therefore, their self-persuasion is important, may be as a part of their job requirement as managers.

2.12. Organisational Rhetoric

2.12.1. An Overview

Sillince (2006) argued that rhetoric is the particular use of language deployed by the speaker when he or she addresses an audience in the form of a proposition about a controversy. This involves "the conscious, deliberate and efficient use of persuasion to bring about attitudinal or behavioural change" (Cheney et al., 2004: 84) and occurs in a context that suggests a persuasion motive (Cheney et al., 2004). Conrad (2011) asked a questioned: why should we study organisational rhetoric? He answered the question himself by using a phrase from the 1960s – 'that's where the action is' (Conrad, 2011). Of course the action in the organisations is a consequence of people working in them (e.g., employees, managers, subordinates, leaders, bosses, etc.). And so, these people are one of the main sources of organisational rhetoric. Peterson (1990) defined organisational rhetoric as the symbolic acts through which organisational members both reveal and construct organisational personae.

According to Sillence (2006), when we consider rhetoric within an organisational frame, we find various influences and constituents. Rhetoric that is defined as exclusively organisational is usually directed at many different internal and external audiences (Cheney, 1991). For example, rhetoric (as a practice) that was considered to essentially involve a physically present and known orator, in front of the known audience, in the courtrooms or public speeches, now seems to be moving towards an impersonal or anonymous organisational representative or spokesperson (Cheney, 1992), and an unclear audience (Cheney et al., 2004). As a result, rhetoric as a one-to-many model (e.g., one speaker and many members of the audience) is unable to provide a complete framework for the more varied forms within organisations (Sillence, 2006). This has given a rise to an interest in rhetoric that is not identified with persons or roles as much as with the argumentative positions (Sillince, 2006). Therefore, organisations engage in multiple efforts of rhetoric simultaneously and may direct the same rhetoric internally and externally at the same time (Cheney et al., 2004).

According to Weick (1979), organisational strategizing is not passive to the objective forces of the environment, instead the environment is enacted by the members of the organisation and their environments are partly socially constructed and enacted (Sillence, 2006). Therefore, organisational strategizing is deeply rhetorical as it enables organisations to use rhetoric for closure among many possible meanings (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Linstead, 2001), such as the organisation gets closer to its audience by means of identification (Cheney, 1983; Cheney et al., 2004) or "adjustment of organisations to environments and of environments to organisations" (Crable & Vibbert, 1986: 394). Fairclough (1992) argued that people achieve closure of meanings by positioning some interpretations as taken for granted versus others as excluded. Or by using rhetoric that is based on the structure of reality versus rhetoric that constructs reality (Perelman & Olbrechts-Tyteca, 1969/1971). This may be by means of creating associations and dissociations (Perelman & Olbrechts-Tyteca, 1969/1971) or resonances and dissonances (Oswick et al., 2004).

2.12.2. Organisational Rhetoric and Persuasion

Organisations are intuitively understood, even by a layperson, as persuasive enterprises; for example, one has only to experience the myriad of advertisement and commercials in the contemporary mass media to be reminded of that practical reality (Cheney & McMillan, 1990). Similarly, urging people to buy a product or a service is now regarded as but one obvious part of the persuasive activity of the modern organisations (Cheney & McMillan, 1990), but of course organisations are not all about it. According to Conrad (2011) not only organisational rhetoric influences public policies, both directly and indirectly, but also, at an equal important level, organisational rhetoric influences popular attitudes and beliefs, and so guides and constrains our actions and interpretations of reality (Greider, 1992; Soros, 1998; 2000).

Cheney & McMillan (1990) argued that scholars have only recently begun to discover and examine the pervasiveness of persuasion within every area of organisational life, ranging from activities such as recruiting, motivation, mobilization, and retention on the 'inside' of the organisation to image making, identity maintenance, and political influence within the wider environment. Hence, the pervasiveness of organisational rhetoric has begun to affect contemporary understanding of persuasion (Cheney & McMillan, 1990). In this regard, Crable, (1990) argued that organised persuasion has become so much a part of modern life that scholars now question whether persuasion can occur entirely apart from organisation.

For example, these days, human interaction is largely, if not inevitably, defined by the organisations within which we live (Cheney & McMillan, 1990; Crable, 1990). This all depicts that "organisations have replaced individuals as key figures in society" (Heath, 2009: 18). Therefore, Cheney (1983) argued that identification with organisations is essential for their members' satisfaction and commitment, which is achieved in large part through rhetoric. Of course this rhetoric is also produced by the organisational members. This makes organisational members as key entities to study for their rhetoric.

In addition, Crable (1990) pointed out two complementary claims about organisations and rhetoric: Whatever else they are, organisations are inherently rhetorical; whatever else it is, rhetoric is inherently organisational. If these two complementary claims are accepted, they lead to two implications: It is one thing to argue that organisations exist with rhetoric in and around them, but it is far more radical to suggest that organisations should be defined rhetorically; correspondingly, it is one thing to argue that rhetoric often is provided by organisations, but that differs markedly from arguing that rhetoric should be defined organisationally (Crable, 1990). Therefore, these two implications are needed to be considered when studying organisational rhetoric.

Moreover, Hartelius & Browning (2008) argued that recent management research imports rhetorical scholarship into the study of organisations. For example, organisational rhetoric (as discursive practice) is found in formal public messages such as in speeches by CEOs, public relations campaigns and mission statements (Cheney et al., 2004), as well as in the thinking, language and communicative processes of ordinary human actors (e.g., members of organisations) (Hartelius & Browning, 2008; Watson, 1995a). Organisational rhetorical methods, which are 'critical' in the sense of analysing 'reality' and its seeming objectivity (Symon, 2005), have been applied to strategic management (Ezzamel & Willmott, 2008), employment relations (Hamilton, 2001), and organisational control (Linstead, 2001).

Legget & Rosanas (2008) discussed the importance of communication in organisations, and how persuasion is a pervasive factor of our lives; for example, the ability to communicate persuasively is an essential skill in organisations today. One can understand two apparent reasons behind it. Firstly, as we now live and work in a flatter, more interdependent, society so gone are the days of dependency when information was delivered using top-down approach, and there was little needed to win over subordinates and colleagues with ideas and opinions (Legget & Rosanas, 2008). Secondly, in today's

environment, uncertainty is part of our lives and we need to sell our ideas points of view, products, services, policies and, even our own talents and reputations (Legget & Rosanas, 2008). If certainty existed, we would not need persuasion but in the world of uncertainty most of us need to persuade other to cooperate with us in order to get our jobs done; thus making persuasion a pervasive feature of all our lives, both inside and outside organisations (Legget & Rosanas, 2008). Similarly, Legget (2006) asserted three situations in which persuasion skills are critical in organisations, for example, in changing people's attitude, opinions and behaviour, in reinforcing beliefs, and in establishing attitudes and opinions.

Furthermore, Goosseff, (2014) argued that rhetorical success is measured in terms of influence of a speaker upon listeners. In the organisational context, listeners support the (new) information by new behaviour (Goosseff, 2014). Goosseff (2014) further argued that managers have only their authority given by the organisation to manage their employees while people obey their bosses because in the end they have to (Goosseff, 2014). According to Goosseff (2014), this sort of an influence of a speaker is quite simple and expected in an organisational setting and may need little or no involvement of rhetoric at all. However, Goosseff (2014) suggested that in order to motivate people to a higher degree, the use of rhetoric is advisable for the managers (Goosseff, 2014). However, there is a challenge posed by the knowledge environment in which we all live. According to Goosseff (2014), persuasion is not needed if speaker and listeners already are in agreement, which is difficult in this knowledge world; therefore, the art of persuasion rests on how it handles potential disagreements especially when speaker and listener have access to or possess the same objective knowledge (Goosseff, 2014). In such a situation, it is important to resonate with the identity of the listeners and the persuasive speaker knows how to do it with the use of rheoric (Goosseff, 2014). One way of doing it is through cooperation and working together in the organisational setting. True cooperation and working together not only connect people on a behavioural level, but they also express agreement about goals and meaning (Goosseff, 2014).

Cheney et al. (2004) outlined the functions of organisational rhetoric with three dimensions. The first dimension, the bounded text, highlights the tension between the persuasive effects of distinct messages versus a critique of a broader set of discursive patterns that socialize its members (Cheney et al., 2004; Clair, 1996). McGee (1990). For example, Cheney et al. (2004) argued that rhetoric consists of discursive 'fragments' or

scraps of messages that loosely cohere but never come together into a finished product, despite the fact that they may appear to be bounded or complete. The second dimension of the function of organisational rhetoric focuses on the intended direction of persuasive efforts and unclear and shifting audience boundaries where the differentiation between 'internal' and 'external' corporate communications is neither mutually exclusive nor distinct (Cheney et al., 2004; Cheney & Christensen, 2001). The third dimension of organisational rhetoric is the strategic function of messages where persuasion depends on targeted assessments of purpose, audience and message to change others' beliefs, actions and behaviours (Cheney et al., 2004; Hamilton 2001).

On the whole, persuasion is the key element in organisational rhetoric. Persuasive messages may not only include responding to existing rhetorical situations such as when an organisation attempts to restore lost creditability (Benoit, 1995), attempting to shape and influence popular attitudes and public policy debates (Brown & Eisenhardt,1998), but also the symbolic shaping of identity, image and brand, which contributes to organisational identification (Cheney et al., 2004).

2.13. Rhetoric in Management Studies

As previously discussed in this chapter, rhetoric is the art of effective persuasion in different contexts to advance certain interests (Aristotle 1991; Cheney et al. 2004). Recent work by management and organisational researchers draws heavily on rhetorical scholarship as it imports well-established ideas such as persuasion, power, ideology, argument, and manipulation into the study of organisation (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). For example, the areas of industrial relations, human resource management, organisational studies and management have witnessed a growing concern with rhetoric (Hamilton, 1997). Similarly, Cyphert (2010) argued that the sheer scope of corporate activity ought to be enough warrant for rhetorical attention.

More specifically, rhetoric is viewed in a variety of ways in management research, such as a managerial tool of influence and control, a means of understanding agents' interpretive schemes, a way to understand institutional logics, a means of organisational identity construction, a means of analysing the role of organisational narratives (Hartelius & Browning 2008), and last but not least, a way to understand the institutional change process. Accordingly, rhetoric has not only been established as a bona fide organisational

phenomenon on practical grounds (Hopfl, 1995; Watson, 1995a), but it has also been considered as a rapidly growing area of interest to organisational and management researchers (Hoffman & Ford, 2010).

On the other hand, rhetorical management is a key idea of many economic and management theories and implies that managers are rational individuals who make rational decisions which are often based on maximizing the mathematical function of benefits or minimizing costs (Iglesias & Bonet, 2012). However, this traditional approach to management minimizes the role of rhetoric, narratives, and persuasion in management research and practice (Flory & Iglesias, 2010). In fact, under this view, for many years, rhetoric was not only seen as meaningless in the context of management (Hunt, 1994), but also it was even associated with manipulation (Barley & Kunda, 1992). In the same vain narratives and storytelling were treated as unscientific and little attention was given to them until the last decade, when they increased progressively their influence in management research and practice and gained legitimacy (Gabriel, 2000). Similarly, there is an evidence of rhetorical approaches used for the narrative studies in management. Nowadays, it is well accepted that rhetorical studies have brought up an extremely interesting and rich method of interpretation and analysis in academia (Brown et al., 2009). And that they are also excellent drivers of organisational change for managers (Flory & Iglesias, 2010).

Similarly, there is an increasing interdisciplinary focus of management scholars reaching out to rhetoric as a new way of understanding organisations (Sillence & Suddaby, 2008). There is also a growing adoption of social constructionist perspectives by management scholars, which has heightened the importance of language as a means of analysing organisations (Sillence & Suddaby, 2008). This 'linguistic turn' in the social sciences (Alvesson & Karreman, 2000) has drawn the attention of a number of scholars to the classical rhetorical tradition, owing to a newfound awareness that rhetoric is the core form of communication that coordinates social action (Sillence & Suddaby, 2008).

2.14. Rhetoric: Criticism versus Support, Particularly from the Perspective of Management Scholars

As previously stated, the negative view of rhetoric has stemmed from Plato's idea of rhetoric. This view is believed to consider the use of rhetoric in a pejorative sense. Even in

the archives of the Oxford English Dictionary, rhetoric had been described as showy, ostentatious and seductive, and false and dishonest (Carter & Jackson, 2004). Therefore, in a pejorative sense, rhetoric is defined as a language which seeks to persuade others to do, think or feel something for an ostensible reason when the actual reason is quite different (Carter & Jackson, 2004).

Plato's accusation, which has been reasoned in rhetorical studies, is that the artful use of language poses the threat of deception as it can manipulate an audience or members of an organisation (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). In the view of that one of the main ideas of Platonic scepticism is that persuasion, by definition, renders onto its users immense power and control (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). For example, management and administration scholars frequently express a concern that supervisors use rhetoric to control employees (Barley & Kunda, 1992; Oakes et al., 1998).

Therefore, rhetoric is widely treated as a means of manipulation (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). One example of such manipulation is Fine's (1996) analysis of occupational rhetoric among chefs in which one of the tools used by him was metaphor. According to Fine (1996), it suggested deliberate practice and so he indicated rhetoric as being manipulative. Similarly, Markel (2005) examined rhetoric as a kind of misdirection in privacy policy statements which he related to deception.

Further, Watson (1995b) stated that rhetoric is seen as a negative way of using language either to obscure truth or to manipulate an audience so that they come to accept a case on the grounds of the attractiveness of its presentation rather than the grounds of its substance. Therefore, rhetoric has been frequently compared with the reality. In this regard, one of the preferred subtitles in academic publications is 'rhetoric vs. reality' (Symon, 2000) or 'rhetoric and reality' (Hamilton, 1997) where rhetoric is treated as inaccurate, manipulative (Symon, 2000) and opposed to reality. For example, Eco (1986) argued that there is an increasing detachment of signifier from signified in the rhetorical language which makes rhetoric more real (or hyper-reality) than the reality. Similarly, Carter & Jackson (2004) argued that what people experience is their reality, but they become increasingly aware of the gap between their reality and the language that is used to describe the reality. According to Worrall & Cooper (2001), this may be one of the reasons that the morals of people have been low, which has led them to be sceptical about organisations and management. However, it is important to mention that Watson (1995b) himself considered

rhetoric inevitably an integral part of research work and writings in social sciences. Similarly, Hamilton (1997) and Symon (2000) did see rhetoric as opposed to the reality. According to Hartelius & Browning (2008), in studies that focus on managers' strategic language, rhetoric is simply conceptualized as a powerful tool (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). Therefore, it is up to the readers to infer the tool's primary uses (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). Nevertheless, the management scholars who characterise rhetoric as being supplemental to theory building and research preserve the platonic assumption that it is either deceptive or superfluous (Hartelius & Browning, 2008).

In addition, rhetoric has been criticised as emotive, an expression of ideological position, or a form of speech that embraces a wide range of meanings to the point that it becomes meaningless (Corbett, 1990; Nash, 1989; Vickers, 1988). For example, 'it's only rhetoric' is sometimes a phrase pointed to the political or commercial claims and discourses, which is particularly aimed to suggest that rhetoric is trivial and reflects an inaccurate approach to accounts and claims (Hackley, 2003) for attaining compliance and consent (Carter & Jackson, 2004).

In contrast to the negative views on rhetoric, Hartelius & Browning (2008) stated that a large number of modern theorists in management do not dismiss rhetoric as merely a 'sham art'. Instead, they view rhetoric as a symbolic inducement that everyone participates in-managers and employees alike (Ehninger, 1968). For example, in acknowledging that language creates reality (Skoldberg, 1994), Feldman & Skoldberg (2002) used rhetorical theory to determine how special features of communicative practice, such as the enthymeme, function in a narrative sequence. Hence, they rejected the pejorative meaning associated to rhetoric (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). Similarly, Lawrence & Suddaby (2006) also rejected the negative image of rhetoric as they focused on the persuasive aspect of language in their study of discourse analysis. Hence, rhetoric is unlike what its negative image suggests. According to Hackley (2003), it is the study of how meaning and persuasion are mobilized through language and social practice. In classical sense, it emphasises the intentionality of the speaker, focusing on persuasion through argumentation (Warnick, 2000).

Similarly, disapproving the potentially pejorative and mere rhetoric image of rhetoric, Billig (1987) emphasised on the 'argumentative context' of rhetoric as he stated that in order to understand the meaning of the whole discourse, one should consider the positions

which are being criticised, or against which a justification is being mounted. The idea is that without knowing the counter-positions, the argumentative meaning is lost (Billig, 1991). Potter (1996) also supported this notion by referring to the 'justification process' in rhetoric. However, because the studies within the field of social psychology owe too much to Billig's emphasis on 'ideological dilemmas' (Symon, 2000), which are contradictory strands within both the ideology and common sense of people to help them think meaningfully about themselves and world (Billig et al., 1998), this gives the impression that the study of rhetoric is confined to emotive topics about which there can be public debates (Symon, 2000).

However, the researchers, such as Sillince (1999), who accepted rhetoric as manipulative, also emphasised on the positive side of it. For example, Sillince (1999) accepted that rhetoric has frequently been used in managerial research to represent something unreal or manipulative (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). Nevertheless, Sillince (1999) also emphasised the value of rhetoric to managerial researchers and argued that rhetoric should be used by them in the classical stylistic sense. This indicates that rhetoric itself is not a negative discipline, but the negative meanings which have been associated with it promote it in the negative light. Moreover, management researchers who advocate the negative view of rhetoric in their studies, in fact, use rhetoric themselves to support their views. In other words, such studies suggest rhetoric as unreal and manipulative with the use of rhetoric itself. Accordingly, Hartelius & Browning (2008) argued that there are contemporary theorists who emphasise rhetoric's good and bad qualities and its potential to be used for both productive and destructive ends (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). Bonet & Sauquet (2010) also made the point in the favour of classical rhetoric and stated that rhetoric is a persuasive communication which pervades all kinds of personal, social, and public activities. For example, people use it to persuade an audience to accept their ideas, their underlying values, and their modes of thinking (Conrad, 2011). Therefore, rhetoric is used routinely, consciously and unconsciously, in our efforts to persuade others (Watson, 1995a; 1995b). Hence, its significance for organisations and management cannot be overlooked.

Accordingly, Heracleous & Barrett (2001) argued that the linguistic turn in the social sciences promoted calls for more complex understandings of organisations that would emphasise language not only as enabling information exchange but also as constructing social and organisational reality. The idea is based on a social constructionist epistemology where reality is seen as created through talk, not as objectively ascertainable (Symon,

2000). Hence, Heracleous & Barrett (2001) maintained that this is the reason that in management literature, rhetoric is regularly approached as a form of social construction.

Moreover, the social constructive view of rhetoric derives our attention to the issue of rhetoric and identity as Heracleous & Barrett (2001) mentioned that rhetoric is fundamental to the construction of identity. A recurring insight in management scholarship is that this rhetorical construction happens individually and collectively (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). Just as individuals gather a sense of self through language and social interaction, organisations acquire an identity through discursive practices (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). However, at times, professional and personal identities interact as actors are simultaneously bosses and co-workers, sisters and brothers, sons and daughters, friends and teachers (Hartelius & Browning, 2008).

This further derives our attention to the issue of managers as rhetors who are engaged in different identities simultaneously or equally likely (particularly in view of uncertainty and ambiguity of the managerial environment and context). Hartelius & Browning (2008) called the rhetor a protagonist as he or she is the primary vehicle for rhetorical and material transformation. For example, a rhetor incorporates all dimensions of rhetorical canon, such as invention, arrangement, style, memory and delivery (Hamilton 1998). Classifying a person in a management position as a rhetor or rhetorical being also draws our attention to the ways in which the managers of today's organisations face many of the same challenges, regarding persuasion, as the classical orators (Hartelius & Browning, 2008). And in turn, our attention may inevitably be drawn to their use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. Hence, it makes an interesting area to study that how they use such dimensions to construct the reality of different phenomena they experience in their organisations as managers. And one such phenomenon is PA, which is under study from the same perspective (e.g., how the appraisees and appraisers use the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk to construct the reality of PA practiced in their banks).

2.15. Rhetoric in Organisational and Management Studies: Examples from Various Studies

This portion of the chapter mainly discusses a number of organisational and management studies which have either prolonged the contemporary rhetorical theory, or have performed

the rhetorical analysis (RA) (or the analysis with rhetorical approach). The reason for discussing these studies is to show, particularly, that RA can be performed with the use of different methodologies. As the current research's methodology is semi-structured interviews; therefore, I have also discussed a number of rhetorical studies towards the end of this chapter which used the same methodology. However, it is important to mention here that even though I have discussed all these studies under 5 headings but they are not mutually exclusive of their particular heading in which they have been discussed, and may fall under each other's headings as well.

2.15.1. Rhetorical Theory in the Field of Organisational and Management Studies

In view of the connection between rhetoric and management, Hartelius & Browning (2008) maintained that management theory has regarded rhetoric quite narrowly, mainly as a means of manipulation and control, and identified five alternative ways in which management scholars tend to use rhetorical theory: (1) descriptive and prescriptive ways of considering interaction; (2) the reproduction or undermining of organisational order; (3) a means of constituting individual and organisational identity; (4) managerial control; and (5) a way of understanding the difference between narrative and rational approaches to management.

In addition, Jensen (2010) offered the main characteristics of the model of persuasive management, comparing it with the models of scientific management and the model of rational management. Similarly, Jensen (2010) also presented a model of management education based on the education of leaders, which includes: (1) skills of persuasion; (2) knowledge and practice of virtues; (3) and knowledge of science, society and conceptual and practical instruments. The main idea of Jensen's (2010) study is that rhetoric is about persuasion and management is about persuading people while the underlying assumption is that persuasion rather than coercion is the way to manage.

Moreover, King (2010) provided a reasoning for the rhetoric of negotiation as a powerful frame for what is typically considered as persuasion in business communication for both ethical and practical reasons. Drawing from the work of Eckhouse (1999) on business communication as a competitive activity and Booth's (2004) concept of Win-Rhetoric versus Listening-Rhetoric, King (2010) argued for a broader understanding of the opponents.

Furthermore, Bonet (2014) discussed three important extensions of the boundaries of rhetoric and their consequences: (1) classical rhetoric limited itself to the study of public speeches and contemporary rhetoric involves persuasion by words, making possible the study of the rhetoric of management; (2) since Plato, it has been a long historical debate to reject rhetorical arguments but their recent recovery has led to the rhetoric of science and the rhetoric of economics; and (3) the extension of rhetoric from persuading others to self-persuasion is revealing the role of rhetoric in judgement, the interpretation of human action and the foundations of social sciences.

2.15.2. Rhetorical Approach in Studies Concerning Institutional Logic and Change in Organisational and Management Setting

A number of studies, explicitly or implicitly, have used rhetorical methods to understand processes of organisational and institutional change and have provided a useful theoretical connection between rhetoric and the emergence of new organisational forms (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). Covaleski et al. (2003) called it a 're-institutionalization' process where language is used in a skilful manner to re-characterise the professional jurisdictions. Covaleski et al. (2003) used a case study example of a jurisdictional dispute, regarding the issue of the right to perform internal corporate audits, in order to demonstrate that the ultimate success of the 'big five' accounting firms was largely due to their ability to soften extreme financial and political pressures with the use of, what they called, a 'rhetorical velvet glove'. In a similar kind of study, Suddaby & Greenwood (2005) used a modified version of content analysis (a method for describing written, spoken or visual content or communication in a systematic manner) to recognise the institutional vocabularies (e.g., structures of words, expressions and meanings), which they used to articulate underlying institutional logics (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005).

In another study, Jones & Livne-Tarandach (2008) combined content analysis and multidimensional scaling (a technique through which the similarity of individual cases of the dataset is visualized) techniques to examine how rhetorical strategies of architectural texts are mobilized by architecture organisations. The results disclosed that architectural texts "use distinct but related rhetoric; vocabularies of competency that were revealed through clusters of keywords and which captured institutional logics of business, profession and state" (Jones & Livne-Tarandach, 2008: 1075). Jones & Livne-Tarandach (2008) further examined the use of these keywords as rhetorical strategies when they compete for projects from different clients. The results revealed "that architect firms

deploy multivalent keywords - keywords that bridge institutional logics with the same word having multiple meanings, allowing them to appeal to multiple, diverse interests in their audiences" (Jones & Livne-Tarandach, 2008: 1075).

Similarly, another study conducted by Oakes et al. (1998) demonstrated how new vocabularies, in terms of business plans, were strategically used to redefine the institutional logic of provincial museums and cultural heritage sites in Alberta-Canada. Closely related to the study conducted by Oakes et al. (1998), the study conducted by Covaleski et al. (1998) demonstrated how shifts in language are central to disciplinary techniques used to socialize accountants. Both the studies suggested that the skilful and strategic use of language is very essential in initiating and directing change (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005).

In another study, Green, Jr. et al. (2008) used a rhetorical lens to understand how competing institutional logics influence and define institutional fields by engaging two institutional logics: (1) managerial capitalism (which argued that managers should have control of the firm because they have superior knowledge to do so efficiently and effectively), and (2) investor capitalism (which argued that managers are agents of their firms' shareholders and that shareholders must ensure managers run the firm in the shareholders' best interests). Green, Jr. et al. (2008) revealed that the rhetoric influences the effectiveness with which stakeholder groups dominate the corporate institutional field.

A number of organisational studies have used the rhetorical approach to exhibit the issue of change (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). For example, Heracleous & Barrett (2001) studied the role of language in promoting the adoption of electronic communication system in the London insurance market. The study offered three valuable insights: (1) it allied the proficient use of rhetoric to the facilitation of the change process; (2) it showed that successful rhetoric makes use of the underlying world-views strategically; and (c) it implied that ultimately the world-views become stable (Heracleous & Barrett, 2001)

In addition, Huang & Galliers (2011) outlined the importance of organisational rhetoric as a valuable theoretical lens to examine and conceptualize the IS (Information System) adaptation. In doing so, Huang & Galliers (2011) found four distinctive yet interrelated elements of rhetoric, which provides a means of operationalizing the rhetorical dimension in researching IS adaptation. These elements are; the different types of rhetoric and their

implications, the role of stakeholders, the notion of rhetorical congruence, and the rhetorical situations and strategies (Huang & Galliers, 2011).

Moreover, Whittle et al. (2008) used observation data of a change agent named, Shirley, and her employee audience during a quality-improvement meeting. The analysis centred on Shirley's rhetorical skills in delicately combining a number of discursive devices (Whittle et al, 2008). Hence, Whittle et al. (2008) argued that contradiction not only exist at institutional level (e.g., due to institutional pressures, strategies, role expectations, and so forth), but also, contradiction exists at an interactional level (e.g., which leads to the use of repairing methods because routine ways of interaction are disrupted). Whittle et al. (2008) further argued that if institutional logic is adapted to local context, contradiction can actually be enabling rather than disrupting institutionalization process.

All these studies which have been discussed in the overall context of organisational or institutional and management logic and change made a significant contribution in emphasising how rhetoric is instrumental in legitimizing and resisting institutional change (Shepherd & Challenger, 2013), and understanding the institutional logics. However, according to Shepherd & Challenger (2013), by appealing to criteria such as reliability, validity and generalizability, they risk reinforcing what Watson (1995a) called a naive distinction between rhetoric and reality. This is because they neglect to recognise the way those researching the human aspects of management and those practically involved in it influence each other (Watson, 1995a). For example, according to Watson (1995a), writers on HRM are not invisible observers behind a two-way mirror. Therefore, their utterances may instead act as mirrors in which their subjects examine themselves and reflect on their practices (Watson, 1995a). This issue also puts our attention to the idea of the use of appropriate methods of data collection (e.g., the observation of the naturally occurring talk of the members of an organisation by a researcher may affect the members' rhetoric because of the constant pressure of being watched by a researcher, and being watched by a researcher which is being watched by their organisation. So in comparison, interviews can be one of the preferable methods), and role of researchers' own rhetoric in their research (e.g., this can be guided by the use of an appropriate rhetorical framework, for an analysis, which directs to the achievement of the purpose of their study).

2.15.3. Studies, Particularly Based on 'Inventio' and 'Elocutio' (Invention and Stylistic Aspects or Figures of Speech) for Performing Rhetorical Analyses in the Arena of Organisations and Management

Here the main focus will be on stylistic aspects, as there has already been a great deal of focus given to invention. According to Aristotle (1991), effective figures of speech paints verbal 'beauty', for the listeners, and this can best be accomplished by basing the metaphor on the 'beautiful' either in sound, effect, or visualization. The notion that an audience will respond to a beautiful image (Bemer, 2010) created by the speakers' use of figures of speech, in turn, promotes the ideas of their importance and performing a rhetorical analysis based on them.

According to Easterby-Smith et al., (2012), the analysis based on figures of speech focuses on the individual level to understand how individual actors make sense of local interactions. This is because figures of speech devices shape thoughts (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Similarly, according to Symon (2000), in performing the rhetorical analysis, some researchers examine text for the presence of particular tropes that may be used to achieve particular rhetorical purpose. However, in Symon's (2000) views, such studies are particularly focused on the style of language.

Marketing management is particularly a rich field in regard to analysing the figures of speech. A substantial body of research has accumulated to show that rhetorical figures are both common in advertising (Leigh 1994) and are able to meaningfully alter consumer response (McQuarrie & Mick, 1992; 1996; Mothersbaugh et al., 2002). However, I am more concerned with the studies in the field of organisational and management studies as the current study focuses on the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks.

Hamilton's (1997) analysis regarding local pay and negotiation illustrated the use of rhetoric in an organisational arena in which one may expect to observe a great deal of arguments and persuasive talk. Hamilton (1997: 229) built his analysis on the rhetorical framework from antiquity, the classical rhetoric, as he rejected the "contemporary negative view of 'rhetoric'". The focus of Hamilton (1997: 229) analysis was on "invention" and "elocution", "two of the five canons of classical rhetoric". The current research is closely

related to Hamilton's (1997) research in a sense that its rhetorical framework is also embedded in the classical rhetoric, and it also focuses on these two canons; however, the framework combines the classical thoughts of rhetoric with the contemporary thoughts; for example, with the particular focus on the work of Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996). Therefore, the focus of the current study is both the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric.

In addition, Watson (1995a) drew our attention to the rhetorical quality of everyday talk of managers and identified a number of tropes, such as simile, synecdoche, euphemism metonymy, rhetorical question, irony, oxymoron, anaphora, parison, personification, comprobatio, epitropis, epizouxis, antithesis, epanorthesis and aporia. However, he did not appear to take this analysis any further (Watson, 1995a). Therefore, Watson (1995a) turned the focus of his analysis from figures of speech to talking about the argumentative and contextual nature of rhetoric; for example, he stated that both speaking and thinking involves engaging with counter thoughts and counter arguments as he observed this interplay between communicative and cognitive processes in his study. According to Watson (1995a), such processes are the part of broader process whereby human beings negotiate realities with other through the cultural medium of discourse and through which they justify and make sense, to themselves and others, of what they do. For example, the process of negotiation in Watson's (1995a) study was not simply at the level of language and abstract meanings, but the managers in discourse, in his study, had their personal interests clearly in their minds (Watson, 1995a).

According to Symon (2000), Watson's (1995a) study illustrated the danger of searching for the figures of speech in a rather mechanistic way that merely focuses on linguistic tactics, ignoring the argumentative and contextual nature of rhetoric. In the current research, this issue has particularly taken into consideration, as the focus is not only searching or hunting the dominant figures of speech in the talk of appraisees and appraisers, but also it equally focuses on the argumentative and contextual, and persuasive nature of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers. The three main research questions of the current study clearly demonstrate the idea.

2.15.4. Studies with Rhetorical Approach Based on Organisations and Management Related Documents or Texts

The rhetorical analysis of organisational text is a craft exercise that requires creativity (Gephart, Jr., 2007) and creativity naturally comes about if the study area is important and interesting as according to Hackley (2003), trivial topics do not interest the rhetorical studies. However, Brown (2000) pointed out that there is no single accepted approach to rhetorical analysis. For example, Brown (2000), in his analysis, used the rhetorical approach to the crisis inquiry. Brown (2000) objective behind such a study was to seek the understanding that how inquiry reports support the legitimacy of the social institutions and extend prevailing ideologies. Therefore, in relation to the analysis of such inquiry reports, Brown (2000) argued that the rhetorical analysis of organisational document or text is done because it is conceived to exercise universality, essentially and panoptic control through such documents or text.

In another study, Brown (1999) compared the rhetorical styles of two leading marketing management writers and consultants, Professors Theodore Levitt and Morris Holbrook. However, according to Hackley (2003), such an analysis is not always well received by business academics and writers who feel that a focus on rhetoric demeans their work as many do not wish attention to be drawn to the rhetorical skills which enables them to write in a plausible manner. This does not suggest that such analysis should not be conducted as other business academics and writers may surely want to know the rhetorical skills which make their own and someone else's writings quite very convincing and persuasive than others (Hackley, 2003).

Moreover, according to Hackley (2003), the study of rhetoric is based on the idea or 'truism' that all knowledge is mediated: we cannot convey experience except through language and writing. Therefore, many business consultants have won influence and credibility through the ability to write and speak as if they are offering simple wisdom which is derived from their direct experience of organisational management (Hackley, 2003). However, Brown (1999) considered this ability as a pointer to a 'high-order' skill in rhetoric which involves great deal of reasoning.

In addition, according to Symon (2000), several authors, in the recent times, have sought to deconstruct the rhetorical appeal of management bestsellers. For example, in an insightful analysis of management rhetoric, Case (1999) critically analysed the rhetoric of business process re-engineering trend which was made popular by management consultants named Hammer and Champy (1993). According to Hackley (2003), Case's (1999) analysis draws our attention to the issue of 'truism' again which suggests that management ideas and consulting solutions are made up of words. Similarly, Case (1999) mentioned that this aspect of 'truism' is often neglected. However, as discussed earlier, Aristotle' (1991) notion of rhetoric goes beyond mere 'truism' as its focus is on the 'available means of persuasion'. According to Hackley (2003), the analysis of the rhetoric of management texts, is not only appropriate and necessary to help us to better understand their influence and popularity in contemporary culture, but to help us understand the persuasive power of such texts that made such texts influential and popular. And this requires us to examine such text from Aristotle's (1991) perspective.

Moreover, Hackley (2003) critically analysed the ideological rhetoric of popular US and UK marketing management text books in order to try to set out major rhetorical strategies through which these texts seek to be persuasive and plausible. However, according to Hackley (2003), in order for a particular set of ideas to become accepted and popular, it is more important that they are rhetorically persuasive than intellectually rigorous. While if we consider Aristotle's (1991) conception of rhetoric, it covers all the 'available means of persuasion', logos, ethos and pathos. Similarly, Kieser (1997) and Furusten (1999) analysed the rhetorical strategies of management writers and gurus to expand the understanding of management from rhetorical perspective. For example, Furusten (1999) discovered that management ideas become particularly popular because of their powerful rhetorical appeal rather than purely because they have been proven to be efficient or effective. Again this drives our attention back to the matter of 'truism' which many scholars raise, and the answer to them lies in the understanding of Aristotle's (1991) notions of rhetoric itself.

However, Jackson (1996) focused our attention on the persuasive strategies adopted by Hammer and Champy in all their commentaries, books, seminars and articles, on business process reengineering. Based on the work of Hammer and Champy, Jackson (1996) indicated that managers have not always accepted this formulation of business process reengineering because it threatens their jobs and as a result they produce counter-

arguments regarding it. The interesting part about Jackson's (1996) account is that he did not overlook the audience for his account, and argued that it is partly the role of academics to produce rhetorical critiques and partly of the audience of their accounts.

2.15.5. Studies Performed Rhetorical Analysis Based on Interviews' transcripts or text

The use of interviews provide opportunities to make sense of the interviewees' experiences of significant learning events, and how such accounts are being constructed through interviews (which is the reality constructed of their experiences) (Cope, 2005; Johansson, 2004; Silverman, 2001; Holt & Macpherson, 2010). In opting to use interviews rather than directly observed talk and activity, one follows Aristotle's (1991) lead and investigates rhetoric as a mode of sense making that occurs within and across many different practices (Holt & Macpherson, 2010). The arguments or talk obtained from interviews then can be used for different analytical purposes. For example, in case of the current study, the purpose is to rhetorically analyse the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding their PA (in order to determine how they construct the reality of their PA with the use of argumentative and persuasive dimensions or devices of rhetoric).

Traditionally, rhetorical analysis has concentrated on the oratorical texts, for example, the analysis of specific speeches (Savolainen, 2014). As previously discussed, the rhetorical analysis has concentrated on the texts of management bestsellers or gurus. However, researchers are no longer confined to only such texts but have embraced other forms of oral and written discourses, as well as visual elements (Zarefsky, 2008). One example of this is written or recorded transcripts obtained from interviews which are used as a method of data collection, so as in case of the current study. Accordingly, it will not be wrong to say that studies of rhetoric may vary considerably in level of analysis (Symon, 2008) and data collection. In order to justify the current study's data collection method which is semi-structured interviews, I will be simply discussing a number of studies which have used interviews as a method of data collection for rhetorically analysing that data.

Nilsson (2010) explored the 'strategic change communication', framed by the idea that managers can be viewed as rhetoricians. Therefore, Nilsson (2010) presented and discussed what he referred as senior managers' subjective experiences of rhetorical aspects of change management. Nilsson (2010) preferred the in-depth interviewing method, with

eight managers of ABB Sweden (one of the world's leading companies of power and automation technologies) who have had considerable experience of strategic change, for this purpose. Nilsson's (2010) analysis was based on inductive logic and drew on recommendations by Glaser & Strauss (1967). However, in ABB, the 'word' rhetoric gave rise to rather negative connotations such as exaggerated, expressive, emotional, superficial, and provocative as it was perceived that honest communication and rhetoric are incompatible. In the view of this, it is understandable that the managers felt uncomfortable when they had to talk about their rhetorical practice (Nilsson, 2010). According to Nilsson (2010), no other contemporary study has indicated that the senior managers hold such negative attitude regarding rhetoric, and particularly their own rhetorical practice, as his study. Nilsson's (2010) study is connected to the current research in a sense that appraisees and appraisers in the current study are also viewed as rhetorical beings and their talk, which is based on their experience of PA, is rhetorically analysed in order to know how they construct the reality of their PA with the use of argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric. However, unlike Nilsson's (2010) study, even though the appraisees and appraisers broadly knew that their talk will be analysed for the current study, but they were not aware specifically that how it will be analysed, so what connotation or concept they associate to the 'word' rhetoric is not known.

Another study conducted by Roberts (1999), based on the rhetorical analysis, used interviews as one of the main method of data collection. For example, Roberts (1999) focused on the conflicts, and especially the discursive methods of solving the conflicts which are faced by the individuals within organisations as they negotiate competing demands. Roberts (1999) argued for an understanding of communication as a complex interaction, as it draws on many different resources (cultural, social, political, economic, discursive), across different units of agency (individuals, groups, organisations), towards multiple and often conflicting goals with intricate and not entirely predictable consequences. Roberts (1999) study is built on Cheney's (1991) work where Roberts (1999) further argued that the organisational nature of our society calls on individuals to perform multiple roles, roles that require, in turn, multiple identities, and that result in a divided self, one whose divisions become obvious and problematic during a crisis (Roberts, 1999). Roberts (1999) for the final interviews chose two very different participants for the study: one responsible for the production of the bank's documents and other who had to accommodate the message of these documents in her work. Roberts (1999) analysis concluded that the ability to maintain a unified sense of self plays an

essential role in our ability to survive in the complexity that surrounds us on daily basis and that the survival skill is the function of language resources primarily.

Similarly, Huang & Tansley (2012) used semi-structured interviews as a method of data collection in their study. The study is comprised of a single case study and explored the rhetorical practices inherent in the implementation of a talent management initiative (Huang & Tansley, 2012). Huang& Tansley (2012) gathered a rich insight from the experiences of a variety of stakeholders engaged in the initiative and documented, examined and conceptualized the rhetorical underpinnings of the talent management programme.

In another study, Kamoche (1995) used formal interviews, with five managers of Autoco (a subsidiary of an American car manufacturer), as an interpretative approach to the study of human resource management (HRM) and examined how organisational member construct meanings of HRM in everyday life through ritualistic behaviour and the use of language. The analysis revealed that teamwork is a totemic device created by organisational members in everyday life to create and legitimize the desired pattern of power and social relations. However, as previously discussed, Kamoche (1995) distinguished between rhetoric and plain speaking, and maintained a rift between language that is straightforward and perfunctory and language that is used to control and possibly deceive.

The two closely related studies to the current research from both the methodological and analytical perspective were conducted by Symon (2000; 2008). Both of the studies drew rhetorical analysis on the work of Billig (1996) and Potter (1996), and used interviews' data for this matter. Hence, Symon (2000) illustrated the relevance of rhetorical analysis to organisational issues through a case example concerning technological change in a public sector organisation. Symon (2000) conducted semi-structured interviews with the managers who were directly involved in the implementation of the project, and covered issued involving, individual's assessment of the development process and the development team, the decision making around the change and the technical strategy in general, and the relationship between IT developments and organisational change. The interviews Symon (2000) chose, to illustrate the argumentative context of the talk, were with those individuals who adopted the views that standardizing the provision of computers and making their use compulsory was not necessarily a good thing and it is being implemented

in an inappropriate way. Similarly, Symon's (2008) study is based on the analysis of the managers' arguments and counter arguments, regarding the implementation of WMS (a software system that enables coordination of work across organisational functions through tracking work processes). In order to determine how reality constructions may be achieved and made persuasive, Symon (2008) derived a pattern of rhetorical strategies in an inductive fashion. According to Symon (2000; 2008), the audience of interviewees' rhetoric was essentially her (as an interviewer), but their accounts were shaped with broader organisations in mind, knowing that she would be interviewing those who may have counter-arguments, and that their views may be publicly broadcasted through any research reports written by her on their organisations.

Last but not the least, the rhetorical and argumentative process focused in Fisher's (1994; 1995) studies which have been discussed in chapter 3 (Critical literature review on PA), provides a good defence for the use of interviews as a method of the data collection for the current research. Therefore, the next chapter critically discusses the literature on PA which will help in substantiating the grounds for the current research together with this chapter.

Chapter 3−Critical Literature Review on Performance Appraisal (PA)

This chapter discusses the literature on Performance appraisal (PA). It starts with discussing what PA and PMS are all about, and provides a contrast between them. Then it moves on to discussing the importance and effectiveness of PA, followed by the issues, concerns and criticisms associated with the practice. Subsequently, a contrast is made between PA as a potentially controversial and an actually controversial practice, and the current research's point of view is discussed that considers PA as a potentially controversial practice. Further, with the reflections from the previous studies, the issues related to the effectiveness of PA and the potential for controversy associated with the practice are discussed. Finally, a number of important matters are discussed, which create a link between PA and rhetoric. This is done not only to validate that PA is worthy of rhetorical attention, but also to substantiate the grounds of the current study.

3.1. Performance Appraisal (PA)

PA is an evaluative process which is conventionally assumed to involve an assessment of employees' performance in accordance with the predetermined standards (Smither, 1998). According to Schneier & Beatty (1982: 04) PA can be defined as ''the process of identifying human performance in organisations''. Hence, M. Fisher (1995: 11) stated that the ''purpose of performance appraisal is to improve an organisation's performance through the enhanced performance of individuals''. Similarly Fletcher (2001) defined PA as a general heading for various different activities through which organisations seek to assess employees and develop employees' competences, enhance employees' performance, and distribute rewards. This establishes PA as a common human resource management (HRM) practice or tool which is used for administrative and developmental decisions by organisations (Levy & Williams, 2004; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995). Administrative decisions focus on salary, promotion, retention, termination, layoff, etc., whereas developmental decisions focus on training of employees, providing employees with regular performance feedbacks, employees' transfers, determining employees' strengths and weaknesses, etc. (Boswell & Boudreau, 2001). As such, PAs are regarded as a common element of organisational life (Brown, 1988; Longenecker & Fink, 1999) and so they are widely used in organisations (Burkhalter & Buford, Jr., 1989; Davis, 2001; DeNisi, 1996; Wanguri, 1995).

Similarly, Longenecker et al. (1988) argued that in majority of the organisations, PA are a fact of life. According to Cascio (1982), it has been strongly suggested that that if the PA is effectively administered, it can provide the organisation, managers and subordinates with countless benefits. However, serious concerns have also been raised regarding the functions or purpose served by the PA process and the extent to which its various roles conflict with one another (Beer, 1981); therefore, the actual effectiveness of the functions or purpose served by the PA process is still a source of continuous debate (Longenecker et al., 1988) and controversy. There is a detailed literature, on the issue of the effectiveness of the PA and controversies associated with it, which is discussed later in this chapter.

PAs are introduced in organisations for a variety of purposes; for example, one of the important purposes of PA is to help developing employees by means of creating greater awareness among them regarding what they perform and how they perform (Sayeed & Bhide, 2003). In other words, it can be considered as a key in the hands of employees through which they can reflect upon their own competencies and issues regarding their performance (Sayeed & Bhide, 2003). Similarly, the other purpose of PA is to bring employees together within organisational hierarchal structures; for example, where the interactive relationships between supervisors and their subordinates are transcended into teamwork with a twofold focus, goals attainment and greater employees' commitment (Sayeed & Bhide, 2003). This results in building resourceful organisations which are capable of not only solving their problems but also achieving their targeted business or organisational goals (Sayeed & Bhide, 2003). However, in view of what has been previously stated, these benefits can only be attained by the organisations if the PA is administered effectively.

Managers, supervisors, and subordinates, each one of them has an important stake in PA (Ammons & Condrey, 1991). Effective appraisal provides the groundwork for the counselling, development, and goal setting of individual employees (Ammons & Condrey, 1991). When PA is based on specific job-related behaviours, it helps the supervisors and employees to communicate their expectations and perceptions, to share recognition of performance successes and failures, and to target performance improvements (Ammons & Condrey, 1991). According to Schuler (1984), although some experts have criticised these applications as excessively broad, many organisations hope to rely on PA not only for feedback and counselling but also for decisions regarding increases in merit pay,

promotions, reductions in workforce, training needs, and other organisational strategies. For example, according to Price (2007), from a strategic perspective, the PA process is an exercise in management power and control. It is a method by which an organisation can evaluate its employees and feedback its views to them (Price, 2007). Similarly, evaluation can be linked to what is known as carrot and stick measures in the form of enhanced pay and promotion prospects to reward and encourage good performance and in the form of critical comment indicating the organisation's disapproval (Price, 2007).

In an effort for the PA to be administered effectively, individual employees are rated on quasi-objective criteria or standards which are considered to be relevant to performance (Price, 2007). According to Longenecker & Ludwig (1990), this happens on an annual or semi-annual basis where managers are required to measure and evaluate subordinates' performance using formal rating instruments. The traditional appraisals rated individuals on a list of qualities, primarily work-related attitudes and personality traits, while the modern assessments are often focused on competencies (Price, 2007). Moreover, according to Price (2007), in many organisations appraisals take the shape of pre-printed forms and typed instructions prepared for the appraising manager or supervisor while the dates of completion and return are fixed and the whole process is monitored and administered by the Human Resource (HR) Department. In explaining the PA system, Price (2007) further asserted that in most organisations, it is a matter of something being done to the employees rather than a process in which the employees can play a valued and important role. However, contrary to Price (2007), Law (2007) drew our attention to the important role played by both the employees and managers in their efforts to make the PA process positive and effective. For example, Law (2007) noted that employees and managers often work together to create easily achievable goals to ensure a positive PA based on reducing stress and ensuring rewards.

Similarly, according to Bernardin & Beatty (1984) and Latham & Wexley (1981), practitioners are continuously seeking to increase overall effectiveness and acceptance of PA since a host of HR decisions, such as wage and salary administration, promotions, training needs, and so forth, surround any organisation's formal PA process. The belief is that if the right rating instruments and procedures are found, they would result into accurate ratings of the subordinates (Feldman, 1981). Therefore, Landy & Farr (1983) argued that organisations and researchers emphasise an inordinate amount of energy to develop the right rating procedure and format so that the rater or appraiser accuracy can be

increased and the likelihood of a host of rater or appraiser errors, such as halo effect, central tendency, recency effect, contrast effects, etc., can be reduced.

Law (2007) recognised that whether an organisation uses sophisticated software or a simple paper-based technique for PA, there are some common elements in more or less all the PA systems. According to Law (2007), such common elements are:

1. The performance or behaviours of an individual (which may also include traits) are rated, evaluated, or judged by somebody else;
2. The evaluations are planned (e.g., quarterly or annually) and not tied to the projects' completion;
3. All employees are assessed using the same PA system;
4. The PA process is usually mandatory and tied to a reward system (e.g., pay raise or promotion);
5. The information obtained from evaluation is kept in the employee's file.

Similarly, Aamodt (2012) argued that many organisations use a similar process for implementing the PA system. This is particularly true in case of the current study, as both of the banks under the current study use similar PA systems, which is discussed under the research methodology chapter.

According to Price (2007), theoretically, appraisals can be accomplished in various different ways:

1. Self-assessment (where individuals assess themselves against targeted objectives or rating criteria);
2. Peer assessment (where selected individuals, fellow team members or colleagues from the same Department with whom an employee has working interaction provide evaluations);
3. Line management (where the employee's immediate supervisor/s provide the evaluation or alternatively, other line managers may also be involved);
4. Upward appraisal (where managers are assessed by their staff members);
5. 360 degree or multi-rater feedback (where assessors may include anybody, who has a direct knowledge of the performance of an individual, such as colleagues, managers, direct reports, and internal customers).

In the view of these theoretical guidelines established by Price (2007), if the PA system of the two banks under the current study is observed, they follow a combination of self-assessment and line management. Their PA system is discussed in detail in the research methodology chapter.

3.2. Performance Management System (PMS)

Selden (2010) argued that over the last thirty years, the appraisal process has been expanded not only to include feedback on performance but also to link it to salary and career development. Accordingly, whereas some organisations still manage PAs as discrete events, most have implemented systems that involve an array of different activities to assess, develop, and rewards employees (Selden, 2008). Therefore, Selden (2008) regarded PA as the centrepiece of the performance management system (PMS). Similarly, the two banks under the current study claimed that their PAs are an important part of their PMS. However, the study is not concerned to determine how effectively they use this system. The thesis is distinctly concerned with the rhetorical analysis of the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PAs practiced in their banks. Therefore, the objective is to examine the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk in order to know how they construct the reality of their PA. This objective is being highlighted throughout the chapter to create a better understanding of the link between PA and rhetoric, and that how this study fits within the boundaries of this link. At present, it is important to define what PMS is?

Aguinis (2009) defined PMS as a continuous process of identifying, measuring, and developing the performance of individuals and teams and aligning it with the strategic goals of the organisation. Similarly, Armstrong & Baron (1998) described performance management as an integrated and strategic approach to increasing the effectiveness of organisations by improving their employees' performance and by developing the capabilities of teams and individual contributors. Further, Nankervis et al. (2012) noted that there were links between PMS and business strategies for improved organisational effectiveness. For example, according to Nankervis et al. (2012), organisational outcomes such as profitability, productivity, returns on investment, efficiency, and competitiveness are typically mentioned by the authors when they assess the links between employee performance and organisational effectiveness while some authors have adopted a broader classification in this regard which blends financial and economic data with measures such

as employee involvement and satisfaction, labour turnover, and rates of sickness and absenteeism. Therefore, Nankervis et al. (2012) maintained that the linking of PMS with business objectives and outcomes can contribute significantly to enhancing the effectiveness of organisations.

Moreover, in particularly considering performance management as a natural process of management (Marchington et al., 2011), Armstrong & Baron (2007) argued that performance management aims to make the good better, share understanding about what is to be achieved, develop the capacity of people to achieve it, and, last but not least, provide the support and guidance people need to deliver high performance and achieve their full potential to the benefit of organisation and themselves. Similarly, in his previous work, Armstrong (2006) suggested that PMS should be considered as a process or a set of processes for establishing shared understanding about what is to be achieved, and of managing and developing people in a way which increases the likelihood that it will be achieved in the short and longer term.

Further, according to Aguinis & Pierce (2008), PMS can be based on a consideration of behaviours (e.g., how the work is completed), results (e.g., what outcomes are produced), or both. For example, management by objective (MBO) can be the part of a PMS that is based on measuring results while there are other kinds of PMS that place an emphasis on processes and not on results (e.g., competencies and skills based system) (Aguinis & Pierce, 2008). In particular to the PMS strategies, Price (2007) maintained that Performance management strategies are particularly based on a consideration of workforce motivation, or, more precisely, management belief in the factors that result in employee efforts and commitment. While Sung & Ashton (2005) linked human resource practices to PMS and business strategies as they suggested that human resource practices, such as reward and commitment, are included in the broad PMS strategies, which are the key aspects driven by the business strategies.

Similarly, Purcell et al. (2003) suggested that the best PMSs operate in those organisations which have effective communication channels as they link them not only with the particular HR practices (e.g., learning and development, and reward) but also with the commitment of employees. The role of line managers is important in this regard. For example, with effective communication channels, the line managers can facilitate employees' commitment; therefore, effective PMS can be achieved in an organisation as

employees' commitment is a key factor in the relationships between employees and their managers as well as in employees' attitudes towards the organisation and its practices (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Latham et al., 2007).

Nevertheless, according to Marchington et al. (2011), there is all too often a gap between human resource policy and what is delivered by the line managers. This is an issue of concern and controversy. This is because as the good management behaviour can rescue poorly designed or inadequate human resource policies and practices, the good human resource practices can be neglected due to poor behaviours or weak leaderships of the line managers (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). Boxall & Purcell (2008) noted some obstacles faced by line managers which include lack of time, work overload, lack of interest, conflicting priorities, issues arising from political behaviour, dysfunctional managerial behaviour and personality syndromes. It is typically assumed that the training of the line manager can solve many of these barriers; however, much depends on the quality of the other elements of organisation's PMS (Marchington et al., 2011).

3.3. Performance Appraisal (PA) and Performance Management System (PMS) in Contrast

PA (whether individually conducted, or administered as a part of PMS) and PMS are important practices of HRM discipline. Aguinis & Pierce (2008) argued that organisations are becoming aware of the benefits which can be produced by a good PMS and as a result, PMS has become popular worldwide. Particularly, in the current scenario, organisations are shifting their focus from an exclusively administered PA to PMS where PA is regarded as one of an important components of PMS but not as an entire PMS. For example, according to Torrington et al. (2005), while many exclusively administered PA processes are still in exercise and continue to be upgraded, PMSs are increasingly seen as a way to manage employees' performance as such systems offer the advantage of being tied closely into objectives of the organisation and so the resulting performance is more likely to meet organisational needs. Torrington et al. (2005) further maintained that PA is a key part of the PMS as it is integrated with performance planning (e.g., via linking an individual's objectives to business objectives to ensure that employee effort is directed towards organisational priorities), with support for performance delivery (e.g., via development plans, coaching and ongoing reviews to enable employee effort to be successful), and with the notion that performance is assessed and successful performance is rewarded and reinforced.

Similarly, according to Redman & Wilkinson (2013), a main feature of performance management is that it connects organisational objectives to a system of work targets for the individual employees. For example, Redman & Wilkinson (2013) analysed that the development of PMS has had major implications for PA. Accordingly, a key trend has been to move away from a stand-alone or exclusively administered PA systems and move towards making an individual appraisal as a part of an integrated PMS (Redman & Wilkinson, 2013).

Therefore, it is worth discussing the contrast between an individually administered PA and PMS. However before going into the contrast, it is important to note that PA is considered as an important component of their overall PMS by both the banks which have been selected for the current study and the current study is not about their overall PMS but it is clearly concerned with their PA (an important component of their PMS). More precisely, the focus is on the rhetorical analysis of the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks (that is how the appraisees and appraisers talk about the PA practiced in their banks with the utilisation of argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk). Of course there is a whole chapter, Research Framework, which discusses how this rhetorical analysis is conducted.

In relation to the contrast between exclusively administered PA and PMS, performance management is considered as a cyclical or an ongoing process that involves a number of stages, such as prerequisites, performance planning, performance execution, performance assessment, performance review or appraisal, and performance renewal and re-contracting (Aguinis, 2009). Aguinis & Pierce (2008) maintained that because the emphasis of PMS is on strategic alignment, it can be regarded as a tool that helps management to improve organisational performance while an individually administered PA is generally seen as a requirement of HRM Department and does not typically include business and strategic consideration. Therefore, Aguinis & Pierce (2008) pointed out three differences between individually administered PA and PMS:

1. PA does not typically include business and strategic considerations as PMS;
2. PA usually do not include an ongoing and extensive feedback that an employee can use to improve his/her performance in the future as PMS;

3. PA is generally a once-a-year activity which is often driven by the HRM Department whereas performance management is a year-round event of managing business which is driven by managers.

These three differences can also be regarded as the three reasons for the preference of PMS over exclusively administered PA. Another reason for performance management preference over individually administered PA is that it provides useful information that is needed for decision making in other HRM and developmental activities; for example, consider the relationship between performance management and training where performance management provides information on developmental needs for employees (Aguinis & Pierce, 2008). Similarly, PMSs are considered as a source of information used in decisions making about the allocation of resources and rewards (e.g., by linking performance to rewards), succession planning (e.g., performance in the past is used as a predictor of performance in the future), and staffing strategies (e.g., performance management systems allow organisations to create talent inventories by identifying talent gaps that are targeted with subsequent recruiting efforts) (Aguinis & Pierce, 2008).

3.4. The Importance and Effectiveness of Performance Appraisal (PA)

Many points regarding the importance and effectiveness of PA have already been discussed, from time to time, previously in this chapter; therefore, here some more points will be briefly discussed for creating a better understanding of the matter. According to Gordon & Stewart (2009), PA remains a vital component of performance management despite the criticisms associated with it. Generally, the effectiveness of PA system has been assessed in relation to appraisees' perceptions of its fairness (e.g., Folger et al., 1992; Greenberg, 1986; Holbrook, Jr., 2002), satisfaction with the process (e.g., Dipboye & dePontbriand, 1981), and subsequent job performance (e.g., Smither et al., 2005).

In the consideration of PA's importance to the personnel function, Kavanagh (1989) described it as the capstone of the personnel function because it serves so many traditional purposes, including training and career development, validating entry requirements, and establishing the efficacy of a variety of HRM practices. Similarly, Orey (2007) regarded PA as a critical function for companies' decisions regarding their workforce retentions and reductions as it is thought as critical for establishing legal defence in such decisions. Additionally, objective measures of firm's performance are linked to the use of PA system (Huselid, 1995; Luthans & Sommer, 2005) and to the employees' perceptions of the

characteristics of the PA system. For example, in one such study, Nankervis et al. (2012) explored the links between PMS and organisational effectiveness from the perspectives of managers in a range of organisations and industries in Australia.

Therefore, it has been argued that a well conducted PA can serve a useful role in reconciling the needs of both employees and organisations (Cleveland et al., 1983; Conry & Kemper, 1993; Grote, 1996). For example, Byars & Rue (2003) argued that when a PA is properly conducted, it not only allows the employees to know how well they are performing, but also it influences the employees' future directions in terms of the efforts and tasks they need to accomplish in the organisation. Similarly, Kondrasuk (2011) stated that PA can make a business more efficient and keep the employees motivated. This is because PA is considered to have the potential to focus employees' minds on organisations' missions, visions and core values (Cintron & Flaniken, 2011). Thus, if conducted well, PA is an influential tool that allows organisations to organise and coordinate their employees towards the achievement of their strategic goals (Grote, 2002; Lewis, 1996).

3.5. The Issues, Concerns and Criticisms Associated with Performance Appraisal (PA)

According to English (1991), organisations experience a critical paradox. For example, on the one hand no other management tool is considered to be more critical to productivity than effective PA, but on the other hand it can actually be considered to have the potential to impair the performance of employees (English, 1991). The literature is full of descriptions about the different techniques and the substantial variability that exists among PA practices even within a same industry (Townley, 1993). Clearly, dissatisfaction with PA methods is widespread and there is no consensus about a solution to the problem because what appears to work in one organisation does not always successfully transfer to (Gordon & Stewart, 2009), or even work for, others. This raises the issue that there is no single best or successful PA system that is suitable for all organisations.

Similarly, Ghorpade & Chen, 1995: 32) argued that ''performance appraisal is a serious activity whose conduct is fraught with consequences for both the individual and the organisation. From the organisation's perspective, a faulty assessment can result in false positive (rewarding bad performance) as well as false negative (failing to reward good performance) errors. From the individual's perspective, results of performance appraisal

have implications for the future relationship with the employing organisations.'' For example, a positive PA can result in the renewal of organisational membership as well as promotions, pay raises and other rewards while a negative PA can result in demotions, and even termination of organisational membership (Murphy & Cleveland, 1991).

Moreover, Finn & Fontaine (1984: 336) noted that "abundant evidence that performance appraisal programmes often fail to produce the expected benefits of opening up lines of communication and enhancing work effectiveness…. [Nevertheless, despite] whatever is shown through the literature and experience, the reality of the matter is that formal performance appraisal programmes are here to stay, and organisations have little choice but to continue the elusive search for an approach that lives up to its promises." Therefore, it is not unusual to switch from one PA approach to another for the companies (Sehellhardt, 1996).

In relation to the issue of the role of appraisers, Price (2007) maintained that despite the fact that the majority of appraisers are untrained to make judgements on employees' personalities (even in the most general of terms), the traditional appraisal forms ask them to provide a numerical rating of employees' personality traits on a scale of 1-4 or 1-7. Similarly, Longenecker & Ludwig (1990: 961) argued that majority of "managers do not describe their ratings of subordinates in performance appraisals as completely honest or accurate. The inaccuracy is often in the form of inflated ratings". They defend the inaccuracy by citing, "among other things, the need to avoid confrontation with subordinates, damaging working relationships, and creating permanent written documents which may later harm a subordinate's career'' (Longenecker & Ludwig, 1990: 961). As far as the question, what happens if employees disagrees with such assessment, is concerned, Price (2007) maintained that despite its critical consequences for promotion prospects and, perhaps, remuneration, only a half of all organisations allow their employees to any form of appeal (Price, 2007). This leads to raise the issues of fairness in the appraisal system.

Another issue associated with the PA system is that organisations are becoming more and more flat these days, which may be restricting opportunities for the employees to progress upward (Price, 2007). However, despite the fact that the PA systems were generally considered to be suitable for the hierarchical organisations of the past, they still frequently drive the decisions regarding pay or promotions (Price, 2007) in the majority of contemporary organisations. Therefore, new PA systems which meet the requirements of

individual organisations are needed as textbook models, yet they may not be suitable for particular organisational strategies or structures (Strebler et al., 2001). This again raises the issue that there is no single best or successful PA system that is suitable for all organisations.

Similarly, Gordon & Stewart (2009) argued that the development of a successful PA system largely remains an unrealised goal even though the literature is replete with advice and anecdotal evidence about the usefulness of its methods. A number of researchers have noted the shortcomings of the PA process. For example, poorly trained appraisers (Brownell, 1994; Green & Knippen, 1999), the evaluative generosity of appraisers (Bretz et al., 1992; Ilgen & Knowlton, 1980), the deliberate distortion of evaluations by appraisers to serve their political purposes (Barlow, 1989; Longnecker et al., 1987), the incompatibility between administrative and developmental goals of appraisal interviews (AIs) (Harris et al., 1995; Meyer, 1991), and the lack of meaningful feedback provided by the PA process (Tyler, 2005).

In addition, Kikoski (1998) referred to appraisal interviews (AIs) as the Achilles' heel of the PA system. Similarly, Gordon & Stewart (2009) maintained that, even though PA's importance is acknowledged, it continues to be one of the most persistent issues in organisations, particularly its component, AIs, for which many techniques have been attempted with only mixed success results. It is interesting to note here that when the majority of researchers and practitioners use the term AIs, they actually mean to refer to the whole process of PA and vice versa. Technically speaking, AIs are an important component of the PA process which itself is an important component of PMS; however, these terms are often used interchangeably by researchers and practitioners. In addition to the term "AIs", the terms "feedback interviews" or "feedback interviews of PA" are also interchangeably used by the researchers and practitioners on a frequent basis. Therefore, the frequent interchange of these terms among researchers and practitioners may potentially be considered as problematic in view of the confusion it may generate.

There are also a number of issues associated with the implementation of PA, particularly with regard to AIs; for example, typical failures of organisations to appropriately reward appraisers for conducting meaningful AIs, power differentials that affect the conversation of the counteractants (e.g., appraisees and appraisers) in the AIs' setting, and failure to properly train appraisers for AIs (Gordon & Stewart, 2009). Grote (2002) stated that if the

PA is not implemented well, it can become a target for ridicule. Similarly, Thomas & Bretz, Jr. (1994) maintained that the PA, as typically conducted, has remained a largely unsatisfactory endeavour for years. This is because creating a useful PA system and making sure that it is implemented effectively throughout an organisation are difficult tasks (Longenecker & Fink, 1999). Considering this, Service & Loudon (2010) argued that the problem is not related to PA itself but it is related to the individuals who implement it incorrectly.

As far as the perception of the two important parties to PA, appraisees and appraisers, is concerned, Culbert (2008; 2010) argued that appraisees and appraisers alike find the PA process unpleasant and dysfunctional as it causes low morale, reduces teamwork, and creates obstacles between appraisees and appraisers. A study conducted by Nickols (2007) found that a decrease in employees' productivity can occur after appraisals, lasting for as long as six months. Even the appraisers are affected; for example, they often suffer guilt and emotional anguish because of considering their act of judging others as hostile and hurtful (Levinson, 2003). Moreover, according to Price (2007), the appraisees and appraisers may have entirely different perceptions of both the reasons for PA and the criteria for judgement. For example, in the case where the carrot and stick approach or criteria is used which ties PA to financial rewards, the employees may feel that such criteria reduces their creativity by focusing them on specific goals at the expense of their coming up with new ideas or ways of doing things (Law, 2007). As for the perception of appraisees regarding their PA and the capabilities of appraisers in providing coaching to them, Law (2007) asserted that the assumption that PA can help identify training needs and facilitate coaching conversations is called into question. This is because the appraisees tend to hide training needs during performance reviews as they are fearful of disclosing their weaknesses thinking that it may affect their ratings, and it is common that managers are unskilled in providing coaching to employees (Law, 2007).

As regards the possibility of creating a positive attitude towards PA from the employees and managers, Pettijohn et al. (2001) argued that a positive attitude on the part of employees and managers towards PA is possible if managers are provided with information designed to increase the benefits of engaging in the evaluation process, and if more thought is given to the appropriateness of measurement criteria. Similarly, Townley (1994) argued that the received wisdom is that the appraiser judges the work not the person with the replacement of trait-rating by PA which identifies and measure some aspects of

performance. This, however, presents the issue of defining and measuring performance (Townley, 1994). For example, according to Philp (1990), any PA which uses terms such as skill, knowledge, potential, overall worth, etc., as a rating criteria, is totally unfair because such terms are extremely ambiguous and subjective. Moreover, because assessment based on such terms deals with individuals rather than the results they produce for the organisation, it becomes very difficult to communicate with the individuals who are assessed as they are likely to see any critical assessment of this kind as a personal attack (Philp, 1990). This is because people tend to react defensively if their assessments are based on the factors which deal with the emotive areas closely concerned with their personalities (Philp, 1990).

In addition, Longenecker et al. (1987) found that appraisers often display ulterior motives in their assessments of the appraisees. Consequently, appraisers may consciously or unconsciously bias their assessments of the appraisees based on gender, race, age, social style, personality, favouritism, reputation, etc., and often they are unaware of the rating errors which they commit, such as leniency (e.g., rating too easily), severity (e.g., rating too hard), and recency (e.g., rating based on the most recent behaviour) (Grubb, 2007).

All these issues, concerns and criticism associated with PA which are discussed have the potential to stir up controversy regarding PA as a practice. This is the reason that PA is widely considered as a potentially controversial practice and issue. Similarly, there are a number of authors who have supported the view that PA is actually a controversial practice and issue. The next heading draws attention to both the views.

3.6. Performance Appraisal (PA): A Potentially Controversial Practice and Issue versus an Actually Controversial Practice and Issue

The criticisms and the potential for controversy or controversy associated with PA are not something new. Likert (1959) observed that PA review interviews as a rule are extremely deflating to employees' sense of importance and self-worth; therefore, not only is the conventional review system failing to contribute, but also in the view of a number of executives, it can do irreparable harm. Similarly, Richards (1959) argued that performance appraisal is a major subject of controversy in management circles. For example, its advocates regard it as a pivotal element for a successful HR strategy while its critics view it as unnecessary and potentially destructive to employee-employer relations (Vallance & Fellow, 1999).

According to Dervan (1990), there are many reputable sources, such as researchers, management commentators, and psychometricians, who have expressed doubts about the validity and reliability of the PA process. Some have even suggested that the process is so inherently flawed that it may be impossible to perfect it (Dervan, 1990). Grint (1993) appeared to be even more scathing about PA as he stated that rarely in management's history can a system have promised so much and delivered so little. Yet, it has still been widely used. Thus, PA appears to be a potentially controversial practice and issue.

Moreover, Scullen (2011) called PA systems as lightning rods for controversy. This is because some researchers think they are indispensable while other argue that they are extremely ineffective and actually operate in most cases to an organisation's detriment (Scullen, 2011). Whereas, Deming (1986) labelled PA systems as a deadly disease in organisations. In doing so, Deming (1986) claimed that PA leaves people bitter crushed, bruised, battered, desolate, despondent, dejected, feeling inferior, depressed, and unfit for work for weeks after receiving their ratings as they are unable to comprehend that why they are rated inferior. This testifies to the potential for controversy in PA.

In addition, Selden (2010) advocated the view that few issues in management stir up more controversy than PA. Hence, in the view of the controversy associated with PA, Selden (2010) argued that it would be nice if both the managers and employees could say that they find the PA process easy, comfortable and enjoyable. However, Selden (2010) didn't expect it to happen as he asserted that there would not be a need of a PA system that causes both the managers and employees so much anxiety if every manager did his or her job as a manager and gave regular and natural feedbacks.

Likewise, O' Donnell & Shields (2002) and Vallance & Fellow (1999) also identified the PA as a controversial practice. For example, O' Donnell & Shields (2002) considered it a controversial practice in regard to the application of performance-related pay in the Australian Public Service (APS) while Vallance & Fellow (1999) called it a particularly controversial management practice; however, they acknowledged its wide use around the world, specifically in monitoring the performance of government employees. According to Vallance & Fellow (1999), PA has two contradicting goals; for example, to judge and distinguish those who perform well from the poor performers, and to counsel employees concerning their performance and career development. These contradictory

goals arouse controversy in PA; for example, the situation can be quite awkward for managers when they have to evaluate poor performers whom they know and work with, and have to confront such performers during counselling sessions concerning their performance and career development. This is the situation which depicts, what the authors called, the 'psychology of leniency' (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995). Therefore, managers may consciously or unconsciously tend to make leniency error, in appraising their subordinates, in order to avoid awkward situation.

Similarly, Strebler et al. (2001) and Wilson (2002) argued that one of the fundamental reasons for the potential for controversy in PA is that the appraisal process can be used for a variety of potentially conflicting purposes. For example, a PA can be used to motivate employees to improve performance by establishing clear objectives for the future and letting them know what is expected of them (Bach, 2005). This can conflict with the PA which is primarily concerned with the purpose of distributing rewards based on an assessment of past performance (Bach, 2005). Murphy & Cleveland (1995) argued that PA involves various stakeholders, such as appraisees, appraisers, reviewers, HR Departments, and top management, who pursue conflicting interests. This indicates that the appraisal process is used for a variety of potentially conflicting purposes because of the conflicting interests of its various stakeholders. Accordingly, numerous research studies have argued about the conflicting interests, particularly conflicting interests held by the appraisees and appraisers (e.g., Greller, 1975; Dipboye & de Pontbriand, 1981; Mount, 1983; 1984; Greenberg, 1986; Laumeyer & Beebe, 1988; Pooyan & Eberhardt, 1989; Moussavi & Ashbaugh, 1995; Longenecker & Nykodym, 1996; Dhiman & Singh, 2007). For example, Dhiman & Singh (2007) argued that, while the appraisees might be interested in higher ratings, the appraisers might be interested in rewarding only those subordinates who are close to them. Therefore, other than their connection with the conflicting purposes of PA (as indicated previously), the conflicting interests of the various stakeholders of PA have the potential to develop a number of conflicts and controversies in the PA setting. Grubb (2007) highlighted these conflicts as employee intrapersonal conflict, employee-employee conflict, employee-supervisor conflict, supervisor-leadership conflict, employee-organisational conflict, and supervisor-organisational conflict.

Further, Price (2007), asserted that all aspects of performance management provoke controversy, particularly PA and performance-related pay (Price, 2007). For example, according to Price (2007), managers are frequently reluctant to engage themselves in the

performance management process because of its confrontational nature and so employees are often dissatisfied with its methods resulting into a PMS which enforces the compliance of an unhappy workforce (Price, 2007). Adding to the controversy (Price, 2007) associated with PA, Strebler et al. (2001) argued that PA systems fail both employees and organisations as they have limited impact on overall business performance. Many organisations attempt to use PA as a strategic lever (which should not only be used for the performance of individuals, but also for the performance of the whole business) (Price, 2007). However, this attempt may invite controversy. For example, Strebler et al. (2001) argued that in their attempt to do so, organisations assume that managers have the ability and motivation to make PA work by translating strategic goals into operational practice. However, ideally, they should use the PA to help the employees see how their contribution adds value to the business as a whole (Strebler et al., 2001). Strebler et al. (2001) added more to the potential for controversy associated with PA as they argued that PA is increasingly developing into an overburdened management tool. This is because along with its appraisal and objective setting aspects, line managers are expected to identify staffs' training requirements, provide career counselling, identify future star performers and do something about poor performers (Price, 2007). These are all important features of people management but the attempt to do so much at the same time often leads to poor results from the PA system (Price, 2007).

Last but not least, according to Sayeed & Bhide (2003), when using a PA system in an organisation, it means thinking about people (employees), leadership and structure in order to obtain a right mix of these elements for the intended results. This indicates the potential for controversy where these elements are mismatched to an extent that it seriously affect the effectiveness of the PA in terms of delivering the intended results. For example, according to Sayeed & Bhide (2003), it is already the case in most of the organisations that PAs as a formal approach to employees' performance exist but it do not fully deliver the originally intended results.

Before going any further, It is important to mention that in spite of the fact that a number of issues, concerns and criticisms are associated with PA, and a number of authors have regarded it as potentially or actually a controversial practice in one way or another, the current study does not regard it as actually a controversial practice and issue. This is so in the view of the fact that it is widely used in today's organisations. For example, the argument is that if it was nothing but actually a controversial practice and issue then why it

is still being widely practiced in contemporary organisations? Also, the PA practice which is considered as actually controversial in one organisation may not necessarily be considered as actually controversial in another organisation because of the different contexts of the organisations. Therefore, the current study regards PA as a potentially controversial practice and issue which attracts rhetorical attention. The link between controversy and rhetoric has already been discussed in chapter 2 (Critical Literature Review on Rhetoric).

3.7. The Issue of Effectiveness in Performance Appraisal (PA) and the Potential for Controversy Associated with it: Reflections from Previous Studies

Almost all of these studies, which are discussed below, suggest that the issue of effectiveness in PA prompts the potential for controversy in it. To begin with, Banerji (1971) examined the ineffectiveness of PA in the context of banks; for example, he noted that the PA reports of the banks were sketchy and limited to a few personality traits, such as ability to work hard, obedience, sincerity, and so forth, while the ratings of appraisees in these traits were frequently high or low because the appraisers knew the appraisees to be high or low in some specific traits. This suggested the involvement of subjective judgements resulting into vagueness, arbitrariness (Banerji, 1971) and unfairness in the PAs of banks. Also, this suggested the idea of playing Gods on the part of appraisers (McGregor, 1957). Therefore, in order to increase the effectiveness of their PAs and to eliminate the potential for controversy associated with them, Banerji (1971) presented an alternative approach based on management by objectives (MBO) to the banks.

Similarly, Banner & Cook (1984) identified a number of specific ethical dilemmas which surround the formal PA setting, and may adversely affect its effectiveness, such as the problematic use of traits, oriented and subjective evaluation criteria, problems in the writing of performance standards and measurement indicators, the use of different PA systems within the same organisation, issues regarding how the results of the PA will be used, and the problem regarding who decides the objective standards to measure performance. However, regardless of all these dilemmas which depict PA as a potentially controversial practice, Banner & Cook (1984: 332) concluded that "As long as the performance appraisal procedure is fair, is consistent, and is evenly applied to all, the performance appraisal is a just device that can be morally justified".

Further, Bretz et al. (1992), in their survey of three large scale US private sector organisation, identified fairness as the most important issue, which needed to be resolved for the PA systems' effectiveness. Similarly, according to Carroll & Schneier (1982) and Murphy & Cleveland (1991), a critical element influencing the potential success or effectiveness of the PA system is the reaction to the system of those people who are being evaluated by it. This is because their reaction shows whether they accept or reject the system. According to Murphy & Cleveland (1991), one particular type of employees' reaction that has been found to be associated with the acceptance or rejection of the PA system is their perceived fairness of it. In view of this, employees' perceived unfairness of the PA process may be regarded as an important factor in decreasing its effectiveness and in stimulating the potential for controversy associated with it.

In the same way, lack of employees' satisfaction may also be considered as an important factor that hinders the effectiveness of PA and so may results in the generation of the potential for controversy regarding it. For example, the studies conducted by Mount (1983;1984) analysed the satisfaction of managers and employees with their PA systems in two different organisations and the results of the studies showed in general that managers were more satisfied than employees. However, for the PA system to be effective, ideally both the parties should be equally satisfied with it. Therefore, Mount's (1983; 1984) studies lead one to think that the potential for controversy is associated with PA because of these two parties' different levels of satisfaction with it.

Another study indicated that the lack of employees' experience with the PA may lead them to perceive an effective PA as ineffective and so may excite the potential for controversy regarding it. For example, Eberhardt & Pooyan (1988) studied two groups of employees on the basis of their experience with the newly introduced PA process. The results of the study revealed that the group which had experience with the newly introduced PA process had more favourable perceptions of their supervisors' appraisal behaviour and were more satisfied with the appraisal process than the other group which had lack of experience with it (Sayeed & Bhide, 2003).

Moreover, in their review of the PA literature, Spence & Keeping (2010) revealed three primary non-performance factors, such as the potential negative consequences of ratings, organisational norms and the opportunity to advance self-interests, that managers consider when they rate employees' performance. Further, Spence & Keeping (2010) investigated

these factors along with the factors related to appraisers' differences, such as conscientiousness, agreeableness, and performance appraisal experience. The appraisers included the sample of 303 university graduates, belonging to a wide range of industries, who had experience of administering employees' PA (Spence & Keeping, 2010). They were required to appraise a fictitious employee based on the information provided to them (Spence & Keeping, 2010). The results of this study provided support for the view that non-performance factors can be a substantive component of performance ratings (Spence & Keeping, 2010). Therefore, in the view of this study, one may think that the consideration of the non-performance factors by the appraisers during their ratings of the employees may stir up the potential for controversy regarding PA. Particularly, this may happen when the non-performance factors are considered more than the performance factors by the appraisers as they may lead to the ineffective outcomes obtained from the PA.

Further, Bawole et al. (2013) analysed the PA and its implications for the performance of civil service employees in Ghana and pointed out a number of issues, such as lack of leadership attention to the PA, lack of objectivity in the PA process, an extensive presence of superstition, spirituality and fear in the PA, lack of appraisers' training, and the interest of civil employees in the PA only during performance-related interviews. These issues not only depict PA as ineffective but also may spark the potential for controversy in it. Even the conclusion of their study seemed to provoke the potential for controversy as it stimulated rhetoric and reality debate regarding PA. For example, Bawole et al. (2013) concluded that PA has become rhetoric rather than an important practice or reality as performance is praised rather than being appraised.

In addition, a number of researchers have theoretically described and identified different aspects of an effective PA system (Sayeed & Bhide, 2003). For example, in particular to the Indian context, Dayal (1976) described the factors important for the effectiveness of PA. According to Dayal (1976), the Indian social environment tends to emphasise concepts of self, loyalty, regard for authority and interpersonal behaviour differently as compared with the Western setting. Therefore, in order to develop an effective PA system, the peculiar cultural aspects are needed to be considered (Sayeed & Bhide, 2003) so as to avoid the potential for controversy associated with PA.

Similarly, Pareek & Rao (1981) intended to describe the basic psychological processes of development oriented organisations and the relevant methods that can enhance the utilisation of human resources. In doing so, Pareek & Rao (1981) identified the major components and subcomponents of human resource development (HRD) system, and regarded the PA and its effective design as an important subcomponent contributing to an overall HRD. However, what determines the effective design of the PA is a potentially controversial matter. This is because the success of a particular design of PA in one organisation may not necessarily guarantee it to be successful in another organisation because of their different settings.

Further, Gibbs (1985) described three stages for developing an effective PA system, planning, implementation and review. These stages suggest that the PA should not be merely considered as a corporate report card, but it should be considered as a developmental tool for the growth and achievement of both the individuals and organisations (Sayeed & Bhide, 2003) alike as not doing so may instigate the potential for controversy regarding the PA. Whereas, in the same year, Gomez-Mejia et al. (1985) described the four important ingredients of an effective PA system and suggested that it is essential that all the four ingredients are present as a package in the PA process in order for it to be effective. The four ingredients are: (i) job related appraisal form, (ii) an appraisal model, (iii) a support system, and (iv) a monitoring and tracking network (Gomex-Mejia et al., 1985). Therefore, the absence of any of these four ingredients may also prompt the potential for controversy related to the PA.

In another study, Hall, et al. (1989) explored the effectiveness of the PA system in high technology companies in order to identify the factors that contribute to bring improvements in their goal setting process and consequent employees' performance. The fact that the majority of the organisations in their study were inclined to separate their salary reviews discussion from their performance reviews discussion (e.g., by two to three weeks) is suggestive of their implementation of the PA systems as a development strategy rather than a tool in the hands of management to reward its employees (Sayeed & Bhide, 2003). However, this may suggest a mismatch between performance and reward which may stimulate the potential for controversy related to the PA.

Moreover, Finn & Fontainie (1984) investigated the PA system of a large and complex human service Department of a State Government. The findings of their study revealed that

the PA system was ineffective as it was not producing constructive results and was resulting in negative attitudes of appraisees and appraisers towards the system (Finn & Fontainie, 1984). This called for the need of a complete change in the PA system. Accordingly, instead of theoretically describing and identifying different aspects of an effective PA system, Steel (1985) moved a step forward and suggested the participatory PA system as a solution for effective outcomes. For example, Steel (1985) conducted a study on the State employees, after a new PA system (the participatory PA system) was implemented, and the results of the study revealed that the employees considered the participatory PA system more effective and satisfactory than any other system. Similarly, Deets & Tyler (1986) explored the PA process of the Xerox Corporation which was particularly designed for effectiveness through the joint setting of objectives by the managers and employees. The findings of the study indicated that the employees had a supportive attitude towards the PA process as it had eliminated the barriers to teamwork (Deets & Tyler (1986). Hence, with reference to the PA systems discussed by Steel (1985) and Deets & Tyler (1986), one may think that the implementation of such systems may liberate the PA from the potential for controversy associated with it.

However, the effective implementation of PA is itself a potentially controversial issue. Many effectively designed PA systems fail due to their inappropriate implementation. There can be many reasons behind this failure which may vary from organisation to organisation. For example, a mismatch between the PA system and organisational context, a lack of training provided to the employees for its proper implementation, hasty implementation, and so forth. Sayeed & Bhide (2003) conducted a survey regarding PA effectiveness, which included 211 respondents (managers and their subordinates) from two major divisions of a textile company, as a part of their new PA implementation programme. In doing so, Sayeed & Bhide (2003) argued that if the PA were designed and implemented well, it would create better teamwork on an ongoing basis. This is because of the established feedback channels among supervisors and their subordinates which are fostered by the top management by conscious efforts. Whereas, Yeo (2003) suggested that PMS should not be treated as an isolated system for its effective implementation. Instead, the measurement should be considered at all the levels (e.g., individual, process and organisational) in order to facilitate the alignment of the goals of individuals, teams, departments and processes with the strategic aims of the organisation (Yeo, 2003). The study considers these aspects from the interpretations of such issues provided by the study respondents (Nankervis et al., 2012).

3.8. The Context of Performance Appraisal (PA) in Pakistan and How They are Conducted

The PA process is a common phenomenon in Pakistan as the majority of the organisations have implemented this process for regular evaluation of their employees' performances (Khan, 2016) usually by their immediate supervisors (Saba & Nsubuga-Kyobe, 2014). In the context of the civil service in Pakistan, including both federal and provisional, the widely used mechanism to measure the performance of employees is the performance evaluations reports (PERs), previously known as the annual confidential reports (ACRs) (Hanif et al., 2016). The PERs are filled by the seniors of incumbent civil servants annually, while the establishment division of the Government of Pakistan provides policy directions and maintains confidential records of the evaluations (Hanif et al., 2016). In the technical language of the PERs, officials who conduct the PERs are called the reporting officers, while their reports are also counter-checked by the counter-signing officers (Hanif et al., 2016).

Although the PERs have widely taken over the ACR system of PA in the public sector organisations, the ACRs are still a common PA practice used in most of the public sector universities in Pakistan (Saba & Nsubuga-Kyobe, 2014). It is a comprehensive report written once a year about the employees by their supervisors for their performance in the assigned responsible duties (Saba & Nsubuga-Kyobe, 2014). While the reports have no bearing or immediate effect on pay and benefits, unless the grading is below the minimum acceptable standard, they certainly have long term impact on promotions as well as selection on merit for lucrative posts and courses (Saba & Nsubuga-Kyobe, 2014). Communication gaps, personal biases, and minimal employee participation are some of the negative aspects of the ACR system, making it an old and ineffective PA system which does not help in employees' learning and development (Rasheed et al., 2011). For example, people promoted on the basis of the ACRs are usually unaware of which part of work in the year they were most efficient (Saba & Nsubuga-Kyobe, 2014). Hence, they are often sceptical about this form of PA system. This is the reason that the PERs have widely taken over the ACR system in the public sector organisations in Pakistan.

However, there are issues in the adequate implementation of the PER system as well. For example, the PER system is generally used worldwide in organisations to evaluate the

performance of employees in order to make administrative decisions, evaluate recruitment and selection processes, and determine training needs (Kane & Lawler, 1978; Cleveland et al., 1989; Rasheed et al., 2011; Shakil, 2012), while in the public sector organisations in Pakistan, the PER system is commonly used for making decisions regarding employees' promotion and retention in service (PEG, 2004). Moreover, the shift from the ACR system of PA to the PER system in the public sector organisations in Pakistan merely appears to be a terminological shift with very little practical implications. Accordingly, the overall PA system in the public sector organisations in Pakistan is considered to be embedded with a high level of confidentiality (Khan, 2010). For example, even the appraisees are not fully aware of the criterion used for their performance measurement. Additionally, it is regarded as a one way communication process (Saba & Nsubuga-Kyobe, 2014). This results in the appraisees' involvement and engagement being minimal, especially in the ACRs which are like a closed system that is non-transparent, and open to favouritism, corruption and tribalism in the public sector institutions in Pakistan (Saba & Nsubuga-Kyobe, 2014). Similarly, Ikramullah et al. (2012) argued that in the civil service of Pakistan, the PA system has been problematic and criticised due to various flaws. Furthermore, the PA system of civil service in Pakistan has been overlooked in the various reform attempts by the Government and it is difficult to find any progress in this particular area (NCGR, 2008). This makes the PA a potentially controversial practice in the public sector organisations in Pakistan. Therefore, in order to improve the PA in the public sector organisations in Pakistan, there is a need for an improved alignment of the PA system with other HRM practices, better consideration of the participation of employees in the PA system, and enhancement of the PA system with an understanding of the relationship it has with its social context, such as appraiser's motivation (Saba & Nsubuga-Kyobe, 2014).

On the other hand, the ACR system was also used in the past as the PA practice by the private sector organisations in Pakistan. For example, Khan's (2016) research showed that it was a popular practice until 2001 in the energy sector, as it was implemented by one of the public limited companies before being replaced by another PA system to comply with the new vision of the company. Presently, PA system (or PA) is considered as one of the important features of the human resource management (HRM), particularly performance management system (PMS) in the private sector organisations in Pakistan. For example, Ilyas et al. (2016) pointed out the positive influence of HRM practices, such as compensation, PA and promotion, on the performance of the employees of a private telecommunication organisation in Pakistan.

The highest contribution to the gross domestic product (GDP) in the economy of Pakistan comes from the tertiary sector (or the services sector) within which the private services sector's contribution is quite considerable. This includes all the Departments, such as health, education, transportation, telecommunication, banking sector, other financial services, etc. In addition, the private services sector faces enormous competition, both national and international. For example, there are a number of multinational companies (MNCs) operating within this sector and home companies operating internationally. Moreover, in view of the competition, the indigenous private sector organisations have begun to realise the importance of modern and Western-oriented HRM practices (Jamil, 2005) of MNCs. Similarly, despite providing a challenging competition, those MNCs are the major source of providing the best HRM practices to the local companies for their benchmarking. Therefore, eventhough the success stories of HRM practices of MNCs present role models for both the government and private sector organisations (Mangi et al., 2012), the PMS and the PA systems of MNCs have widely been benchmarked by the local private organisations in Pakistan, as compared to the government sector organisations, because of the fierce competition within the private sector.

Accordingly, there are a number of banks in Pakistan, particularly the private commercial banks, which utilise performance management systems (PMSs) for improving the performance of their employees in order to meet the predetermined targets in the changeable business environment, and the serious business rivalry and competition (Khan et al., 2017). While the PA process is considered to be an integral part of their PMSs. A common PA practice, used by the banks in Pakistan, under their PMSs, is PA forms. This makes the PA forms the primary method used for the PA in the banks. On the other hand, appraisal interviews (AIs) (or the feedback interviews of PA) are considered as a secondary practice, which is only exercised in case of a disagreement by the appraisee with his or her final appraisal grades after the overall distribution of the grades is completed. Therefore, such interviews seldom result in the improvement of the appraisee's grade. (e.g., in other words, the practice is not common but only exercised on the need basis with no practical effect on the grades). This may be considered as one of the reasons for the high employee turnover rate in the banking sector in Pakistan. As mentioned in chapter 1, the two selected banks in the current research also use the PA forms as their primary method for PA. The detail of the PA forms used by the two selected banks is further discussed in chapter 5 (research methodology).

3.9. Linking Performance Appraisal (PA) to Rhetoric

Under this heading, a considerable number of matters are discussed which link PA to rhetoric and justify that PA is worthy of rhetorical attention. The situation of the current study is also discussed extensively, in order to substantiate the grounds for the study.

3.9.1. Performance Appraisal (PA) as a Rhetorical Situation

In view of the previous discussion, it is quite apparent that there is a significant potential for controversy associated with PA. For example, one may argue that the involvement of many different parties in the PA process (particularly the appraisees and appraisers) and the relationship of these parties to each other are the major causes of the potential for controversy associated with it, while others may come up with different reasons. However, no matter what the reasons are, the potential for controversy associated with PA justifies the conduction of rhetorical analysis (RA) of the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks. This is because the link between rhetoric and controversy traces its roots back to antiquity. While in the recent years, Miller (2005) argued that it makes sense to use controversy as a conduit for argumentation and rhetorical studies because it provides occasions and strategies for rhetoric.

Accordingly, one may say that it is due to the potential for controversy associated with PA which has led a number of researchers, such as Rothschild & Virginia (1989), to recognise the importance of understanding PA as a rhetorical situation. Therefore, such researchers regard the parties involved in the PA process as rhetorical beings. This means that the appraisees and appraisers can be regarded as rhetorical beings whether they are the part of an everyday (mundane) environment of an organisation, a naturally occurring environment of appraisal interviews (AIs), or of a separate setting (within or outside their organisation) where they are interviewed regarding the PA process practised in their organisation.

Similarly, Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986) argued that PA is a rhetorical situation which is marked by the natural presence of reasoned drama. Bitzer (1968:1) asserted that "When I ask, What is a rhetorical situation? I want to know the nature of these contexts in which speakers or writers create rhetorical discourse: How should they be described? What are their characteristics? Why and how do they result in the creation of rhetoric?'' However,

the current study does not agree with what Bitzer (1968: 4) argued about rhetoric that it is ‘‘always persuasive’’ as ‘‘a mode of altering reality, not by the direct application of energy to objects, but by the creation of discourse which changes reality through the mediation of thought and action’’ of the audience.’’ More specifically, it is does not agree with the idea of rhetoric as altering reality. This is because the current study takes what appraisees and appraisers construct as a reality of their PA as the reality itself. Therefore, when we say that PA is a rhetorical situation, it means that ‘‘a rhetorical discourse comes into existence as a response to situation ’’ (Bitzer, 1968: 5) they have had experienced. This is because ‘‘While the existence of a rhetorical address is a reliable sign of the existence of situation, it does not follow that a situation exists only when the discourse’’ existed in the natural setting of the PA (Bitzer, 1968). Accordingly, when the appraisees and appraisers construct the reality of their PA in the interviews, they may be considered as recalling from ‘‘a specific time’’ of their PAs’ experience, and so maybe considered as thinking and talking in the same way as they would have thought or talked during the time when their PAs were conducted (Bitzer, 1968: 2). The idea of rhetorical situation and interviews is further being discussed at the end of the chapter to create a relevance between rhetorical situations and interviews.

Similarly, the concept of exigency is very important to rhetorical studies as it is considered as an important situation, problem, or an issue which encourages the need for rhetoric. For example, for the interviewer, the organisational representative and natural superior in an AIs’ situation, the primary communicative or rhetorical exigency is to convince the subordinate to accept their judgements concerning the quality, quantity, and ultimate value of his or her work (Goodall, Jr., et al., 1986). The secondary exigency is to provide a dialogueic opportunity through which both sides can negotiate future goals, as well as the means and ways of achieving them (Goodall, Jr., et al., 1986).

In the case of the current study, the potential for controversy associated with PA creates an exigency for the RA. For example, due to the potential for controversy associated with PA, appraisees and appraisers, the two important parties of PA, are frequently considered to have potentially different interests and views regarding PA. Therefore, the exigency to focus on the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk is created. This is created to know how they construct the reality of their PA with the use of argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. Following the view of rhetoric as persuasion, to focus on the persuasive dimensions of rhetoric is understandable.

But, what about the focus on the argumentative dimensions? This follows the dialogueic approach to rhetoric, and not merely the dialogueic approach. Therefore, unlike Goodall, Jr. et al. (1986), it, together with the focus on the persuasive dimensions, is a primary exigency. A whole rhetorical framework, which focuses on the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers, is being used for the conduction of the RA. The framework is discussed in the next chapter and it mainly focuses on the three main research questions for the RA (The questions have been outlined in the introduction chapter and in the framework chapter).

3.9.2. Important Studies on Performance Appraisal (PA) with Rhetorical Suggestions

Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986) proposed a framework for PA processes that includes consideration of antecedent and consequent cultural, organisational, and individual information. Their framework takes inspiration from the motives which were identified by Kenneth Burke's (1969) ideas, which are considered as fundamental to hierarchal communication, such as mystery, order and the kill (Goodall, Jr., et al., 1986). Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986) used the narratives from the participants of three AIs, which were captured by interviewing them, so that they could relate to their experiences. The three AIs were then critiqued based on this narratives' data obtained and the directions for future interpretive studies are recommended (Goodall, Jr., et al., 1986). Accordingly, rhetorical analysis (RA) can be considered as one such study, particularly in the consideration of K. Burke's (1969) views on rhetoric according to which a rhetorical situation is inherently marked by the presence of reasoned drama. The views are discussed later in the chapter, particularly in their relevance to observed behaviours of PA and interviews regarding PA. Therefore, the study of Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986) contributes to the notion of conducting a RA of PA and so justifies the rhetorical attention to PA.

In attaching such importance to AIs, Fisher (1994) designed and implemented appraisal schemes with the support of his colleagues in five organisations within a period of 3 years. In doing so, Fisher (1994) made a case in two articles that the variations between different appraisals' schemes of organisations can be related to, among others things, the different arguments about the appraisal and its objectives that take place in those organisations.

In his first article, Fisher (1994) focussed on arrangement of the differences between appraisals' schemes. The variations appeared to be quite substantial and they raised the question regarding the appropriateness of different schemes to different organisational

situations (Fisher, 1994). The second article examined how these differences can be interpreted (Fisher, 1994). Therefore, the variations in schemes were interpreted as being related to the different anxieties and aspirations experienced by managers (e.g., who may see at least some, if not much, organisational purpose in having PA) and staff (who are subject to PA) in different organisations (C.M. Fisher, 1994; 1995). In other words, the focus was on the appraisal discourses of two groups, management and staff (or appraisees and appraisers), while the two group categories were not mutually exclusive as certain individuals may have belonged to both groups (C.M. Fisher, 1995).

Therefore, C.M. Fisher (1995) identified six particular rhetorical themes in the attitudes of staff and six in the attitudes of managers which made their appraisal discourses. While the themes were centred on the rhetorical and argumentative process, and this had been so in the view that people use rhetorical and argumentative processes in order to interpret and make sense of organisational changes and development (Billig, 1991). Hence, the conclusion of C.M. Fisher's (1994; 1995) studies is that when the designers of the appraisals' schemes construct the schemes, they should be able to draw a connection between the schemes they construct and the debates or arguments which are made by the two groups (managers and staff) regarding appraisal.

The two studies of C.M. Fisher (1994; 1995) are somewhat close to the current study, though have different objectives and frameworks. For example, in the current research, the focus is on the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of the interviews' talk of the two important parties of PA, appraisees and appraisers, regarding the PA practiced in their banks. Therefore, the current study is based on the RA with the objective of analysing that how these two important parties construct the reality of their PA. And for this matter, an empirical rhetorical framework has been employed. One may say that such RA may also be helpful in recommending the construction of an appropriate PA's scheme based on the arguments of the two parties, but this is not the objective of the current research. Nevertheless, the use of the rhetorical and argumentative process in C.M. Fisher's (1994; 1995) studies not only justifies that PA is worthy of rhetorical attention, but also it provides a good defence to the current study.

Gordon & Stewart (2009) conceptualized the AIs as a conversation about performance and identified the discursive resources available to the organisation, the appraisees and the appraisers which have the potential to make the conversation about performance more

efficient and effective, particularly with regard to improving the preparation for and conduct of a conversation about performance. Identification of the discursive resources was derived from an extensive review of the communication literature (Gordon & Stewart, 2009). For example, Watson (1995a) referred to discursive resources as the strategic agencies that organisations or actors draw on to formulate dialectical tactics and systems that promote their conversational purposes. Therefore, in considering rhetoric as an important aspect of communication and communication as an important aspect of PA, the rhetorical attention to PA is justified. Moreover, with specific reference to the current study, the focus on argumentative dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers also implies a focus on the use of dialectical tactics by appraisees and appraisers. However, the focus is on those dialectical tactics used by appraisees and appraisers which have the ultimate commitment to persuasion. How this is done is discussed in the next chapter (Rhetorical framework).

3.9.3. Performance Appraisal (PA): An Important Feature of Employment Relations

PA has earned both popularity and criticism as an important feature of employment relations (Deming, 1986; Bowman, 1994; Joiner, 1994). Hamilton (2001) argued that employment relations practice is worthy of the attention from the discipline of rhetoric. This is because of the presence of the potential for controversy in the practice of employment relations. Hence, one may argue that if the practice of employment relations is potentially controversial then those practices which manage it, such as PA, are potentially controversial as well. Hence, such practices should be worthy of the rhetorical attention. Roberts (2003) argued that PA is one of the most complex and potentially controversial human resource (HR) practices. While according to Tjosvold (1985), the future may likely be seeing more potential for organisational controversy relating to PA. Therefore, in the consideration of PA as an important feature of employment relations, and the inherent potential for controversy associated with PA (as substantiated from all the previous discussion), rhetorical analysis (RA) of the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks is firmly justified in the current study.

3.9.4 Performance Appraisal (PA) as a Communication Process and its Importance

According to Hernández-Campoy (2016: 13), "Every use of language - written or spoken - is a rhetorical act, because all communication is inherently rhetorical and intentional: there is a message to transit or a specific goal to achieve". Gordon & Stewart (2009) asserted that the PA process is an institutional interaction that should be designed to facilitate communication. This is not only because it is generally considered as a process for discovering and sharing information about employees' performance (Gordon & Stewart, 2009), but also because organisational innovativeness is based on effective internal communication, particularly the assessment of performance (Kivimäki et al., 2000).

Similarly, according to Gordon & Stewart (2009), many commonly acclaimed PA mechanisms turn out to be procedures that assist interpersonal communication. On the other hand, many of the problems associated with traditional PA also originate from procedures that interfere with effective communication (Gordon & Stewart, 2009). Hence, communication has a significant impact on the successful implementation of the PA system (Drewes & Runde, 2002).

However, Gordon & Stewart (2009) argued that there is a limited recognition of the PA from a communicative perspective in the HRM community and so there is little written about it. Similarly, Foster (2002) even argued that PA was generally not considered as an important aspect of Business Communication syllabuses. Given the issues, concerns, criticisms and potential for controversy associated with PA, as previously discussed in this chapter, its neglect by communication scholars is surprising (Gordon & Stewart, 2009). Particularly, according to Gordon & Stewart (2009), it appears to be surprising when considering the developments in the following three fields:

1. The increasing interest of the conversation analytic (CA) studies in the other forms of institutional interaction which usually involves professionals interacting with their clients (Peräkylä & Vehviläinen, 2003);

2. The emerging field of organisational discourse (OD) (Marshak et al., 2000);

3. The growing importance of rhetorical analysis (RA) in the field of business and management (Gordon & Stewart, 2009).

Moreover, Gordon & Stewart (2009) highlighted the following three reasons for not neglecting the PA's communication perspective:

1. Communication about the performance of employees is still a very important aspect of PA regardless of the continuing evolution in its terminology and scope;

2. A focus on communication offers an outlook on a number of aspects of PA (e.g., how performance information is provided and perceived, the definitional features of performance information, the interactional context that influences the meaning of feedback, and so forth);

3. The focus on communication has been validated to improve other HRM procedures. For example, Papa (1989) found that a communication based assessment centre had a significant validity to identify those managerial employees who subsequently received high ratings on their interpersonal productivity and problem solving skills.

However, as previously discussed, the communication perspective of PA is neglected. No wonder we come across very limited rhetorical analysis or rhetorical studies conducted on PA. This is quite concerning for those researchers who see rhetoric as a persuasive communication or an important field of communication. And so, this initiates the 4th reason:

4. Focus on the communication perspective of PA has a potential to encourage the conduction of rhetorical analysis (RA) in the field of PA research.

3.9.5 Appraisal Interviews (AIs) as a Communication Act and the Issue of Context

Appraisers are extremely uncomfortable when they have to inform employees about the quality of their work (Jackman & Strober, 2003), and so the stage of the feedback interviews of PA or appraisal interviews (AIs) remains the most contentious facet of the PA process (Gordon & Stewart, 2009). However, limited communication research has been devoted to the communication perspective of AIs as well, even though the communication process is recognised as a useful conceptual basis for promoting intentional change (Ford

& Ford, 1995) and examining the effects of feedback (Ilgen et al., 1979). Hence, there is a need to conceptualize AIs as a communication act.

Conceptualizing AIs as a communication act suggests that attention should be paid to the matters that occur before the AIs take place, and remain unexplored in the course of such interviews, yet affect the outcomes of the appraisal process (Gordon & Stewart, 2009). Accordingly, Gordon & Stewart (2009) highlighted the pre-interviews phase as an important part of the overall context of the PA process. This demonstrates that context is fundamental to most conceptualizations of communication (Hargie, 2006). Pridham (2001) noted that talk exists within a social context which not only determines its purpose, but also shapes its features and structure. Therefore, one must be aware of the situation in which the interactive talk occurs (Gordon & Stewart, 2009). However, according to Gordon & Stewart (2009), much of the existing literature on AIs has ignored the context of the talk but focused on the face-to-face interaction.

Similarly, Levy & Williams (2004: 883) asserted that "identifying, measuring, and defining the organisational context in which appraisal takes place is integral to truly understanding and developing effective performance appraisals." Applied psychologists have drawn attention to the social setting of performance evaluations (Fletcher, 2002). Similarly, Murphy & Cleveland (1995) explored the manner in which appraisers' judgements, the assessment process, and the eventual purposes served by the evaluations create an organisational context that can influence performance ratings.

Moreover, R. J. Burke & Wilcox (1969) argued that the climate for growth during the AIs is linked to the degree of openness of appraisees and appraisers in their day-to-day communication. This demonstrates that the context of the AIs' talk, between appraises and appraisers, is a part of the overall context of PA process that is based on their day-to-day interaction with each other and with the other aspects of the overall context of the PA process. Gordon & Stewart (2009) pointed out a number of broad contextual factors that potentially can influence the AIs, such as organisation culture, workforce composition, legal climate, organisation policies regarding feedback, accountability of appraiser, and appraisal system features.

Likewise, in the research on the PA climate, the concept of climate is largely limited to the situation of actual appraisal interviews (AIs), though it should include cultural and

relational information developed over a period of time (Goodall, Jr., et al., 1986). Therefore, it is important for researchers to consider both pre and post AIs' matters, rather than the mere AIs, in their studies regarding PA. Doing so is particularly important in those organisations where the AIs' role is limited to merely providing feedback to employees on their performance ratings or assessments while other methods are used for their actual assessments. This exactly depicts the situation of the current study, as PA forms are primarily used by both of the selected banks for the assessment of the performance of their employees while the AIs or the feedback interviews of PA are rather considered as secondary.

Now the question is how can the data or information regarding the pre and post AIs be gathered for the research matter? Certainly, the researchers' observation of AIs or the feedback interviews of PA can provide him or her with the information related to the actual situation of such interviews. But, what about the other pre and post AIs' aspects that are the part of the overall context of PA process or PMS? More importantly, what if AIs are considered as nothing but a secondary method while a different method is used for the assessment of employees, such as PA forms, as a primary method? In both cases, one may have to look for other useful and practical methods of data collection. For example, in the case of the current study, semi-structured interviews with the appraisees and appraisers of the two selected banks have been used for the purpose of data collection regarding the PA practiced in their banks.

3.9.6. The Presence of Mystery in Performance Appraisals (PAs) Setting

According to Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986), virtually every authority on the subject, from university researchers to organisational employees, considers PA as the primary context for supervisors and employees to work together to achieve superior performance. With specific reference to AIs, Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986) argued that the fear of what such interviews might yield interferes with communication between appraisees and appraisers and keeps the review process from achieving its full potential. Goodall, Jr. et al. (1986) believed that this fear results from the inherent nature of the very process of PA and what K. Burke (1969: 114) identified as the ''mystery'' that surrounds hierarchical communication. According to K. Burke (1969: 115), "the conditions for ''mystery'' are set by any pronounced social distinction." For example, K. Burke (1969: 115) observed that the conditions for ''mystery'' exist in situations where there is communication between different kinds of people, such as ''between nobility and commoners, courtier and king,

leader and people, rich and poor, judge and prisoner at the bar, ‘‘superior race’’ and underprivileged ‘‘races’’ or minorities.’’ Therefore, “even the story of relations between the petty clerk and the office manager, however realistically told, draws upon the wells of mystery for its appeal, since the social distinction between clerk and the office manager makes them subtly mysterious to each other, not merely two different people, but representing two classes (or ‘‘kinds’’) of people” (K. Burke, 1969: 115). According to Heath (1986: 221), it is due to the estrangements produced by these distinctions that creates the “mystery” which “can become ritualized”.

Therefore, in the same way as K. Burke (1969), Heath (1986: 220) maintained that “individuals have different experiences, some of which are produced by their places within a hierarchy. Their view of the world is unique because of what their roles in the hierarchy demand of them and deliver to them.’’ In order to make his point more clear, Heath (1986) further argued that words have different meanings because people have different experiences; for example, the word woman means something different to males than to females because their sociological and biological experiences are different. Similarly, ‘‘work means something different for the labourer than for the boss’’ (Heath, 1986: 221).

Hence, with regard to the points made by K. Burke (1969) and Heath (1986) regarding the issue of mystery, the PA process can be considered as a different experience for the appraisees from that of their appraisers. For example, according to Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986), the existence of mystery between classes of people highlights an essential aspect of the AIs: namely, that, by definition, a superior will be communicating with an inferior in the organisation. However, Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986) noted that the terms, superior and inferior, not only suggest the respective positions held by the individuals in the organisational hierarchy, but also they connote other associated values, such as differences in age and/or seniority, educational and/or professional achievements, work’s knowledge, and so forth. Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986) further noted that most organisational scholars and employees admit to the presence of these differences in the PA process (Goodall, Jr., et al., 1986).

However, according to Goodall, Jr., et al., (1986), limited consideration is given to how such differences, and the resultant mystery, affect communication between supervisors and their subordinates in AIs. The idea of the presence of mystery in the appraisal setting, draws our attention to the possibility of the existence of antagonistic relationship between

appraisees and appraisers. This calls for a need to identify the antagonistic characteristics of their arguments in order to determine this relationship. Similarly, the matter that how appraisees and appraisers construct their arguments as persuasive arguments in the context of this relationship and other aspects of the PA process forms an appealing case for the consideration of research. These two areas are also the two important areas in the current study as they form its two main research questions out of three. However, a particular rhetorical framework lies behind answering them which focuses on the argumentative and persuasive dimensions in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks. The analytical framework is discussed in the next chapter. Accordingly, in discussing the presence of mystery in the PA setting, not only is the rhetorical attention to the PA in general justified, but also it is justified with respect to the current study. Moreover, the presence of mystery in the PA setting stimulates the potential for controversy in it and so attracts attention to the rhetorical aspects.

3.9.7. Observed Behaviours of Performance Appraisal (PA) versus Interviews Regarding PA and Rhetorical analysis (RA)

According to Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986), there is a need to reorganise the condition of mystery in the PA setting from an interpretative critical method. This method can be a rhetorical analysis (RA), as Brock et al. (1990: 180) asserted that ‘‘rhetorical discourse persuades by serving as an interpretative lens for the audience.’’ However, researchers have largely chosen to focus their attention on the observed behaviours in appraisal interviews (AIs) rather than the antecedent and consequent meanings attributed to the AIs’ situation by its participants (Goodall, Jr., et al., 1986). Nevertheless, the latter is a substantial matter as it takes us back to the consideration of the overall context of the PA as discussed earlier (e.g., in terms of considering the pre- and post- AIs’ factors as important for the research studies). Accordingly, interviews regarding their PA process with participants (e.g., appraisees and appraisers) can be a useful method of collecting the data for the RA in order to understand how they attribute the antecedent and consequent meanings to the PA situations in a persuasive manner. In other words, how the participants of the PA process construct the persuasive reality of it.

Similarly, Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986) argued that researchers are fond of categorizing the types of overt behaviours (e.g., handshakes, head nods, verbal slips, pauses, hand gestures, facial expressions, body movements, and so on) without developing an appreciation for

either the ontological messages that they may reveal or for the historical content of the relationship between the superiors and their subordinates. Again, interviews (e.g., semi-structured interviews) can be regarded as a practical method to unveil the historical features of the relationship between the two parties, appraisees and appraisers. This demonstrates that the research based on the observation of the naturally occurring environment of AIs may not be providing the full picture or actual meaning and may therefore be misleading. Therefore, what happens prior and subsequent to AIs is also an important matter to be recognised in order to get a clear picture of the whole PA process. And, as previously mentioned, semi-structured interviews with the appraisees and appraisers can serve this purpose. These interviews' transcripts then can be rhetorically analysed for different purposes; for example, in the case of the current study, they are rhetorically analysed to determine how the appraisees and appraisers construct the reality of their PA with the use of argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk.

The interviews with appraisees and appraisers, as a method of data collection, can be a useful method in such studies because in observing such behaviours during the naturally occurring environment of the PA, researchers may experience pressure from the constant thoughts that it is, after all, the organisation's controlled environment that may affect the validity of their obtained data. For example, due to the surveillance and controlled environment of the organisation, when the appraisees and appraisers are observed by the researchers, they may not be talking, acting or behaving in the similar manner to when they are not being observed by the researchers. Therefore, interviews with appraisees and appraisers regarding their PA may provide them with a good opportunity to open up as they may not fear the surveillance or control of their organisation. These interviews then can be interpreted or analysed through a rhetorical lens.

Accordingly, Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986) argued that the focus of researchers on the overt behaviours as essentially meaningful to the AIs possibly misses the point of the communication. Therefore, Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986) believed that the studies of AIs should be based on longitudinal observations and analysis of performance, behaviours, characters, and cultural fit, but not merely on the observations of the behaviours exhibited during such framed AIs' situations. However, the interviews with the appraisees and appraisers can still be regarded as a more useful method. This is because one may argue that even the longitudinal observations may affect the validity of the information gathered

as such observations would still, after all, be gathered in the organisation's controlled setting. Also, the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding their PA in the interviews may cover more a relatively whole, reasoned drama or PA, than merely the AIs. This point has already been extensively discussed with reference to the pre and post AIs' contexts. However, the focus of the current study is not what this reasoned drama is (e.g., what appraisees and appraisers talk about their PA), but how it is constructed (e.g., what are the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisrs). Nevertheless, in view of the preceding discussion, the use of interviews, as a method of the data gathering, can serve the purpose in both cases.

3.9.8. Performance Appraisal (PA) as a Rhetorical Situation and Interviews with Appraisees and Appraisers

The discussion under the previous heading demonstrates that if the focus of researchers is transferred from observed behaviours to interviews regarding the PA process then it essentially validates the rhetorical attention to PA. Under this heading, emphasis is placed on how PA is a rhetorical situation in the event of the interviews with appraisees and appraisers regarding their PA. According to Goodall, Jr., et al. (1986), both parties in the appraisal interviews (AIs), appraisees and appraisers, are actively engaged in constructing a reasoned drama, and when these parties are interviewed regarding their AIs or the reasoned drama, each participant provides his or her own narrative of the encounter. For example, when the appraisees and appraisers are interviewed about their reasoned drama or PA, the result can be considered as an enacting or retelling of the reasoned drama or PA they experienced and that can itself be considered as the reasoned drama of what they experienced.

In a situation of individual interviews with the respective parties, appraisees and appraisers, even though the other party will not be present, the interviewee may still be considering their presence in his or her mind and so he or she may possibly be countering the alternative potential arguments of the other party in his or her argument. This view is explained in detail in the next chapter (Rhetorical framework). Hence, the interviews' accounts of appraisees and appraisers regarding their PA can be seen as creating the rhetorical situation of the reasoned drama, and so provide useful data for the rhetorical analysis. For example, a focus on the interviews' accounts of appraisees and appraisers regarding their PA creates the exigency to know how the participants construct the reality

of their PA with the use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk (as in the case of the current study).

Before moving to the next chapter (Rhetorical framework), it is important to highlight that in the previous discussion, the word ‘drama’ attached to the word ‘reason’ should not be taken as intending to convey a negative view of rhetoric in the current study. The rhetorical framework of the study falls within the positive boundaries of rhetoric where the ultimate goal of rhetoric is regarded as achieving persuasion, but not by alteration, deceiving or faking the reasoned drama. It is considered to be achieved through the argumentative and persuasive dimensions or tactics of rhetoric in the statements. And these are the dimensions which are sought and analysed in the talk of appraisees and appraisers (e.g., to know how they construct the reality of their PA), in the current study, by following the rhetorical framework which is discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 4−Rhetorical Framework

4.1. An Overview of the Rhetorical Framework

This chapter discusses the rhetorical framework of the current study which is based on the combination of views from the classical and contemporary rhetorical traditions. Particularly, it emanates from the views of Aristotle (1991), Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996). Therefore, the rhetorical framework concentrates on both the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric. And in doing so, it establishes the basis for the analysis in the current study. For example, it aids in answering the three main research questions. Hence, this rhetorical framework is essentially the analytical framework used in the current research.

This can further be explained with the reference to the appraisees and appraisers in the current study. For example, the current rhetorical framework is applied to their talk regarding the performance appraisal (PA) process which is practiced in their banks. In this regard, the aim of the rhetorical framework is to provide the foundations for the rhetorical analysis of the talk of appraisees and appraisers in order to answer the three main research questions. Therefore, the rhetorical framework will help in determining how the appraisees and appraisers are rhetorical beings in a sense that how they construct the reality of their PA with the use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk.

4.2. Introduction to the Rhetorical Framework

Rhetoric has been viewed differently by the management scholars and employed in combination with theoretical frameworks (Shepherd & Challenger, 2013). Similarly, the process of conducting a rhetorical analysis is clearly different for every researcher (Shepherd & Challenger, 2013). As previously stated, the rhetorical framework of this research stems from the work of Aristotle (1991) in combination with the work of such contemporary writers as Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996). Therefore, the heart of the rhetorical analysis is persuasive (Nelson et al., 1987) and argumentative dimensions of rhetoric in the current study.

Accordingly, the present research does not view rhetoric with the negative meaning. Instead it is used in the classical sense. For example, in the classical sense, rhetoric focuses upon the notion of the efficient processing of the arguments (Humphrey & Scapens, 1996). Therefore, it is considered as the use of persuasive argument in order to produce practical impacts which affect the actions (Humphrey & Scapens, 1996). Nichols (1987) argued that not only Aristotle's account of classical rhetoric answers the ancient criticism of rhetoric, particularly Plato's, but it also establishes a defence against the modern critics of rhetoric. Of course the five canons of classical rhetoric play an imperative role in this regard. They are inventio (invention), dispositio (arrangement), elocutio (style), memoria (memory), and pronuntiatio (delivery) (Lanham, 1969; Dixon, 1971; Vickers, 1988; Corbett, 1990). Welch (1987) argued that the five canons of classical rhetoric form a comprehensive system for generating and analysing the discourses.

In relation to these five cannons, the rhetorical framework of the current study falls under the cannons of inventio and elocutio as the focus is on both the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric. For example, with the focus on inventio the study "addresses the technical arguments employed by the" appraisees and appraisers while with the focus on elocution, it addresses "the stylistic aspects of" their talk (Hamilton, 1997: 229). Therefore, the study appreciates Aristotle's (1991) notion that rhetoric is not merely about persuading someone, but it is about finding the available means of persuasion, and so this calls attention to both the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric.

Having discussed the rhetorical framework of the current study broadly, now I will specifically focus on the work of all the three individuals, Aristotle (1991), Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996), one by one, in order to create an understanding that how their ideas establish the rhetorical framework of the current research. Therefore, the ideas of these scholars (which are discussed under the headings namely 'Focus on Michael Billig,' 'Focus on Jonathan Potter' and 'Focus on Aristotle') not only build the rhetorical framework of the current study, but also provide the way to answer the three main research questions of this study. The three research questions are revisited at the end of this chapter.

4.3. Focus on Michael Billig

A number of issues and ideas based on the work of Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) have been considered to analyse the technical arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks. They have been considered in a sense that they

also establish the base for considering Potter's (1996) notions. Particularly, his notions regarding the antagonistic characteristics in the technical arguments. Therefore, the work of both Billig and Potter which is discussed in this rhetorical framework will help in answering the research question 1 (see the research question 1 at the end of the chapter).

Expanding on the concept of classical rhetoric, where rhetoric is particularly considered as a form of discourse that aims to persuade an audience of a particular construction of reality (Shepherd & Challenger, 2013), Billig (1987: 91) emphasised upon the ''argumentative context''. It implies that people will justify their stances and criticise the competing ones (Tileaga, 2013). Therefore, argumentative context is the possible counter-positions against which a person argues (Symon, 2000). Billig (1996) further emphasised upon the consideration of the argumentative context for the process of argumentation; for example, according to him, the ability to establish counter-opinions is dependent upon a reservoir of arguments (Kramer, 2007). One's common sense plays a very important role in this regard as it "provides members of a community with a variety of arguments that can be used in different situations" (Kramer, 2007: 99). For example, according to Billig (1996), common sense is not a neatly structured part of knowledge; however, it has the contrary wisdom in it (Kramer, 2007).

Similarly, Billig (1987) insisted that rhetoric should not be merely restricted to obviously argumentative or explicitly persuasive communication (Potter, 1996). For example, according to Billig (1991: 17), "it is an assumption of rhetorical theorists that argumentation is not confined to those dramatic situations when tempers are lost and doors are slammed". Contradicting with this assumption, Billig (1987) argued that rhetoric and argumentation both are spread throughout social life (Billig, 1987); therefore, rhetoric according to Billig should be regarded as a pervasive element of the way people interact with each other and arrive at understanding (Potter, 1996).

In this regard, Billig (1987) suggested that the social psychological notion of attitudes should necessarily be rethought in rhetorical terms (Potter, 1996). This is because attitudes have conventionally been regarded "as individuals' isolated cognitive evaluations of parts of the world" (Potter, 1996: 106). Billig (1987) argued that individuals' attitudes should be seen as their public positions that are inseparable from the matters of controversy (e.g., conflicts and disputes) (Potter, 1996). The idea is that because attitudes are positions on the matters of controversy so we can expect attitude holders not

only to justify their positions but also to criticise the counter-positions (Billig, 1991). This is because when people give descriptions regarding something or say what their attitude is, they are positioning themselves on an issue where they know there is debate and difference (Billig, 1987; 1991). In this way, a description takes its rhetorical meaning from its counter-description (Billig, 1987; 1991).

These descriptions may not be explicitly stated but implied (Hall et al., 2006). Hence, the speakers have to be prepared to both justify their own position and counter the potential alternative positions (Symon, 2000). Accordingly, Billig, (1987: 91) argued: "Therefore, to understand the meaning of a sentence or whole discourse in an argumentative context, one should not examine merely the words within the discourse or the images in the speakers' mind at the moment of utterance. One should also consider the positions which are criticised or against which a justification is being mounted. Without knowing these counter-positions, the argumentative meaning will be lost." Similarly, Dillon (1991) maintained that arguments counter actually or potentially, a variety of opposing alternative arguments.

In addition, Billig (1991) argued that psychologists have overlooked the rhetorical and argumentative dimensions of thinking. According to Billig (1991:17), "Human thinking is not merely a matter of processing information or following cognitive rules. Thinking is to be observed in action, in discussion, in the rhetorical cut-and-thrust of argumentation. To deliberate upon an issue is to argue with oneself, even to persuade oneself.'' Similarly, Watson (1994) argued that thinking and speaking means engaging with counter-thoughts and counter-arguments. Watson (1994: 23) seems to advocate Billig's (1987; 1991) views when he stated: "It is not just a matter of face to face-to-face dialogueue, thought: our very process of thinking and decision-making involves us in a dialogueue in our minds with the arguments of human others". Watson (1994) further stated that these arguments can be the cultural norms or the remembered arguments of particular people. This exactly depicts the case of the current research as when the appraisees and appraisers were interviewed, they were interviewed on one-to-one basis. In other words, the two parties were not face-to-face present when their arguments were recorded during the course of the semi-structured interviews with them.

The previous discussion under "Focus on *Michael Billig"* suggests the idea of systematic constructionism which proposes that the arguments are always oriented to counter-

arguments. For example, it treats all discourses as concerned with either fact construction (reifying discourses) or fact destruction (ironizing discourses) (Shepherd & Challenger, 2013). It is Potter (1996) who introduced these terms, ironizing and reifying discourses and it is here we see the consensus of the views of Billig and Potter. Reifying discourses seek to convince that the descriptions are factual, by turning concepts (such as paradigms) into something which is treated as a representation of reality in the literal meaning, independent of the speaker or writer (Shepherd & Challenger, 2013). Conversely, ironizing discourses seek to undermine such facts as being motivated, distorted or erroneous (Potter, 1996).

Along these lines, Potter (1996) focused our attention on the justification process, where speakers justify their accounts to be taken as facts (or truth). Similarly, Symon (2000) argued that speakers use both offensive and defensive rhetoric in order to make their talk believable. Thus, on one hand, an argument works as offensive rhetoric in terms of undermining an alternative argument (for example, it may be constructed specifically to damage an alternative argument) while on the other, it may provide defensive rhetoric depending on its capacity to resist the undermining (Potter, 1996). The ideas regarding offensive and defensive rhetoric, and ironizing and reifying discourses, are later discussed in detail (under the heading, 'Focus on Jonathan Potter'). However, here an interesting point to discuss is that these ideas appear to be quite similar to Aristotle's (1991) key elements or means with which rhetoricians achieve their ends. For example, deliberative speakers seek for advantage and injury and construct their arguments using exhortation and discussion, judicial speakers rely upon accusation and defence, and epideictic speakers use praise and blame (Kallendorf & Kallendorf, 1985).

Therefore, Symon (2000: 478) proposed a more detailed definition of rhetoric: ''the dynamic and responsive manner in which, in a specific context, our talk present and justify a particular perspective on reality to an audience. Thereby arguing against other (implicit or explicit) perspectives''. According to Symon (2008), in seeking to understand how rhetoric works, one is required to recognise what prompts or shapes the rhetoric. In doing so, there maybe four issues which one needs to consider: the exigency of the rhetoric (or the issue to which the rhetoric is addressed) (Gill & Whedbee, 1997); the general context in which the issue has arisen (Symon, 2008); the counter-arguments which the rhetoric addresses (Billig, 1987; 1991; 1996); and the different audiences for the rhetoric (Symon, 2008). While expanding on the idea of Billig's (1987; 1996) argumentative context, Symon (2008) collectively termed these four issues as the argumentative context.

4.3.1. Argumentative Context and Four Issues

These issues will provide a good platform to discuss some important considerations for the current research. Now I am going to discuss these four issues in detail, with the perspective of the current study, one by one.

First Issue

In the 'First Issue', the exigency or need of the rhetoric (Gill & Whedbee, 1997), rhetoric is usually related with issues of controversy (Billig, 1991) and the analysis of any rhetoric is located within the context of a wider range of ongoing controversial issues upon which individuals have different opinions (Symon, 2008). PA process fits to this 'First Issue' because of the potential for controversy in it as different parties are the part of the process, with potentially different opinions, particularly the appraisees and appraisers. For example, the potential for controversy in PA may bring about a range of arguments and counter-arguments from the side of both the parties, appraisees and appraisers, concerning the nature of the PA system, its implementation, the relationship between the parties involved in it (especially, the relationship between appraisees and appraisers), the competences of the individuals involved in the process (particularly, the competences of the appraiser), etc.

Moreover, according to Symon (2008), the identification of an issue as a controversial issue can itself be a rhetorical move. In the light of Symon's (2008) view, one may argue that identification an issue as a potentially controversial issue should also be regarded as a rhetorical move and so the issue should attract further rhetorical attention. Accordingly, one may argue the same about the PA, and this should call for a further investigation of the issue with the rhetorical lens. This is what the current study is doing. For example, the literature on PA, which is discussed in chapter 3, suggests the potential for controversy in PA. Whether it is suggested by the arguments of appraisees and appraisers in the current study is dependent particularly upon the argumentative strategies they have utilised in their arguments (e.g., offensive and defensive rhetoric / ironizing and reifying). However, it is important to mention that the current study is not mainly concerned in proving that PA is a potentially controversial or controversial practice. Needless to say in case the appraisees and appraisers are using these argumentative strategies (or devices) of rhetoric then it does

in turn suggest the potential for controversy in PA. Hence, this may not only justify the current study but also may further attract the rhetorical studies in the field.

Here it is important to note that Billig (1991), as a social psychologist, thought of the broad social issues, such as racism, republicanism, etc., when he linked rhetoric to controversial issues. However, organisational theorists may be concerned with specific debates between supporters and detractors of organisational processes, strategies or interventions (Symon, 2008). For example, the three prominent studies in this regard are conducted by Symon (2000), Heracleous & Barrett, (2001), and Mueller et al., (2003). Therefore, PA is one such process where one may expect the debate between its supporters and detractors due to the potential for controversy in it.

Second Issue

In case of the 'Second Issue', the general context in which the problem or issue has arisen, rhetoric may be constructed (Symon, 2008) as narratives, broader myths, and cultural accounts (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). For example, in an organisation, rhetoric may gain legitimacy by reflecting important aspects of its culture; therefore, in order to understand the rhetoric and appreciate how it works as a persuasive discourse, one must understand the context of an organisation in which it is produced (Symon, 2008). The issue of context has already been discussed in chapter 3 (Critical literature review on PA), particularly in relation to the use of semi-structured interviews, as a method of data collection, in the current study.

Third Issue

In case of the 'Third Issue', the counter-arguments that the rhetoric addresses (Billig, 1987; 1991; 1996), there is a need to understand that arguments are oriented to counter-arguments, which exhibits the dialogueic nature of rhetoric (Symon, 2008). For example, it is called dialogueic in a sense that "each utterance is responsive both to other utterances and to the rest of our surroundings, and itself provokes further responsivity, every utterance is shaped by other utterances, both actual and anticipated" (Shotter and Billig, 1998: 16). This matter has been previously discussed in the current chapter.

However, with respect to organisational rhetoric (or rhetoric regarding some organisational

phenomenon, such as PA), and the controversial nature of the issue (or the potential for controversy in the issue), an important issue to consider is that the counter-arguments may be publicly articulated and widely known (Symon, 2008). This of course helps the organisational individuals to construct their arguments well as the probable counter-arguments for their arguments are already known to them (e.g., this may fit to the case of the current study as appraisees and appraisers were not physically present in each other's interviews, yet they still may have been each other's audience by constructing their arguments in the consideration of the probable counter-arguments of each other). The notion of rhetoric as being dialogueic suggests that even though the aim of rhetoric may probably be to win the argument (Symon, 2008) or having the last say in the argument (Billig, 1996), there is always the possibility of a counter-argument (Hamilton, 1997; Symon, 2008), and that too is possible even when the audience is not explicitly or physically present at the time of the argument (e.g., as in case of the current study where appraisees and appraisers maybe regarded as one of the main audiences of each other's rhetoric, yet they were not physically present during the course of each other's interviews).

Forth Issue

Finally, the discussion in the 'Third Issue' takes us to the 'Fourth Issue', we must take into consideration the audience to whom the rhetoric is addressed (Symon, 2008). For example, in the context of an organisation, one may wish to distinguish between a variety of different audiences; particularly, the immediate audience, a distant audience, and a latent audience (Symon, 2008).

The first case of the immediate audience is the most usual case as we are concerned with how the rhetoric orients itself to the audience who is explicitly or physically present at the time (Symon, 2008). In case of the current study, I fit to this category of the immediate audience (as there was no other physically present audience at the time of the one-to-one interviews with the appraisees and appraisers). From the perspective of discourse analysis (e.g., of Potter & Wetherell, 1987), this approach suggests recognising that how the rhetoric is shaped by the situation of its production (Symon, 2008). For example, in case of interviews, one is required to recognise that how the rhetoric is driven by the questions asked, shaped to the assumptions of the interests of the interviewer, and responsive to the recognition of a research context (Symon, 2008).

In the case of distant audience, the rhetoric may be directed to people who are not present and even to future audiences (Gill & Whedbee, 1997). Therefore, the appraisees and appraisers who were interviewed for the current study are the audience of each other's rhetoric. This is more understandable when we consider the way they were interviewed. For example, even though the appraisees and appraisers were interviewed on one-to-one basis in the current study, but still these interviews were conducted keeping in view their relation to each other. In other words, they were organised in dyads for the interviews. Similarly, this dyads relationship has also been taken care of in conducting the analysis of the study.

The consideration of dyads worked in a particular fashion. For example, there are seven dyads which are considered for the current study and in each dyad there is one appraiser and a number of appraisees appraised by him or her. Therefore, the seven dyads which are considered for the study are represented by the seven appraisers. Hence, in each dyad, the appraisers were interviewed first and then their respective appraisees were approached for the interviews. In addition, the next dyad or appraiser was not approached till all the interviews with the appraisees of the previous dyad were completed. This clearly represents them as the audience of each other (e.g., especially when we expect them building their accounts to criticise the potential alternative accounts and protecting their accounts from the potential alternative criticism). The dyads are also explained in detail in chapter 5 (Research methodology). Similarly, the appraisees and appraisers who were not interviewed in the two banks, under the current study, may also be regarded as the part of the audience of the appraisees and appraisers who were interviewed.

Moreover, as previously pointed out by Symon (2008) that the counter-arguments may be publicly articulated and widely known, so the counter-arguments by the appraisees and appraisers who were interviewed in the two banks may not merely be considered as their response to the arguments or counter-arguments of the other appraisees and appraisers who were interviewed. Similarly, the counter-arguments of the appraisees and appraisers who were interviewed may not merely be considered as their response to the arguments or counter-arguments of those who were not interviewed in the two banks. But this may involve a broader audience for the appraisees and appraisers who were interviewed. This audience may include anyone to whom the appraisees and appraisers were expecting to reach though their responses of interviews (e.g., the management of their banks). This may also include the people whom the appraisees and appraisers were expecting that they

would read the current study in future. Hence, this audience may potentially include, in general, the appraisees and appraisers from different organisations, the management of the organisations where PA is being practiced, academicians and researcher who are interested in PA, and so forth. For example, in the context of organisations, the rhetoric may be directed to a meeting but with the expectation that other employees (e.g., perhaps those with different views) will access this rhetoric through minutes, memos, etc. (Symon, 2008). Similarly, knowing that their interviews were conducted for a research project which may be published or at least may have some people (audience) who would be reading it, the appraisees and appraisers may have such broader audience in their mind.

The third case is of the latent audience. In regard to this case, Symon (2008) argued that within the organisational context, the arguments may be contained in the written emails, memos and reports. Symon (2008) further argued that these stored arguments may be revised and reinterpreted at future dates by latent audiences. Therefore, one's current rhetoric may not be shaped by such audiences; however, these stored arguments remain as a resource for continuing debate and may so be the source of information for the future rhetoric (e.g., as evidence or precedence for further arguments and counter-arguments) (Symon, 2008). This raises the issue of having two sets of audiences in the current study. The first set of audiences includes the one which shaped the rhetoric of the appraisees and appraisers who were interviewed while the second set of audiences is the audience of the current research thesis (e.g., who shaped my rhetoric as a writer of this thesis). This essentially includes the audience from the academic and scholarly world (e.g., scholars, academicians, researchers, and so forth) that is interested in the field of rhetoric and performance management (in particular, rhetoric and PA). Needless to say that the inspiration of my rhetoric in the thesis has also come from both the classical and contemporary rhetorical traditions (e.g., Aristotle, Billig and Potter), particularly where rhetoric is viewed in a positive light and advocated on both of its dimensions, argumentative and persuasive.

4.3.2. The Issue of Power in Discourse

There are other issues too which can be considered in the current study as they may have prompted and shaped the rhetoric of the appraisees and appraisers. One such issue is power in discourse. For example, Symon (2000) pointed out that the account of rhetorical analysis raises the issue of power in discourse. In regard to the issue of power in discourse, Billig (1996) held his account of rhetoric reserved from the Foucauldian analysis of discourse

and considered it as unnecessarily constricting (e.g., where discourses are considered to be operated in a totalitarian form where there is no scope for arguments) (Symon, 2000). In comparison to Foucauldian analysis, one may consider Sillence's (1999) analysis of discourse. For example, in his reviews of several theoretical studies of power in discourse (Symon et al., 2000), Sillence (1999: 815) established a constructive stance, in comparison to the Foucauldian analysis of discourse, according to which "power is not merely the monopoly of those individuals at the top of organisations, but … is created in many different settings by important and unimportant individuals by means of argumentation".

Therefore, this is particularly a considerable issue in the current study, especially in the consideration of the notion that even though both the parties, appraisees and appraisers, are equally important for the PA process of their banks; however, appraisees are after all the subordinates who are appraised by their appraisers (or their line managers).The issue indicates towards the hierarchal relationship between the two parties. This drives our attention back to K. Burke's (1969) notion of mystery, which is discussed in chapter 3 (Critical literature review on PA), and so indicates towards the potential for controversy in PA.

4.4. Focus on Jonathan Potter

The ideas and issues regarding the argumentative dimensions of rhetoric, which have been discussed previously, under the heading 'Focus on Michael Billig', establish the base for Potter's (1996) ideas regarding the argumentative dimensions of rhetoric. Therefore, Potter's (1996) notions are now going to be discussed for the further establishment of the current rhetorical framework. However, before discussing these ideas in detail, I would like to mention that the talk of appraisees and appraisers is later analysed on the basis of the codes which are derived from this framework. Accordingly, these codes will facilitate the rhetorical analysis in terms of determining that how the appraisees and appraisers construct the reality of their PA with the utilisation of both the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. The focus on Billig and Potter covers the argumentative dimensions. As for the persuasive dimensions, they are particularly focused in the next portion of this chapter, 'Focus on Aristotle'. Nevertheless, when one focuses on the argumentative dimensions, the focus is automatically drawn towards the persuasive dimensions as the arguments or argumentative dimensions are after all used to make the accounts persuasive. Now I will discuss Potter's (1996) notions in detail.

4.4.1. Rhetoric as the Feature of the Antagonistic Relationship between Versions from the Perspective of Offensive and Defensive Rhetoric

Quite similar to the work of Billig (1987; 1991; 1996), as discussed earlier, Potter (1996) established that when the arguments are analysed, part of the focus is on what alternative arguments are being undermined. Potter (1996: 107) discussed the offensive and defensive rhetoric from the perspective of reifying and ironizing in order to develop the understanding of the idea that how "a factual account can be inspected". For example, in this regard Potter (1996: 107) maintained that "On the one hand, a description will work as *offensive rhetoric* in so far as it undermines alternative descriptions. It may be constructed precisely to rework damage or reframe an alternative description. On the other, a description may provide *defensive rhetoric* depending on its capacity to resist discounting or undermining".

Potter (1996: 107) further contrasted the two techniques, ironizing and reifying, as he stated that "I will refer to discourse which is constructing version of the world as solid and factual as reifying discourse. Reifying means to turn something abstract into a material thing; and this is the sense I wish to emphasise, although material should be understood very widely. These are accounts which are producing something as an object, be it an event, a thought or a set of circumstance. In contrast, we will refer to discourse which is undermining versions as ironizing. The standard meaning of irony is to use words in the opposite way to their literal meaning." However, Potter (1996: 107) treated ironizing discourse somewhat differently; for example, "as talk or writing which undermines the literal descriptiveness of versions. It is the opposite of reifying discourse: it turns the material thing back into talk which is motivated, distorted or erroneous in some way."

Therefore, any established approach to fact construction may be expected to have its established counters and so the use of offensive rhetoric stimulates the development of defensive rhetoric and vice versa (Potter, 1996). This takes our attention on justification process: how speakers justify their claims to have their accounts taken as facts, such as truth claims (Potter, 1996). For example According to Potter (1996), speakers use both offensive rhetoric (speakers seek to undermine alternative accounts) and defensive rhetoric (speakers seek to protect their own accounts). Therefore, one can analyse talk in terms of such offensive and defensive tactics (Symon, 2000). In first case, we may note occasions where, for example, the speaker claims that the counter position has been produced by

individuals with vested interests in the outcome, while, in taking defensive stance, they may seek to deflect such a position being attributed to themselves (Symon, 2000). Potter (1996) termed this as the "management of stake. I will discuss it in detail in the coming up discussion. The discussion about offensive and defensive rhetoric / ironizing and reifying discourses emphasises the value of taking a double analytic focus; for instance, studies should look at both the procedure through which factual versions are built up, and the ones by which they are undermined (Potter, 1996).

Accordingly, Potter (1996) treated rhetoric as the feature of the antagonistic relationship between versions; for example, how a description counters an alternative description, and how it is organised consecutively to resist itself from being countered. This concept of rhetoric is similar to its conventional idea, 'suasive' rhetoric, which is basically a discourse designed for obtaining the expressions from the audience which suggest their agreement (Potter, 1996).

4.4.2. Ethnomethodological Understanding of Reflexivity

Potter (1996: 168) noticed that the speakers often use "vague or global formulations" in their accounts and emphasised that in order to avoid the criticism that their accounts are merely their personal views or opinion, they need to manage their accountability in the process of producing accounts. Therefore, Potter (1996) emphasised on the idea of ethnomethodological understanding of reflexivity. It implies that in order to understand whether a description is constructing reality, the description should be compared to that reality (Potter, 1996). Bryman and Bell (2011) explained the idea of reflexivity by mentioning that the term reflexivity has been employed by ethnomethodologists, such as Garfinkel (1967), in order to refer to the way in which everyday speech and action are constitutive of the social world in which they are located.

Accordingly, the notion of ethnomethodological understanding of reflexivity draws attention to the fact that descriptions are not just about something but they are also about doing something; for instance, they are not merely representing some aspects of the world, they are also involved in that world in some practical manner (Garfinkel, 1967; Wieder, 1974).

4.4.3. Managing the Dilemma of Stake

Potter (1996) argued that people treat reports and descriptions as if they come from groups and individuals with interests, desires, ambitions and stake in some versions of what the world is like. Therefore, a key challenge in formulating a persuasive account is managing 'the dilemma of stake' (Shepherd & Challenger, 2013). The dilemma is that anything a person (or group) says or does can be discounted as a product of stake or interests (Potter, 1996). The referencing of such a stake is one major way of discounting the significance of an action, or reworking its nature (Potter, 1996). For example, a blaming can be discounted as merely a product of spite, while another example can be of an offer which can be discounted as an attempt to influence (Potter, 1996).

The overall argument of Potter (1996) regarding stake management is that stake can be regarded as both a problem for those who construct the reality of their accounts and a resource for those who want to undermine it. In regard to analysing the stakes of people, Potter (1996) suggested that the purpose of the analysis is not to establish that whether the stakes are right or wrong, but it is to explore the practices through which stakes are established and discounted. Consequently, Potter (1996) discussed three approaches to manage 'the Dilemma of stake' or interest. They are stake invocation (e.g., where interests are attributed to others), stake inoculation (e.g., where an account is produced to prevent the attribution of interests) and stake confession (e.g., where an account is produced to admit interests) (Shepherd & Challenger, 2013).

The issue of stakes cannot be ignored in the current study, particularly because of the potential for controversy in the PA process, as this leads one to think that the appraisees and appraisers may possibly have conflicting interests in relation to their PA process. And so these parties may produce offensive and defensive rhetoric to protect or undermine each other's real or anticipated accounts.

4.4.4. Category Entitlement

The idea behind category entitlement is that certain categories of people are treated as entitled to know particular things and on the basis of this their accounts maybe considered as credible (Potter, 1996). For instance, "a person visits the doctor because she is expected to know something about illness. She is in a category of people who are treated as entitled to have such knowledge; she knows about illness by virtue of the fact that she is a doctor"

(Potter, 1996: 114). The idea of category entitlement is also well explained in Dickerson's (1997) analysis of the politicians' speeches on television. According to Dickerson (1997), politicians may maintain that their arguments are derived from a more authoritative source in terms of its being politically independent and scientifically objective while their rivals' arguments are a result of their personal and illicit interests. However, in Dickerson's (1997) example, the supposed independence of such authorities was in itself challenged (Symon, 2000).

Symon (2000) highlighted a number of strategies which were established by Billig (1996) and Potter (1996) on the basis of which people can make their accounts persuasive and undermine the alternative accounts of others:

1. By exhibiting one's own self as consistent while others who have the counter-arguments as inconsistent or contradictorily in their arguments (Billig, 1996);

2. By producing a very detailed account which may increase the acceptance of it; however, this strategy has a drawback of having too many claims to protect, which increases the risk of such accounts to get exposed to alternative potential undermining (Potter, 1996);

3. By producing scientific data to back up the arguments (Potter, 1996) which makes the arguments difficult to be challenged.

However, Billig (1996) noted that despite of some researchers' attempts to find it, there is no ultimately effective rhetorical strategy because there is always a potential counter-argument that can be presented (Symon, 2000) against any argument.

4.4.5. Out-there-ness

Category entitlement and stake management bring the emphasis on "the nature of the producer of the description" (e.g., in terms of his or her identity) while the purpose of out-there-ness is to "draw emphasis away from the nature or identity of the producer" (Potter, 1996: 150). Potter (1996) recognised three rhetorical strategies (or devices) which producers of the accounts can use to establish their accounts independent of their own identities. These devices are namely empiricist discourse (e.g., which emphasises upon the production of scientific data), corroboration and consensus (e.g., which emphasises upon

producing an account with the consideration of others in a sense that if there have been other witnesses to the account being produced by the speaker and if there were, then did they agree with each other), and vivid detail (e.g., which emphasises on providing specifics of the accounts) Potter (1996).

4.4.6. Ontological Gerrymandering

The ontological gerrymandering helps us in considering about the things which are "significantly and relatively" absent in the argument (Potter, 1996: 183). For example, when the speakers practice this technique, they "pick out a particular range of phenomena as relevant and ignore other potential ones" (Potter: 1996: 184). There may be a possibility that speakers failed to describe about particular phenomena intentionally as according to Potter (1996: 186), often the power of descriptions "lies in what they fail to describe, what is ignored or left out". For example, the speaker may use the tactic of "gerrymandering the terrain: selecting and formulating an area which is advantageous and ignoring others" (Potter, 1996: 186). Ontological gerrymandering can be contrasted with the vivid details; however, only if the vivid detail covers all the phenomena and is not merely based on specifics of one particular range of phenomena. Therefore, the accounts using ontological gerrymandering may have risk to be discounted by the alternative potential counter-arguments. However the question is: is it possible to cover all the phenomena? This question itself has a defence for those who use the ontological gerrymandering as a device to construct their accounts.

4.5. Focus on Aristotle

A substantial literature has already been discussed on Aristotle, in chapter 2 (Critical literature review on rhetoric); therefore, here I will discuss his ideas which are necessary for establishing the rhetorical framework of the current study.

4.5.1. Aristotle's Three Available Means of Persuasion

The technical arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks will also be analysed in terms of their persuasive appeals. This involves the utilisation of Aristotle's (1991) available means of persuasion. For example, rhetoric, according to Aristotle, is defined as the faculty of discovering all the available means of persuasion in any given situation (Corbett & Connors, 1999). These available means of

persuasion are classified as ethos, pathos and logos (e.g., appeal based on the character and credibility of the speaker, appeal directed to the emotions of the audience and appeal based on evidence and reason) (Shapiro & Schall, 1990). Rhetorical analysis generally begins with a focus on these three main forms of classical rhetoric (Lowenhaupt, 2014).

These three appeals to persuasion are also known as Aristotle's (1991) artistic proofs. According to Killingsworth (2005), the three artistic proofs of Aristotle (1991) are used by all the speakers when they attempt to persuade. In other words, they are concerned with the first canon of classical rhetoric, inventio, which suggests the invention of arguments for attaining persuasion (Borchers, 2013). In today's world, this triadic system of persuasion in discourse is also labelled as the rhetorical triangle (Levine & Saunders 1993; Killingsworth 2005).

Savolainen (2014) argued that these rhetorical modes of persuasion (e.g., logos, ethos and pathos) can be used in communication. Similarly, Lowenhaupt (2014) maintained that these three appeals may be utilised independently or threaded together throughout an argument. Aristotle (1991) emphasised upon the nature and context of the argument as an important matters to be considered in utilising these appeals successfully.

According to Aristotle (1991), ethos or the ostensible credibility of a source (e.g., speaker) is more or less the most significant appeal to persuasion. This is because the audiences are not only persuaded by the argument which is presented to them but they are also persuaded by the speaker (Borchers, 2013). In other words, ethos is established through the claim that the ethics of the speaker are supporting the audience's moral code (Lowenhaupt, 2014). According to Corbett & Connors (1999), ethos is especially considered to be a vulnerable form of an argument because its success depends upon creating the ethical credibility and legitimacy of the speaker. Therefore, ethos can be regarded as "a special overt attempt to establish credit with the audience" (Corbett & Connors 1999: 73). Aristotle (1991) suggested three qualities, practical wisdom (phronesis), virtue (arete) and good will (eunoia), which are considerably important for ethos. Practical wisdom is concerned with making decisions and having the knowledge of what one is speaking about, virtue suggests the qualities of compassion expressed by a speaker whereas goodwill is keeping the audience's best interest at heart (Borchers, 2013). Therefore, with the use of these three qualities, the speakers can present themselves as credible (Savolainen, 2014) and persuasive while on the other hand, lack of ethos lead to scepticism (Holt & Macpherson,

2010). According to Rife (2010), ethos works well with pathos. This is because ethos first secures the sympathy of the audience through the speaker's credibility which then verifies the speaker's conviction (Rife, 2010).

Hence, other than ethos, pathos is also very important for achieving persuasion. Pathos seeks to persuade the audience through an emotional appeal (Lowenhaupt, 2014). Aristotle (1991) emphasised that it is essentially important for the speakers to know their audiences if they want to effectively employ pathos. In this way, pathos is basically concerned with putting the audience in an appropriate mood by handling their feelings well (Lanham, 1991). Borchers (2013) stated that according to Aristotle, the speaker must answer three questions regarding emotions, in order to persuade the audience (e.g., 1. What is the state of mind of the audience? 2. Against who are their emotions directed? 3. Why do the members of the audience feel the way they do?). Borchers (2013) further maintained that in Aristotle's view, without knowing the answers to these questions, it is basically impossible to bring about a desired emotion in the audience. Aristotle (1991) provided examples of what he considered as emotions. They are namely anger, calmness, friendliness, enmity, fear, confidence, shame and shamelessness, kindness, pity, indignation, envy, and emulation (Borchers, 2013).

Corbett & Connors (1999) argued about the complex nature of pathos and so according to them pathos requires an indirect effort to evoke emotions through an appeal to imagination. The absence of the pathos can lead to resentment (Holt & Macpherson, 2010) in the audience regarding the speakers and their arguments. Therefore, if the pathos is not dealt adequately then it has the tendency to affect the ethos in a negative way.

As far as the logos is concerned, it is an appeal to rationale which frames an argument as logical and uses reason to persuade (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). According to Capper et al. (2002), logos uses sound reasons to explain the audience that why they should change their opinions or actions. Therefore, it "consists of such information as facts and statistics" (Walker, 2014: 159). The choice of word and logic along with the readable structure of sentence are all attributed to the logos which one constructs (Savolainen, 2014).

There are two forms of logical reasoning which have been identified by Aristotle, inductive reasoning and deductive reasoning (Borchers, 2013). Inductive reasoning is regarded as argument by example which involves reasoning from specific cases to a universal

conclusion while deductive reasoning involves reasoning through the use of syllogism and enthymeme (Borchers, 2013). Every syllogism has three parts, major premise, minor premise and conclusion and if the first premise is true then the conclusion is certainly true (e.g., all men are mortal. Socrates is a man. Socrates is mortal) (Borchers, 2013). Whereas enthymeme is a kind of syllogism in which either one of the premises or the conclusion is not explicitly stated; therefore, one has to assume the missing premise based on the explicitly stated premises or conclusion (Borchers, 2013).

According to Rife (2010), logos also work well with ethos. This is because a well-developed and admirable sense of logos can help in establishing ethos (Rife, 2010). On the other hand, the absence of logos creates feelings of emptiness and superficiality (Holt & Macpherson, 2010) in the argument. This means that if the logos in an argument is not managed properly, it can affect both ethos and pathos adversely.

4.5.2. Some Rhetorical Strategies Serving the Purpose of Logos, Ethos and Pathos

Researchers have identified various different rhetorical strategies serving the purpose of logos, ethos and pathos (Savolainen, 2014) in both positive and negative way. The terminology differs among researchers; for example, expressions such as rhetorical device, rhetorical strategy, rhetorical tactic and rhetorical technique have often been used interchangeably by researchers such as Clark & Clark, 2005; Fogelin, 1974; Walton, 2008 (Savolainen, 2014). However, I have used the terms dimensions, devices and characteristics over the other terminologies in the current study. Particularly, the terminology, rhetorical dimensions, is used because it appears to have more breadth. For example, it may be understood in a broader way. The idea is that even though I have used this particular framework for the current study but the area of argumentation and persuasion (e.g., from the perspective of rhetoric) has a lot of scope in it. Moreover, the use of the term dimensions may cover both the notions, the deliberative and non-deliberative use of rhetoric by the appraisees and appraisers for argumentation and persuasion.

One of the well-known rhetorical strategies is argument ad hominem where a speaker attacks the negative characteristics of an opponent instead of his argument (Fogelin, 1974). Closely related to this strategy, the speaker may appeal to ridicule by presenting his or her own argument in a way which makes the opponent's arguments appear foolish (Savolainen, 2014). There is a kind of argument ad hominem, which is referred as poisoning the well, where negative information about an opponent is presented with the

intention of discrediting everything which is said by that person (Walton, 2008). All these three strategies are particularly used for affecting the pathos of a person adversely. Regarding ethos, one of the rhetorical strategies is appeal to authority which is basically based upon the assumption that an argument is considered true if it comes from a person who has the position or authority (Clark & Clark, 2005; Walton, 1997). As for logos, one of the strategies is appeal to consequences of action (Savolainen, 2014) where the conclusion of an argument is supported by a premise which declares positive or negative consequences from some course of action (Walton, 2008). These strategies regarding logos, ethos and pathos may or may not be utilised by the appraisees and appraisers in their talk; however, they give an idea that how logos, ethos and pathos may be achieved.

4.6. Figures of Speech and Tropes

Other rhetorical devices, particularly for achieving persuasion, can be discussed in terms of the stylistic aspects (e.g., particularly in terms of the figures of speech and tropes). Therefore, the rhetorical analysis will involve in hunting the dominating tropes that are used by the appraisees and appraisers in their arguments. The concentration will be on hunting the most dominating ones because when it comes to hunting the tropes in an argument one may end up finding "trope after trope" (Watson, 1995a: 812). Now the question is that what are considered to be the dominant tropes in the arguments of the appraisees and appraisers? The answer may depend on their efficiency (e.g., how they have been utilised both alone and in terms of the other argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers).

Rhetoric has long been recognised as a means of affecting the way in which language is processed and meaning is obtained (Corbett 1990). Watson (1995a) pointed out that figurative elements are the part of rhetoric in terms of how all human beings understand the world, make claims about it, and undertake enquiries of it. According to Corbott (1990), stylist features (or rhetorical figures) are the means of persuasion as they stimulate the emotional responses in the audience. For example, rhetorical figures such as rhyme, alliteration, pun, rhetorical question, etc. seem to have the potential to interest readers in a text without resorting to inappropriate or unprofessional language (Corbett, 1990).

However, in noting the negative connotations attached to the figurative language, Corbott (1990) pointed out that these figures have traditionally been defined as the artful deviations in the use of language. Therefore, in the view of the various classical authors, figurative

language is considered an artful deviation from the normal or ordinary manner of expression (Corbett 1990). Along these lines, McQuarrie & Mick (1996) maintained that figurative language is a departure from the expected use of language as it involves an expression's form rather than its content, follows a set of fixed templates or structures which are invariant across content or context, and does not render the expression meaningless. Accordingly, McQuarrie & Mick (1996) recognised that rhetorical figures represent an unconventional use of language or a violation of some of its norms or convention.

Similarly Mothersbaugh et al. (2002) argued that rhetorical figures consist of schemes and tropes and both schemes and tropes deviate from the expected use of language; however, in incredibly different manners. For example, schemes change the structure of expressions at surface level (e.g., rhymes repeat syllables at the ends of words) whereas tropes alter the deeper semantic structure (e.g., irony states the opposite of what is meant) (Mothersbaugh et al., 2002).

According to Huhmann et al. (2002: 158), the "focus on rhetorical figures moves beyond message content (e.g., what is said) to examine message form (e.g., how it is said)"; however, it doesn't mean that the rhetorical figures deviate from the actual meaning of the content. Similarly, Mothersbaugh et al. (2002) argued that rhetorical figures represent different ways in which an idea can be expressed (e.g., where the form of expression changes across the type of figure being used while the main idea remains the same). This can be explained better with the example of anaphora which suggests the repetition of the initial word or phrase at the beginning of the successive clause (or clauses) of a sentence or at the beginning of each sentence; for example, the phases, "Early treatment. Early cure." Mothersbaugh et al., 2002: 590). Here one can view the repetition of the word "early" but it does not alter the core idea, in treating the medical conditions, that "sooner is better" Mothersbaugh et al., 2002: 590).

However, Mothersbaugh et al. (2002) further stated that tropes such as hyperbole and metaphor are created by the substitution of one meaning for the other or by implying more than what is said (e.g., hyperbole uses extreme exaggeration and metaphor compares two dissimilar objects to imply similarities that may not literally exist). What Mothersbaugh et al. (2002) meant can be better explained with the particular case and example of metaphor. Reflections on the role and function of metaphor can be dated back to Aristotle's (1987)

Poetics where one can find the classical meaning of metaphor, that is: applying the name, to something, which actually belongs to something else (Hardt, 2014). Thus, in case of metaphor, we attribute a name to one subject (e.g., the primary subject) which belongs to another subject (e.g., the secondary subject), while the characteristics of the latter rarely belong to the former (Black, 1962). In other words, the two subjects are spoken as if they were one and the same (Hardt, 2014). Although metaphor is but one of many ways of comparing two things, it should not be confused with a simile (e.g., when Aristotle said that Achilles is a lion, he didn't claim that Achilles is like a lion, but Achilles is a lion (Hardt, 2014). A metaphor cannot perform as a metaphor if the two things are considered as actual equivalent (Billig, 2010).

Therefore, it is important to understand how the concept of style is viewd in the classical rhetoric. The study of style involves the study of one of the five sub-disciplines of classical rhetoric: invention, arrangement, style, memory, and delivery (Fahnestock, 2005). In a true sense of classical rhetoric, stylistics includes words' choices, sentences' kinds, sentences' length, marked or unusual sentences, ways of varying sentences, ways to tie words of the text together, and ways of making transition between ideas in a text (Hottel-Burkhart, 2000). These are also reffered as the 'attributes of cohesion' (Holliday & Hasan, 1976) and the traditional figures of speech (both schemes and tropes) (Hottel-Burkhart, 2000).

Similarly, in the classical sense, this third canon of style refers to the approaches by which the speaker uses language to create an impression on the audience (Borchers, 2013). This makes style, or the manner in which ideas are communicated, important to the persuasive effect of communication, and so a speaker's style can be important in persuading the audience (Borchers, 2013). However, this involves the speakers to take great care in choosing the right words, and arranging them in a careful manner, in order to produce the greatest effect on their audience (Borchers, 2013). This means that schemes and tropes should be carefully dealt by the speakers in their arguments and so should be used to provide both the clarity and pathos (appeal to emotion), in order to achieve persuasion, rather than just being the mare ornament. McAdon (2004) argued that Aristotle's canon of style has previously been targeted as a superficial mask for manipulation. For example, Vickers (1988) has argued about it as something closer to armament. In the view of this, the use of rhetorical figures should definitely not be considered as both armament and mere ornament by the speakers.

Kallendrof & Kallendrof (1985) argued that figures of speech have been associated with logic and reasoning at numerous points in the history of rhetoric. No wonder that along with invention, style has been given the most detailed attention by the instructors and theorists of rhetoric (Fahnestock, 2005). Some examples of schemes include Anaphora, Anastrophe, epistrophe, apostrophe, antithesis, etc., while some examples of tropes are metaphor, simile, synecdoche, metonymy, amplification, anaphora, antimetabole, antiphrasis antistrophe, irony, rhetorical question, etc. But at the moment who knows if these and/or others are present in the arguments of the appraisees and appraisers. Only the findings and analysis will reveal it.

4.7. Revisiting the Three Research Questions

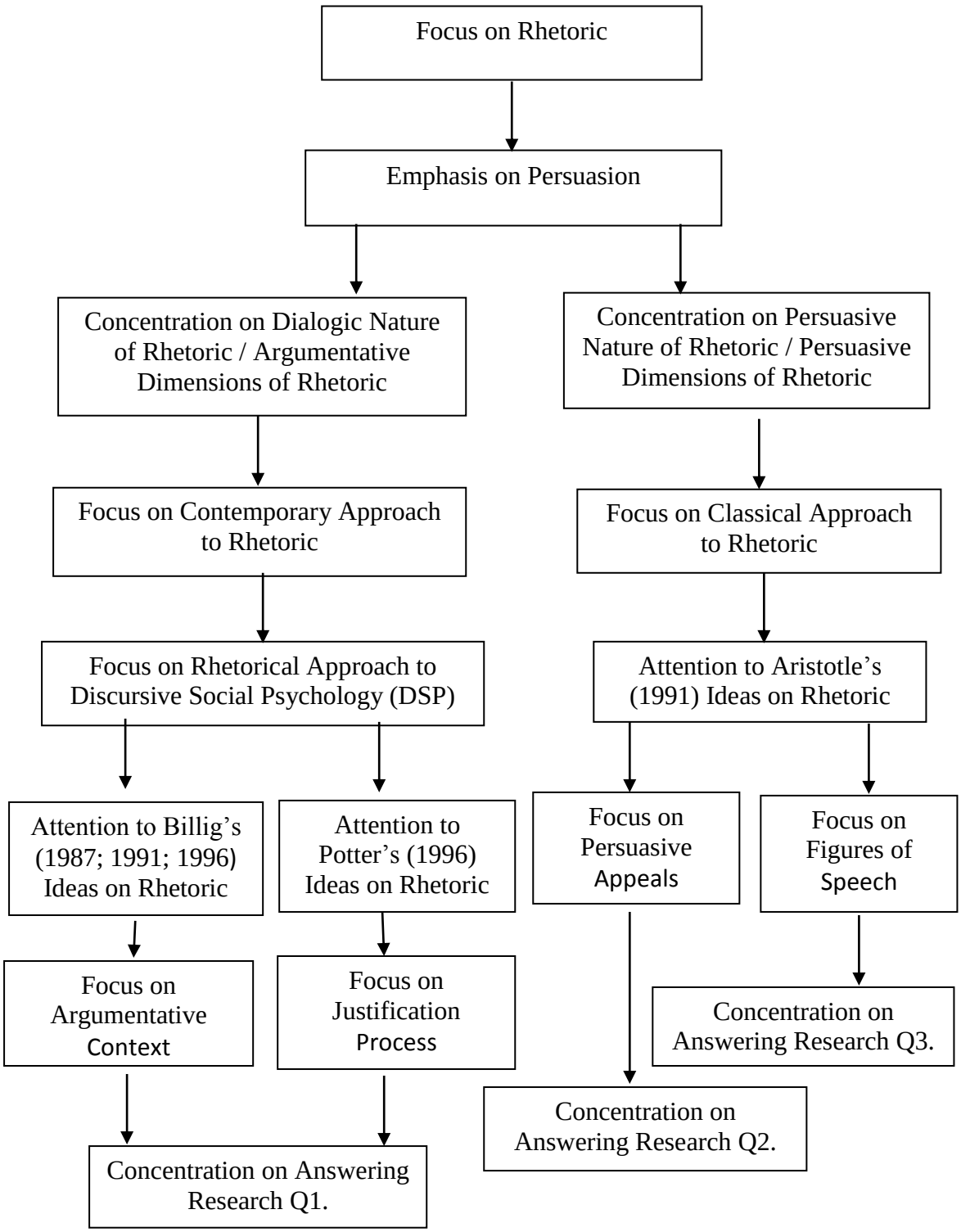
As previously stated, the rhetorical framework that has been discussed is essentially the analytical framework of the current study. For example, it provides the substance for the coding and analysis in the current research as discussed in the next chapter (Chapter 5, research methodology). The framework is structured and implemented with the consideration of the three main research questions which are designed to understand that how appraisees and appraisers construct the reality of their PA. The subsequent heading represents the rhetorical framework, in a diagram, based on its focus. Therefore, it is important to revisit the three main research questions. The research questions are:

1. *What are the antagonistic characteristics of the arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the performance appraisal (PA) practiced in their banks?*

2. *How do appraisees and appraisers employ persuasive appeals to construct the arguments in their talk regarding the PA practiced in their banks?*

3. *What are the dominant stylistic aspects (figure of speech) of the arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks?*

4.8. Rhetorical Framework in a Diagram



Chapter 5−Research Methodology

5.1. An Overview of the Research Methodology

This chapter mainly discusses the different methodological considerations of the current research. It starts with discussing the general prospect of the banks in Pakistan and introduces the PA of the two selected banks. Subsequently, there is detailed discussion on semi-structured interviews as a method of data collection for the current study. A number of areas are focused, such as the reasons for choosing semi-structured interviews, the design and implementation of the interviews' questions, conduction of the interviews, and so forth. Next, a discussion is made regarding the themes that are used to organise the findings and analysis in the thesis. Following this, there is detailed discussion about the convenience sampling techniques which is used in the current study, and the sample selection process. Other areas are also covered in this regard such as, sample size, dyads that are used in the current study and the issue of generalizability associated with the convenience sampling technique. Then ethical concerns and approval matters are discussed from the prospect of the current study. After that, there is detailed discussion about the interviews' distribution and the process of screening which directed to the final 7 dyads from the initial 11 for the findings and analysis. Moreover, further screening is discussed which led to obtain the final interviews' extracts from the 7 dyads that are used in the findings and analysis. And finally, the coding for the findings and analysis is being discussed.

5.2. A General Overview of the Banks in Pakistan

A bank can be defined as an intermediary organisation of financial sectors that perform two basic functions, one is as suppliers of surplus money to the demanders of money and the other is collection of money from those who have excess of money or have surplus money (Rasheed & Aimin, 2012). Thus, banks help those who are in short supply of money and get funds from those who have excess of money that is idle and useless for them (Rasheed & Aimin, 2012). Of course, this is the most simplistic way to define the banks. Nevertheless, it establishes that banks play an important role in economic and financial sector of any country by performing their core function of intermediation (Rasheed et al., 2012).

Similarly, financial sector is crucial for economic growth and industrialization of a country via channeling funds, providing proficient financial system, sociable investor's treatment, and optimal utilisation of resources (Raza & Farhan 2011). Accordingly, banking sector, as being an important part of the financial sector in any economy, performs a major role in these matters (Shah & Jan, 2014). For example, banking sector plays a significant role in channeling funds to industries and so contributes towards the economic and financial growth and stability of a country (Shah & Jan, 2014). In addition, a well-established banking sector can absorb major financial crisis in the economy and can provide a platform for strengthening the economic system of the country (Aburime, 2009).

According to the February 2011 OSEC- Business Network Switzerland report, the banking sector of Pakistan is comprised of 36 commercial banks (25 local private commercial banks, 4 public sector commercial banks, and 7 foreign commercial banks) and 4 specialized banks (Consulate General of Switzerland, 2011 cited in Bowra et al., 2012). Among these banks, the private commercial banks of Pakistan particularly locate special attention towards creating and maintaining their HRM (Human Resource Management) Departments (Soomro et al., 2011). In doing so, they take multinational companies in Pakistan as their benchmarks (Khilji et al., 2001). This suggests that HRM practices, such as PA are quite established in the banks of Pakistan.

Moreover, the banking sector of Pakistan has witnessed a number of drastic changes since its inception after the establishment of country (Rasheed et al., 2012). Some of the major historical developments include commercial banks establishment, nationalization, liberalization and privatization of banks (Rasheed et al., 2012). While some of the most recent advances in this regard are the start of Islamic banking system, introduction of foreign banks, and use of modern Information Technology methods and tools (Rasheed et al., 2012). Currently there are two simultaneous banking systems running their operations in Pakistan; the Islamic Banking system (which is based on the prohibition of interest principle) and the conventional banking system (which is interest based banking system) (Rasheed & Aimin, 2012). This conventional banking practice is a well-established system in Pakistan having a history of more than 60 years (since inception of the country as an independent state) (Rasheed & Aimin, 2012).

Similarly, Rehman & Ahmed (2008) stated that during the last one and a half decade, the banking sector of Pakistan has witnessed a massive change from a slow government dominated sector to a more responsive and competitive sector. Therefore, the banking sector of Pakistan is very rapidly growing and performing an imperative role in the economic development (Nayyab et al., 2011). In the last five years, it has been classified as the best performing sector of Pakistan on the grounds of growth and turnaround (Akhtar, 2007 cited in Bowra et al., 2012). Consequently, the case of the banking sector of Pakistan can be cited as a major success story regarding how restructuring and privatization helped the sector to transform and contribute towards the economic growth (Rehman & Ahmed, 2008).

The opportunities do not end here; mergers and acquisitions in the banking sector are also likely to increase competition (Rehman & Ahmed, 2008); for example, in terms of maintaining the customers' loyalty. Accordingly, Ali et al. (2014) stated that with the curious increase in the country's population and the increased demand for banking services and reputation, customers' loyalty is going to be one of the key differentiators for the success of the banks in future. This suggests that competition will continue to be a significant factor for the growth and development of the banking sector of Pakistan (Ali et al., 2014). In addition, Pakistan has also opened its doors to foreign commercial banks; as a result, some foreign banks are in a process of acquiring such smaller banks which have a good branch network (Rehman & Ahmed, 2008). Similarly, some new groups are buying out foreign banks' operations in Pakistan (Rehman & Ahmed, 2008).

Therefore, the continuous growth and development in the overall banking sector of Pakistan provided a substantial reason to select the two private commercial banks in Pakistan for the current study. For example, this may indicates that the general working of the two selected banks in Pakistan, their HRM and performance management systems, practices, procedures, techniques and processes (e.g., PA), the competencies of their employees, and the general prospect and expectations of their employees from the HRM and performance management systems, practices, procedures, techniques and processes may possibly be comparable and relatable to other organisations. Needless to say, as the appraisees and appraisers are considered as rhetorical beings in the current study who construct the reality of the PA practiced in their banks, so in this sense, the appraisees and appraisers of any organisation may possibly be comparable and relatable to them.

5.3. The Two Selected Banks (Bank A and Bank B) and their Performance Appraisal (PA)

Two private commercial banks in Pakistan have been considered for the study. Initially a number of banks in Pakistan were sent a formal invitation letter to participate in my research. Hence, out of a number of banks who were sent the invitation for participation, three of them agreed to collabourate. Though, eventually I could only select two out of those three banks because those two banks fit into the three months' time duration I had allotted to fieldwork (interviews) in Pakistan.The names of the two banks have been kept anonymous for the matter of maintaining confidentiality. Hence, the two banks are referred to as bank A and B in the entire study. This has not been done deliberately but it was a condition placed by one of the banks (bank B) to keep its name, and nothing but the name, anonymous else it would not have allowed me to approach and interview its employees within the natural setting of the bank. Of course, it would have been difficult for me to arrange interviews with them elsewhere, as I did not know any employee personally whom I had interviewed, so I complied with their request. As far as the other bank (bank A) is concerned, its management did not object on my disclosure of its identity. However, when I was interviewing the appraisees and appraisers in both the banks, they were much concerned regarding the matter of keeping their names anonymous. Therefore, I provided the assurance of anonymity to both the banks and their employees (whom I was interviewing) in terms of not revealing their names.

Of course, these two banks' acceptance of my formal invitation letter for participation in the current study is one of the reasons that I selected them; still, the main reason which led me to select these two banks is the fact that their PA processes are very much similar to each other. Moreover, I could have carried on with just one bank as well; then again, in order to increase the number of my respondents, I followed two banks instead of one. Moreover, despite the similarity in the PA processes of the two banks; I believed that having two banks would add more diversity to my research in terms of the responses of the interviewees.

The PA process in both the banks is considered as one of the important features of their PMS (performance management system). As described in chapter 3 (Critical literature review on PA), performance management is an ongoing process that involves the following stages: prerequisites, performance planning, performance execution,

performance assessment, performance review, and performance renewal and re-contracting (Aguinis, 2009). Therefore, PMS is linked to other HR functions, such as training and development, compensation and rewards, promotions, and career development more effectively than discretely administered PA process. It is the PA process of both the banks, and not their entire PMS which is the focus of the current research. However, as the PA process of both the banks is an important feature of their PMS, so the interviews' questions and the responses of the appraisees and appraisers may indicate towards the other features of PMS which are typically connected to the PA (e.g., appraisers' training, rewards, promotions, and so forth).

Additionally, the PA process in both the banks takes place at the start of every year and lasts for usually 3 months (January-March). Though, sometimes it can take more time. The process starts with the distribution of the PA forms to the employees and ends with the distribution of feedback. Therefore, the forms are an important element of the PA process in both the banks. The forms are commonly called APR (annual performance review) forms by the employees of bank A while the employees of bank B generally called them PA (performance appraisal) forms. These forms have two sections. One has to be filled by the appraisees while the other by the appraisers. Here I would like to mention an interesting fact regarding the current study; the interviews which were conducted for the data collection with the appraisees and appraisers in the two banks fell more or less within the same timeframe when their PA process was scheduled. This was my deliberate move for the current study so that the respondents may not have to recollect their experiences of PA from the extended past.

At a typical branch of both the banks, one may find a branch manager, quite a few line managers and several subordinates (who work under the line managers). In addition, the line managers play a very important role in the branches of the two banks. These branches generally include the typical local branches, area offices, and regional head offices. For example, generally the performance goals of employees are predetermined by their line managers; therefore, the line managers are also expected to assess the performance of employees. These line managers are appraised by their respective branch managers while when these line managers work in the area offices and regional head offices, they are appraised by their respective area managers/heads and RGMs (Regional general managers).

The banks have a large branch network all across Pakistan. The branch managers are appraised by their relevant area managers/heads and RGMs. There are several area offices and regional head offices of these banks operating within different regions of Pakistan as well. The area managers/heads and RGMs are appraised by their particular divisional heads or chiefs while the divisional heads or chiefs are appraised by the CEOs or the presidents of the two banks. This reasonably makes all the appraisers as appraisees too; yet, not all the appraisees are appraisers.

The form filling process generally works in a certain way in both banks. First the appraisees or subordinates have to fill the forms by evaluating or measuring their own performance while considering achievements of the goals which were set by; for example, their line managers. Later the line managers fill the forms. In doing so, their task is to evaluate or measure the performance of their subordinates while considering the achievements of their subordinates' goals which they had set. They, however, do not disclose the grades which they give to their subordinates at this stage as these grades are recommended grades and not final. After doing this, the appraiser has to sign the forms followed by the signing of the forms by the appraisees in case they agree to their line managers. In case they disagree with their line managers then they are required to settle their concerns with the line managers before signing the forms.

Once all of this is done, the recommendations (in terms of the grades) which the line managers make for their subordinates are sent to the head offices of both banks. It is, therefore, the head offices of both the banks where the grades of the employees are finalized based on the recommendations of the line managers. Then feedback of the PA process in terms of what performance grades the employees achieve is individually distributed to each appraisees in the envelops once it arrives from the banks' head offices. This usually happens within a month of the subordinates' signing of the forms but it can also take longer sometimes.

As far as the fairness of the PA process in the two banks is concerned, both the banks claimed to be exceptionally fair. Quite interestingly, both the banks specifically mentioned the application of quotas to the final performance grades of the employees as an unreasonable practice of the past. However, they doubted whether the employees had been formally been informed about its abolition.

5.4. Semi-structured Interviews as a Method of Data Collection

The matter of choosing the right data collection method is crucial for any research. As semi-structured interviews have had been used in the current study for gathering data, it essentially follows a qualitative research design. This is because interviews provide a qualitative method of data collection. According to Turner (2010), one of the popular areas of interest in qualitative research design is that of the interview protocol (Turner, 2010). Similarly, according to Stuckey (2013), interviewing is a primary way of collecting data in qualitative research. For example, interviews provide in-depth information pertaining to participants' experiences and viewpoints of a particular topic (Turner. 2010).

The interviews vary through a range, from structured to semi-structured and finally unstructured interviews (Bryman, 2001; May, 1997). For example, according to Saunders et al. (2012), interview may be highly structured and formalised, using standardised set of questions for each research participant, or they may be based on unstructured or informal conversations. Nevertheless, in between there are intermediate positions depending on the structure used and the level of formality; for example, an interview may contain some unstructured sections and some highly structured parts depending on its purpose. (Saunders et al., 2012). As such, the semi-structured interviews provide the researcher with an opportunity to probe further in case the answers of the respondents on the structured parts of the semi-structured interviews fail to provide the useful data. Similarly, Saunders et al. (2012) argued that Semi-structured interviews promise the interviewer with opportunities to probe answers where he/she wants the interviewees to explain their responses. Therefore, semi-structured interviews can be helpful in seeking meaningful insights (Robson, 2002). Precisely, this has been the case in the current study; for example, two lists of questions were used (one for the appraisers and another for the appraisees), which were accompanied with several probing questions as well during the entire course of interviews.

According to Easterbt-Smith et al. (2008) and Jankowicz (2005), the semi-structured interviews are the most advantageous way to collect data in the following circumstances:

1. Where there are a large number of questions to be answered;
2. Where the questions are either open-ended or complex;
3. Where the logic and order of questioning may need to be varied.

All these three circumstances exactly depict the case of the questions that were asked from the appraisees and appraisers during their interviews. Moreover, the semi-structured interviews allowed me to skip some questions from the two lists of questions in case the answers to those inquiries had already been recorded from the participants through the response in other probing questions. This will be discussed later in detail.

Saunders et al. (2012) noted that managers are more likely to agree to be the interviewees rather than complete a questionnaire, especially where the interview topic is seen to be interesting and relevant to their current work. This is because an interview not only provides the interviewees with an opportunity to reflect on events without needing to write anything down but also the opportunity to receive feedback and personal assurance about the way in which information will be used (Saunder et al., 2012). In this respect, the interview topic, PA, was essentially relevant to their work. However, even though they knew that their interviews' talk regarding their PA will be analysed as part of my research; little did they know that their talk will be analysed for argumentative and persuasive dimensions of the rhetoric. Therefore, the evidence of the presence of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of the rhetoric in their talk may advocate the view that they are natural rhetorical beings. This would suggests that they use such dimensions (or devices) in the actual appraisal setting as well.

Hence, on the whole, the qualitative data of the current research has been collected through the application of the semi-structured interviews, where I have been the interviewer and the appraisees and appraisers have been the interviewees. By using this technique, I used predetermined open-ended questions' lists. There were two lists, one for the appraisees and another for the appraisers. These lists of questions were structured by me through the consideration of literature on the PA. However, along with these predetermined open-ended questions' lists, I also employed probing questions (e.g., these probing questions were stimulated during the actual course of interviews by listening to the responses of the interviewees). The sequence of the questions that were asked from the participants was also not the same for every participant and it was adjusted on the basis of their previous responses. All of this will also be discussed in detail later in the chapter.

5.5. On the Choice of Semi-structured Interviews

As previously stated, semi-structured interviews are widely used in qualitative research as a useful approach to encourage managers, professionals and other practitioners to report on their attitudes, experiences, knowledge and understanding of work practices (Rowley, et al., 2012). From the point of view of the researcher and audience, one reason for using them can be that they facilitate the comparison between interviews conducted with different participants (Bryman, 2001; Carson et al., 2005). Accordingly, semi-structured interviews appeared to be one of the best choices for the current study and so they have been selected after thorough investigation of their usage and implication. I have discussed a number of studies in chapter 2 (Critical literature review on rhetoric), which used semi-structured interviews as a method of data collection for rhetorical analysis (RA). Along with that, a number of studies which used the rhetorical approach to other analytical techniques, particularly, narrative and discourse analysis based on semi-structured interviews' transcripts or texts have also been discussed. Those studies of course, justify the use of semi-structured interviews as a method to collect the data for the current study.

However, here I will argue on some more points concerning the use of semi-structured interviews in the current research. The choice of using the semi-structured interviews as a method of data collection for this study was not that simple. A number of factors were considered before taking this decision. For example, it was evidently noticed that the application of interviews' transcripts for the rhetorical analysis (RA) in management studies is relatively limited. Therefore, the situation can be easily compared with the studies concerned with the approaches of ethnomethodology (EM), membership categorization analysis (MCA) and conversation analysis (CA). This is because such studies have largely overlooked interviews as a method of information collection (Roulston, 2006) as well. Similarly, Potter (2004) claimed that the CA studies have eschewed interviews and focused on naturally occurring talk.

Nevertheless, as previously noted, I have discussed a number of studies in chapter 2 (Critical literature review on rhetoric), where semi-structured interviews have been used for conducting the RA or with the perspective of rhetorical approach to the analysis. Hence, one still finds example of studies where the interviews are not treated as a timeout from real life but as a social interaction in which members routinely draw on their stock of knowledge to provide the accounts of events and experiences related to the research topic

at hand (Roulston, 2006). This is exactly how the semi-structured interviews are treated in the current research. They have provided a platform to the appraisees and appraisers to construct the reality of their PA which is then used for the RA to find out how they have constructed this reality with the use of argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. Therefore, these interviews capture their rhetoric in action or a certain aspect of it which otherwise could also have been captured through observation of the naturally occurring environment of the feedback interviews of PA. For example, generally, it has been observed that such studies have commonly focused their attention on the naturally occurring information drawn from the mundane environment of organisations (Roulston, 2006). This may also have been one of the ideal situations for the current study if the access to the naturally occurring environment of PA interviews in the two banks was not an issue. In other words, it may have been one of the perfect scenarios to observe the antagonistic characteristics, persuasive appeals and dominant stylistic aspects in the talk of appraisees and appraisers within the natural setting of the feedback interviews of PA. For example, in one recent study, Mieroop & Vrolix (2014) used discourse analysis (DA) technique to analyse the observations from naturally occurring environment of three different PA interviews between supervisors and their subordinates.

Of course other than the access issue, there were other factors to consider too. For example, in spite of it appearing to be one of the ideal scenarios in case the access was not an issue, it may not have worked well in the context of the two banks. This is because the main PA instrument which is used by the two banks is the PA forms. While the appraisal interviews (AIs) or feedback interviews on the PA of appraiseesare considered as secondary. For example, they are formally needed in case the appraisees receive much unexpected results in envelops. This means that they occur merely on a need base after the individual results of the PA of the appraisees are compiled and the grades are sent back to them in individual envelops from their head offices. Moreover, even if they occur on the need base, they have no impact on the grades which are already distributed to the appraisees.

There has been a substantial discussion in chapter 2 (Critical literature review on rhetoric) regarding DA from the perspective of rhetoric and interviews. Also, the examples of some studies which used rhetorical approach to discourse analysis for analysing the interviews' transcripts as mentioned earlier have been provided. Here I will further throw light on the link between discourse and rhetoric. Discourse and rhetoric are established fields in the

discipline of discursive psychology. This presents the RA as quite comparable to the DA, particularly in the field of discursive psychology. Potter (2012) asserted that one of the features that make contemporary discursive psychology distinctive from most other psychological methods is that it works primarily with audio or video records of interaction happening in the natural setting. This encourages the process of gaining access and consent, developing appropriate ethics scripts and working closely with participants in a way that leads to sustain a strong degree of trust as an integral part of the research process (Potter, 2012). One may be expecting the same in case of the interviews, especially if the interviews provide an opportunity of interaction between the interviewer and participants on one-to-one basis.

In regard to the issue of gaining access in the natural setting, Potter (2012) noted that gaining access and consent can be a challenge and it is likely that researchers sometimes use other forms of information collection techniques, such as questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, etc. because they expect the refusal of access. This is the reason that the study of discourse analysis has numerous examples where data is gathered through interviews. The case was more or less same for the current study in terms of issues with access. Surely, one may expect high level of sensitivity and confidentiality risks involved for both the banks and their employees in case of their approval of the access to their natural setting of the feedback interviews of PA. Therefore, such refusal was not something unexpected to deal with in the event of the current research.

In view of what has been discussed regarding the DA, one may say that when the interviews are regarded as one of the adequate methods for the DA then they should be regarded as the same for the RA. Moreover, if the interviews, especially the semi-structured interviews are not commonly considered for the RA due to the issue of having limited physically present audience at the time of the interviews (e.g., which raises the issue that to whom such rhetoric would be directed to or who would be persuaded by such rhetoric) then this has already been discussed in the previous chapter (Rhetorical framework). Therefore, the audience should not be an issue.

5.6. Other Reasons for Using Interviews as a Method of Data Collection

Considering of the rhetorical framework and the three research questions, the focus of the current study has been on the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their bank. Along with that, the dominant stylistic aspects in their talk are also considered. Therefore, one may argue that it did not matter whether these arguments were captured in the naturally occurring environment of the feedback interviews of PA or in a separate one-to-one interviews with the appraisees and appraisers where they constructed the reality of their PA process based on their real life experiences (as in case of this research). In other words, when the research is to know how the appraisees and appraisers are rhetorical beings who construct the reality of their PA process (e.g., based on the argumentative, persuasive and stylistics dimensions of rhetoric in their talk), so it does not matter whether they were observed in the natural environment where the feedback interviews of the PA were taking place or they were interviewed about the PA process of their banks in a separate one-to-one interviews' sessions.

Moreover, a number of scholars have theorized that interviews are an excellent method for attaining knowledge of what people think and believe and how their thinking shape their behaviours (Singleton et al., 1993). Accordingly, in the consideration that the behaviours (e.g., in terms of talk) of the appraisees and appraisers in the interviews are shaped by what they think or believe about their PA process, their rhetoric in the interviews' sessions may also be considered as what they think or believe about their PA process. And so, they may argue and counter-argue accordingly (e.g., leads us back to Billig's notions discussed in chapter 4).

Furthermore, I have discussed a number of studies in chapter 2 (Critical literature review on rhetoric) where 'text' is used for the RA. Similarly, interviews' transcripts may also be seen as 'text' on which RA can be conducted. For example, in case of the current study, semi-structured interviews' transcripts provided a detailed view of the different aspects of PA that were constructed by the appraisees and appraisers. Therefore, making the transcripts worthy of RA in order to examine how different aspects of their PA are constructed by them with the use of argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. Needless to say that if these dimensions are evident in the interviews'

transcripts (or if these dimensions are identified though the RA of the interviews' transcripts) then they may also be regarded as a mundane feature of their talk in the banks.

In addition, it can be argued that in the naturally occurring setting of the feedback interviews of PA, the appraisees and appraisers would have been observed only on the occasion of those feedback interviews. As I have previously discussed, this does not particularly fit the context of the PA of the two banks. For example, PA forms are the main method used for the PA in the two banks. Moreover, such observations may not have given an idea about the rhetorical positions of the appraisees and appraisers regarding their overall process of PA, but their rhetorical positions may only have been limited to the outcomes of their PA process (e.g., in terms of the grades they achieved). In other words, their arguments may have been limited because of the limited argumentative context, and so they may have argued about a specific issue concerning their PA, not their overall PA process. Similarly, according to Malhotra & Birks (2007), semi-structured interviews provide the researcher with multi-faceted and well-grounded accounts. This is what was particularly needed in case of the current research (e.g., because the focus of the current study is to identify both the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers in order to know how they construct the reality of their PA). Therefore, the semi-structured interviews with the appraisees and appraisers provided them with an opportunity to cover their entire PA process through their talk. For example, they covered a variety of areas regarding their PA process rather than merely covering the incidents from the feedback interviews of their PA. Of course the questions asked in the semi-structured interviews kept them focused. Thus, the semi-structured interviews seem to be a very profound choice that was made to collect the data for the current study as they provided more breadth in the data to answer the three main research questions.

5.7. The Conduction of Interviews

The appraisees and appraisers were interviewed on one-to-one basis in the current study. These interviews were conducted at the regional headquarter, area office and some local branches of the two banks. There were a total of 69 interviews conducted. All the interviewees, appraisees and appraisers, were the managerial level employees in the two banks. However, not all the 69 interviews have been made the part of the analysis for a number of reasons that will be described in the later portion of this chapter. In addition to the 69 interviews, there were 2 more interviews which were conducted at the area office of bank A and regional headquarter of bank B. These interviews were the orientation

interviews with the HR heads of the two banks. The purpose of these orientation interviews was to get an overview of these two banks and their PA process.

The entry level qualification to be at the managerial level positions is typically high in the banks of Pakistan, and English is widely taught since the primary school levels, because of its being one of the two official languages of Pakistan. However, throughout the interviews, even though all the questions which were asked from the participants were in English, the participants were not restricted to use English alone in their responses. The other official language, Urdu was also widely used by the participants.

This was accepted so that the arguments of the participants in the interviews would not be handicapped due to language restriction. However, this led to the need of translating the bits in Urdu to English before they could all be fully transcribed. This indeed was time consuming and increased the work load for me as all the data obtained through interviews was translated and transcribed. However, later the arguments which were recorded in the Urdu language were completely screened out, and the analysis was conducted only on the arguments which were recorded in English. This was done purely to analyse the arguments as they were posed by the appraisees and appraisers so that the data does not lose it originality due to translation and interpretation issues. Particularly, the issues related to back-translation.

For example, when translating the interviews' transcripts, the dilemma is how to ensure agreement on the translation of source data (Temple & Young, 2004). Edwards (1998) discussed back-translation technique for ensuring agreement of correct description of a text or transcripts. Back-translation means translating an already translated document back into the original language (Pym, 2010). The idea is that the author can then verify whether the translation covers all aspects of the original (Mohatlane, 2014). However, there are concerns associated with back-translation. As such, Khosravani & Dastjerdi (2013) asserted that back-translation is a popular technique to evaluate the accuracy of translation; however, its application in different situations is often subject to controversy.

One of the inadequacies of back-translation may be noticed when the equivalent of a word does not exist in the target culture and as a result, it is translated with a phrase (Triandis, 1972). In this regard, back-translation may be somewhat misleading (Khosravani & Dastjerdi, 2013). Similarly, Vitray (2007: 13) argued that "A back-translation will not

result in a text that is identical to the source text''. Whereas Paegelow (2008: 12) maintained that ''back-translations are no guarantee of accuracy''. Moreover, Mohatlane (2014: 175) discussed a number of limitations associated with back-translation: ''there is no significant usage of the translator's language experience (linguistic expertise). There is no stylistic beauty - back-translation does not cater for the expression of meaning or nuances of every word. Back-translation is only meant to establish whether the words in a back translated text match with those of the original text''. Therefore, these issues were avoided by analysing only those arguments which were originally in English.

5.8. Semi-structured Interviews' Questions: Design and Implementation

Some examples of the questions which were considered in the semi-structured interviews with the appraisees and appraisers are: How would you describe the management style of the bank? Do you closely supervise/manage or do you give the employees much autonomy/scope? / Are you closely supervised/ managed or do you have much autonomy/ scope? Could you describe the bank's PA system? Could you discuss if you are generally satisfied with the extent of involvement of you and your appraisees in appraising their performance? / Could you discuss if you are generally satisfied with the extent of involvement of you and your appraiser in your PA? What happens prior to the actual PA? Could you explain how you feel about the quality of feedback you provide on the PA of appraisees? / Could you explain how do you find the quality of the feedback you receive on your PA? How easily can your appraisees communicate their concerns to you? / How easily can you communicate your concerns to your appraiser? Can appraisees appeal against unfair PA decisions in the bank? / Can you appeal against unfair PA decisions in the bank? Have you ever personally felt that you have unfairly appraised an appraisee? / Have you ever personally felt that you have been appraised unfairly by an appraiser? Do you think PA system in the bank is generally fair? Do you think PA of appraisees has an overall positive/ negative impact on their job performance? / Do you think your performance appraisal has an overall positive/negative impact on your job performance? Can you suggest the possible ways to improve the present PA system in the bank? Are there any issues based on your own experience of appraising performance within this bank which you would like to add? / Are there any issues based on your own experience of PA in the bank which you would like to add?

It can be observed from these examples that majority of the questions which were considered for both the appraisees and appraisers were quite similar. When these questions

were asked from the appraisers, they were asked from the appraisers' perspective while when they were asked from the appraisees, they were asked from the appraisees' perspective. Here I have used the 'slash sign' to distinguish between specific questions which were considered for both the appraisees and appraisers in the interviews. While the other questions mentioned as an examples here can be easily applied to both the appraisees and appraisers without such distinction.

As far as all the questions which were considered for the semi-structured interviews are concerned, there were two sets of 36 questions each which were considered for the appraisees and appraisers. This makes a total of 72 questions. These sets are provided in the appendices, appendix A and B, where appendix A represents set 1 (questions for appraisers), and appendix B represents set 2 (questions for appraisees). Along with these two sets of 36 questions, there were several probing questions which were asked from the appraisees and appraisers. The probing questions were derived from the answers of appraisees and appraisers on these 36 questions. However, there was no hard and fast rule to follow these questions. As previously mentioned, the order in which these questions were executed was not the same for every respondent. This was because many questions were unavoidably answered by the appraisees and appraisers when they were answering other questions (including both the probing questions and the questions from their respective sets). Therefore, it was not unusual for me to skip many questions from each of the sets while interviewing the appraisees and appraisers. As far as the formulation of the two sets of questions is concerned, I did not take any ready-made design, but formulate the sets by myself. Surely, the literature on PA assisted me in this regard. In addition, as I have already had conducted the orientation interviews with the two HR heads of the banks (e.g., regarding the PA practiced in their banks) before formulating the sets of questions, so these interviews also aided in the formulation of the two sets. The reason for designing the sets of questions for the semi-structured interviews myself, was to maintain the originality of the research process, as well as to avoid implementation errors. For example, when the designer and the implementer is the same person, there is a high possibility of effective implementation.

5.9. The Themes to Organise the Findings and Analysis

Based on the 'final interviews' extracts', there are seven themes which have been used to organise the findings and analysis. I have used the words 'final interviews' extracts'

because the interviews' talk of appraisees and appraisers has been screened at multiple levels, due to various different reasons before the extracts that are used in the analysis were finalized (or selected). For example, previously I have discussed with reasons that only the interviews' extracts which were originally in English language have been considered for the analysis. However, this is only one of the levels of screening employed. I will be later discussing in details all the levels of screening that have led to reach to the 'final interviews' extracts' which are used for the rhetorical analysis.

Accordingly, when I use the words 'final interviews' extracts', it means that the seven themes have been derived from only those responses (or extracts) of the appraisees and appraisers that were selected for the analysis. Here it is important to emphasise that those 'final interviews' extracts' are not merely the random responses of the appraisees and appraisers which derived the seven themes. Surely the appraisers and appraisees were responding to the questions from the two sets, as well as the probing questions in those 'final interviews' extracts'. Therefore, the questions to which the appraisees and appraisers were responding in those 'final interviews' extract' have also been considered in developing these seven themes.

Now the question is why the 'final interviews' extracts' specifically have been considered for the formulation of the seven themes? For example, the themes could also have been predetermined in the consideration of the two sets of questions which were predetermined for the appraisees and appraisers. However, this would not have been practicable in view of the probing questions and multiple screening levels that were used on the interviews' talk of the appraisees and appraisers. Hence, the material of the 'final interviews' extracts' was essentially considered to develop the themes. Accordingly, the main purpose of the seven themes is to keep the 'final interviews' extracts' organised for the analysis, under some themes, so that they do not look as random talk and their background is clear. The idea will be better understood as this chapter will proceed towards end.

The themes are:

1. The issue of PA forms.
2. The issue of the quota system in grading the appraisees.
3. The issue of fairness in PA process.
4. The issue of feedback in PA process.

5. The issue of appeal in PA process.
6. The issue of what appraisees and appraisers feel about each other relating to the PA process.
7. The issue of appraisees and appraisers' future plans in the presence of current PA process.

5.10. The Convenience Sampling and the Sample Selection Process

The convenience sampling technique was used to select the sample participants from the two banks. It is one of the non-probability sampling techniques. Non probability sampling techniques are quite popular where the sample size is not critical for the study. As such, they enable the researchers to rely on their own judgements regarding the sample size. This fits the case of the current study. For example, I was not on the quest of obtaining a very large sample size. This was because of using the semi-structured interviews as a method of data collection. Therefore, a large sample size was not critical for the current study. In fact, a very large sample size would have resulted into a massive and difficult to manage data for the analysis. Similarly, in the consideration of the 'final interviews' transcripts' that are used for analysis (after going through multiple levels of screening), having a very small sample size would have reduced the possibility of obtaining enough data for analysis. Therefore, a small sample size was also not critical for the current study. Accordingly, with the use of the convenience sampling technique, I was able to use my judgement to select an appropriate sample size for the study. The sample selection process had been conducted in the consideration of the dyads that will be explained as this chapter will advance further.

Moreover, according to Saunders et al., (2012), one reason for pursuing convenience sampling technique is to select those cases which are easiest to obtain for reaching the sample size, and the sample selection process continues until the required sample size is achieved. Therefore, convenience sampling technique is typically considered as a quick way for obtaining the required sample size. Accordingly, the basic data can be collected from the sample (participants) quickly and efficiently (Sekaran, 2002). Thisalso fits to the case of the current study. For example, I had formal permissions from both the banks to conduct the interviews with their appraisees and appraisers. This had made the sample selection process quick and easy. However, the selection of the appraisees and appraisers for achieving the sample size was also contingent to their willingness of becoming the part of such interviews. In other words, both the banks had provided me with the access to

reach to their appraisees and appraisers, but they did not enforce them to be the part of my interviews.

This can be better understood with the discussion on the sample selection process. Therefore, I will briefly discuss that how the sample selection process worked. Basically the sample selection process and the data collection process occurred simultaneously. Moreover, these processes were conducted in the consideration of the dyadic relationships between the appraisers and appraisees. For example, after getting the access to the banks, my first step in the process was to approach the individual appraiser for his or her consent for the interview. After achieving the consent, the second step was to interview him or her. The third step in the process was to approach the appraisees who were appraised by him or her in order to get their consent for the interviews. After the consent was achieved from them, the fourth step was to interview them on one-to-one basis. And then the same process was repeated for the next appraiser and his or her respective appraisees. In case the appraiser did not provide his or her consent for the interview in the first place, the next appraiser was approached for the interview's consent. The appraiser not only had to provide the consent for the interview, but also had to be interviewed before his or her respective appraisees were approached. Surely, such dyadic relationships between the appraisers and appraisees were considered so that their arguments could be analysed in dyads, and the convenience sampling technique adequately fitted to the purpose. Accordingly, this potentially provides the realism to the current research. As such, it would have been difficult to achieve such dyadic relationships based on selecting the sample of random numbers (e.g., in case the list of the selected appraisers and appraisees to be interviewed was generated through the use of random numbers). Similarly, Ferber (1977) argued that the data obtained from a convenience sample can convey much better feeling of realism than if the example came from random numbers.

In regard to the sample selection process, an interesting trend had been observed. The trend was that when an appraiser gave his or her consent to be the part of the interview and had been interviewed, majority of the appraisees whom he or she had appraised also gave their consent to be interviewed. At the surface level, knowing about this trend may contradict with the idea of finding antagonistic characteristics of the arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers (e.g., I am referring to research question 1). This is because the appraisees may be perceived in the harmony with their appraisers. However, at the deeper

level (e.g., the findings and analysis of the talk of appraisees and appraisers in the next chapter), it may reveal a different story.

5.11. The Sample Size and Dyads

As I have previously discussed that with the use of the convenience sampling technique, I was able to use my judgements to select an appropriate sample size for the study, so now the question is, what the sample size was?

A total number of 35 interviews were conducted in bank A, while in bank B, they were 34 in total. This made a sample size of 69 which was considered for the study (including both the appraisees and appraisers).In bank A, 29 interviews were conducted with the appraisees, and the number of interviews which were conducted in bank B with the appraisees were also the same. Whereas 6 interviews were conducted with the appraisers in bank A, and 5 with the appraisers in bank B. As mentioned earlier, the sample selection process and the interviews with the sample (appraisees and appraisers) happened simultaneously in the consideration of the dyadic relationship between the appraisers and appraisees. This formed 11 dyads where each of the 11 dyads represented 1 appraiser.

Therefore, in all the cases of 11 dyads, appraisers were approached for the consent and interviews before their respective appraisees were approached. Therefore, the number of appraisees to be interviewed was dependent upon the number of appraisees appraised by each of the 11 appraisers. However, I tried to conduct maximum interviews with the appraisees that were appraised by one appraiser before moving to another appraiser and his or her respective appraisees. The same course continued till the last appraiser in the dyads and the maximum appraisees that were appraised by him or her were interviewed.

Moreover, in all the cases of the 11 dyads, appraisers and appraisees' consent for interviews and the actual interviews with them happened simultaneously (e.g., there was no considerable lapse of time between obtaining appraisers and appraisees' consent for interviews and actually interviewing them).

The two tables below show the dyadic relationship between appraisers and appraisees in both the banks. However, in order to understand the two tables (1 and 2), it is important to understand the meanings of abbreviations used in the tables. They are:

D = Dyads.
AR = No. of appraisers interviewed in each dyad.
AE = No. of appraisees interviewed in each dyad who were appraised by their appraiser in that Dyad.

Bank A

D	AR	AE
1	1	4
2	1	5
3	1	6
4	1	4
5	1	5
6	1	5

Table 1 Dyadic relationship between appraisers and appraisees for bank A

Bank B

D	AR	AE
1	1	5
2	1	6
3	1	7
4	1	6
5	1	5

Table 2 Dyadic relationship between appraisers and appraisees for bank B

All together, these two tables show 11 dyads, 1-6 in bank A and 1-5 in bank B. Each dyad represents 1 appraiser and a number of appraisees appraised by him or her. This dyadic relationship is later discussed in this chapter, with the consideration of other factors, under the heading,'interviews' distribution and the final dyads considered for the rhetorical analysis (RA)'. Therefore, the tables and discussion under the stated heading will also explain the journey from the initial 11 dyads to 7 dyads that are considered for the analysis in the current study.

In addition, the demographic characteristics of the sample were also taken into consideration in terms of the involvement of both the male and female representatives in the sample. However the demographic mix prevalent in the two banks had very few female ratios to the male. Therefore, the female participants of interviews were evidently less in number than the male participants. There were only 8 females as compared to 27 males interviewed in bank A. While in bank B, the number of female participants was even lower. Only 2 females as compared to 32 males were interviewed in bank B.

5.12. Convenience Sampling and the Issue of Generalizability: The Perspective of the Current Study

There are some shortcomings to using the convenience sampling as well; for example, when using a convenience sampling technique, there is limited room for estimating its generalization. The responsibility is then usually laid on the researcher to demonstrate that the sample is representative of population. According to Ferber (1977), this can be demonstrated by comparing the distributions of sample and population with the characteristics relevant to the topic under study. Having said that, the question which should come in our minds is that whether this sort of generalization is practicable in view of the current study?

The answer to this question is not straightforward. We need to go back to the background. In view of the potential for controversy in PA, the focus of the current research is on the rhetorical construction of PA where the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in appraisees and appraisers' talk are analysed. In other words, the focus is on how they construct the reality of their PA with the use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. This is done to answer three main research questions (which are mentioned in chapter 1 and 4, introduction and rhetorical framework).

Even if we keep the view of the potential for controversy in PA aside, appraisees and appraisers can still be regarded as the rhetorical beings. This is because they are human beings. A number of authors' work, such as Fisher (1978), Kennedy (1991) and Herrick (2016), also suggest that humans are rhetorical beings. For example, According to Herrick (2016: 06), "If rhetoric is in part the systematic study of persuasion, recognising how crucial persuasion is to daily life may suggest that this art deserves our attention". Therefore, when we say "the persuasiveness of persuasiveness", it is not to condemn rhetoric or persuasion, but it is to start appreciating the centrality of rhetoric or persuasion in life, and to recognise humans as rhetorical beings (Herrick, 2016: 06). Accordingly, based on the view that humans are rhetorical beings, the current study recognises appraisees and appraisers as rhetorical beings before anything else. I will represent the notion with the use of Aristotle' (1991) syllogism and enthymeme. Humans are rhetorical beings. Appraisees and appraisers are human beings. Therefore, appraisees and appraisers are rhetorical beings because they are human beings. Accordingly, their talk is worthy of rhetorical attention.

Now in view of the potential for controversy associated with PA, it has been previously discussed in chapter 3 (the critical literature review on PA) that how the potential for controversy associated with PA created an exigency for the rhetorical attention. For example, due to the potential for controversy associated with PA, appraisees and appraisers are frequently considered to have potentially different interests and views regarding PA. These different interests and views may not be apparent at the surface level, but at the deeper level (e.g., through the analysis of the appraisers and appraisees' talk based on the identification of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions in it), they may apparently be distinguishable. Therefore, the exigency to focus on the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers is created (e.g., to know how they construct the reality of their PA with the use of argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk). This means that both the arguments in their talk and how the arguments in their talk are constructed for persuasion have been important matters to consider in the current study. This is because without knowing the arguments, it is impossible to know how they have been constructed.

Hence, in the consideration of all this discussion, the arguments of the appraisees and appraisers may or may not be generalized in the view that these appraisees and appraisers would have gone through different experiences, and their opinions would be based on their

experiences, which are then reflected in their arguments. However, in view of the PA as a potentially controversial practice, there is a better scope that the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric which are used by them may also be used by the other appraisees, appraisers and parties in different organisations in order to construct the reality of their PA. And so, by focusing on these dimensions in the talk of the parties to a potentially controversial phenomena, such as PA, the researchers can identify the antagonistic, persuasive and stylistic characteristics in their talk to determine that how the reality of that potentially controversial phenomena is constructed.

5.13 Ethical Concerns and Approval

In the context of research, ethics refer to the standards of behaviour that guide your conduct in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of your work, or are affected by it (Saunders et al., 2012). For example, they are the selected appraisees and appraisers, and the two banks, in case of the current research. Sapsford & Abbott (1998) stated that the first principle of research ethics to be found in all the various codes of conduct imposed by professional and academic organisations is that the subject of the research should not be harmed by it. Treating the information given by the respondents as strictly confidential and guarding their privacy is one of the primary responsibilities of the researcher (Sekaran, 2002).Therefore, the anonymity of the selected appraisees and appraisers, and the two banks, is complied with their demands. As such, they provided me with an approval of using any sort of available information about them, as long as that information does not contain their names. Moreover, Cooper & Schindler (2003) stated that the researcher should make clear to the interviewees that they have the right to decline responding to any question and should not feel coerced into participation as they have the right to privacy. This was also made clear to all the participants during the course of interviews.

As far as the audio recording of the interviews of the participants is concerned, majority of the participants gave their consent for the audio recording of their interviews in both the banks as in bank A, 21 interviews were audio recorded. While in bank B, the number was slightly higher than bank A as 22 interviews were audio recoded there. This left 14 interviews in bank A and 12 interviews in bank B as unrecorded. In the interviews where recording was not permitted by the participants, they permitted me to write down their arguments in my interviews' notebook during the entire course of such interviews.

Therefore, all these ethical matters were taken into absolute consideration. Similarly, the current study complied with the specific ethical guidelines and procedures of Durham University Business School, during the whole course of the study. Certainly, it was after receiving the ethical approval from the Durham University Business School, the data collection process for the current research started.

5.14. Interviews' Distribution and the Final Dyads for the Findings and Analysis

There is only one appraiser as compared to a number of appraisees in each dyad. Therefore, one appraiser, and a number of appraisees appraised by him or her, form one dyad. In other words, I have followed the dyadic relationship between appraisees and appraisers, for the data collection and analysis, in the current study. Initially, there were 11 dyads as there were total 11 appraisers whom I had interviewed. However, they were later screened down to 7 for the analysis. Therefore, the selected extracts from these 7 dyads are the unit of analysis in the current study. These extracts were selected after the further screening. This screening was not meant to further eliminate the dyads, but it was done on the arguments of the appraisees and appraisers from the 7 dyads. How this screening was achieved will be discussed later in this chapter.

The reason for choosing 7, but not 11, dyads were that the interviews of 4 appraisers were not audio recorded because they did not provide their consent for the audio recording of their interviews. Even though I had noted down those 4 interviews in my interviews' notebook, but due to the possibility that noting could miss out the important substance for the analysis, I preferred only the audio recorded interviews for the analysis. However, screening out those 4 appraisers also led me to screen out all those appraisees' interviews (both recorded and unrecorded) who were appraised by those 4 appraisers as including them would have disrupted the dyadic relationship between the appraisees and appraisers which I had aimed to follow in the analysis. This dyadic relation is very important for the current study, especially in the light of the first research question which required me to explore the antagonistic characteristics of the arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks.

Similarly, a number of appraisees, who belonged to the 7 selected dyads, were unwilling to have their interviews audio recorded. Hence, their interviews were not audio recorded but noted down in my interviews' notebook. Accordingly, those interviews were also screened out from the analysis due to the same reason that the noting could miss out the important

substance for the analysis. So the initial 69 interviews (35 from Bank A and 34 from Bank B), later screened down to 32 interviews (14 from Bank A and 18 from Bank B) for the consideration of the analysis.

The tables (3-9) below will help in understanding that how from the initial 69 interviews, 32 interviews could make it for the consideration of the analysis in the current study, and how it resulted into 7 dyads from 11.

Total Interviews' Distribution	**Bank A**	**Bank B**
Total Interviews	**35**	**34**
Total Appraisers' Interviews	**6**	**5**
Total Appraisees' Interviews	**29**	**29**
Total Females' Interviews	8	2
Total Males' Interviews	27	32
Total Interviews	**= 35**	**= 34**
Total Female Appraisers' Interview	2	1
Total Male Appraisers' Interviews	4	4
Total Appraisers' Interviews	**= 6**	**= 5**
Total Female Appraisees' Interviews	6	1

Total Male Appraisees' Interviews	23	28
Total Appraisees' Interviews	**= 29**	**= 29**

Table 3 The total distribution of the 69 interviews conducted in bank A and B

Thetable 3 shows the total distribution of the 69 interviews, which were conducted for the current study, in the two banks (A and B). This distribution is based on how many interviews were conducted in each of the two banks, how many females and males were interviewed in each of the two banks, how many female and male appraisers' interviews were conducted in each of the two banks, and last but not least, how many female and male appraisees' interviews were conducted in each of the two banks.

Total Interviews' Distribution Based on Whether Recorded or Unrecorded	**Bank A**	**Bank B**
Total Recorded Interviews	**21**	**22**
Total Unrecorded Interviews	**14**	**12**
Total Interviews	**= 35**	**= 34**
Total Appraisers' Recorded Interviews	**3**	**4**
Total Appraisees' Recorded Interviews	**18**	**18**
Total Recorded Interviews	**= 21**	**= 22**
Total Appraisers' Unrecorded Interviews	**3**	**1**
Total Appraisees' Unrecorded Interviews	**11**	**11**
Total Unrecorded Interviews	**= 14**	**= 12**

Total Females' Recorded Interviews	3	2
Total Males' Recorded Interviews	18	20
Total Recorded Interviews	**= 21**	**= 22**
Total Females' Unrecorded Interviews	5	0
Total Males' Unrecorded Interviews	9	12
Total Unrecorded Interviews	**= 14**	**= 12**
Total Female Appraisers' Recorded Interviews	1	1
Toatal Male Appraisers' Recorded Interviews	2	3
Total Appraisers' Recorded Interviews	**= 3**	**= 4**
Total Female Appraisees' Recorded Interviews	2	1
Total Male Appraisees' Recorded Interviews	16	17
Total Appraisees' Recorded Interviews	**= 18**	**=18**
Total Female Appraisers' Unrecorded Interviews	1	**0**

Total Male Appraisers' Unrecorded Interviews	2	1
Total Appraisers' Unrecorded Interviews	**= 3**	**= 1**
Total Female Appraisees' Unrecorded Interviews	4	0
Toatal Male Appraisees' Unrecorded Interviews	7	11
Total Appraisees' Unrecorded Interviews	**= 11**	**=11**

Table 4 The total distribution of the 69 interviews based on whether recorded/unrecorded

The table 4 shows the total distribution of the 69 interviews in the two banks based on the total number of recorded and unrecorded interviews conducted in each of the two banks. The table is further divided into different sections based on recorded and unrecorded interviews, such as the total number of appraisers' recorded and unrecorded interviews in each of the two banks, the total number of appraisees' recorded and unrecorded interviews in each of the two banks, the total females and males' recorded and unrecorded interviews in each of the two banks, the total female and male appraisers' recorded and unrecorded interviews in each of the two banks, and finally, the total female and male appraisees' recorded and unrecorded interviews in each of the two banks.

The next two tables (5 and 6) below show the overall arrangement of dyads in both the bank, A and B. For example, these two tables show the arrangement of 6 dyads in bank A, and 5 in bank B, which makes a total of 11 dyads. Therefore, these two tables (5 and 6) will create an understanding that how the 7 dyads were selected out of 11 for the consideration of the analysis. For example, the 7 selected dyads were dyads 2, 5 and 6 from Bank A, and 1, 2, 4 and 5 from Bank B. These were later changed into dyads 1-7, which will be explained in the later tables. However, before moving to all the remaining tables (5-9), it is important to understand the meanings of abbreviations used in these tables. They are:

D= Dyads.

AR= No. of appraisers interviewed in each dyad.

AR (M/F) = No. of appraisers interviewed in each dyad who were male/female.

AR (R/UR) = No. of appraisers interviewed in each dyad whose interviews were recorded/unrecorded.

AE= No. of appraisees interviewed in each dyad who were appraised by their appraiser in that dyad.

AE (M/F) = No. of appraisees interviewed in each dyad who were male/female.

AE (M/F-R) = No. of appraisees interviewed in each dyad who were male/female, and their interviews were recorded.

AE (M/F-UR) = No. of appraisees interviewed in each dyad who were male/female, and their interviews were unrecorded.

TAE (R) = Total no. of appraisees interviewed in each dyad whose interviews were recorded.

Overall Dyads' Arrangement in Bank A								
D	AR	AR (M/F)	AR (R/UR)	AE	AE (M/F)	AE (M/F-R)	AE (M/F-UR)	TAE (R)
1	1	M	UR	4	M: 4 F: 0	M: 2 F: 0	M: 2 F: 0	2
2	1	M	R	5	M: 3 F: 2	M: 2 F: 1	M:1 F: 1	3
3	1	F	UR	6	M: 4 F: 2	M: 4 F: 0	M: 0 F: 2	4
4	1	M	UR	4	M: 4 F: 0	M: 1 F: 0	M: 3 F: 0	1
5	1	F	R	5	M: 3 F: 2	M: 3 F: 1	M: 0 F: 1	4
6	1	M	R	5	M: 5 F: 0	M: 4 F: 0	M: 1 F: 0	4

Table 5 Overall arrangement of dyads in bank A

Overall Dyads' Arrangement in Bank B								
D	AR	AR (M/F)	AR (R/UR)	AE	AE (M/F)	AE (M/F-R)	AE (M/F-UR)	TAE (R)
1	1	M	R	5	M: 4	M: 2	M: 2	3

					F: 1	F: 1	F: 0	
2	1	M	R	6	M: 6 F: 0	M: 3 F: 0	M:3 F: 0	3
3	1	M	UR	7	M: 7 F: 0	M: 4 F: 0	M: 3 F: 0	4
4	1	M	R	6	M: 6 F: 0	M: 4 F: 0	M: 2 F: 0	4
5	1	F	R	5	M: 5 F: 0	M: 4 F: 0	M: 1 F: 0	4

Table 6 Overall arrangement of dyads in bank B

In consideration of the recorded interviews of appraisers and their respective appraisees form Bank A, the next table 7 shows that how the dyads 2, 5, and 6 were selected for the consideration of the analysis. Therefore, there were a total of 14 interviews from Bank A, including 3 from appraisers and 11 from appraisees, which were selected for the consideration of the analysis (e.g., 1 female appraiser and 2 female appraisees, and 2 male appraisers and 9 male appraisees).

Selected Dyads from Bank A								
D	AR	AR (M/F)	AR (R/UR)	AE	AE (M/F)	AE (M/F-R)	AE (M/F-UR)	TAE (R)
1	1	M	UR	4	M: 4 F: 0	M: 2 F: 0	M: 2 F: 0	2
2	1	M	R	5	M: 3 F: 2	M: 2 F: 1	M:1 F: 1	3
3	1	F	UR	6	M: 4 F: 2	M: 4 F: 0	M: 0 F: 2	4
4	1	M	UR	4	M: 4 F: 0	M: 1 F: 0	M: 3 F: 0	1
5	1	F	R	5	M: 3 F: 2	M: 3 F: 1	M: 0 F: 1	4
6	1	M	R	5	M: 5 F: 0	M: 4 F: 0	M: 1 F: 0	4

Table 7: Selected dyads from bank A

Similarly, in consideration of the recorded interviews of appraisers and their respective appraisees form Bank B, the following table 8 shows that how the dyads 1, 2, 4, and 5 were selected for the consideration of the analysis. Therefore, there were a total of 18 interviews from Bank B, including 4 from appraisers and 14 from appraisees, which were selected for the consideration of the analysis (e.g., 1 female appraiser and 1 female appraisee, and 3 male appraisers and 13 male appraisees).

Selected Dyads from Bank B								
D	AR	AR (M/F)	AR (R/UR)	AE	AE (M/F)	AE (M/F-R)	AE (M/F-UR)	TAE (R)
1	1	M	R	5	M: 4 F: 1	M: 2 F: 1	M: 2 F: 0	3
2	1	M	R	6	M: 6 F: 0	M: 3 F: 0	M:3 F: 0	3
3	1	M	UR	7	M: 7 F: 0	M: 4 F: 0	M: 3 F: 0	4
4	1	M	R	6	M: 6 F: 0	M: 4 F: 0	M: 2 F: 0	4
5	1	F	R	5	M: 5 F: 0	M: 4 F: 0	M: 1 F: 0	4

Table 8 Selected dyads from bank B

The next table 9 shows the relocation of the dyads from 2 to 1, 5 to 2 and 6 to 3 (from bank A), and from 1 to 4, 2 to 5, 4 to 6 and 5 to 7 (from bank B),for the clarity in the analysis. This formed the final 7 dyads (e.g., dyads 1-7, as shown in the next table 9), which were selected for the consideration of the analysis. Accordingly, these were the final 7 dyads from which the final interviews' extracts, for the analysis, have been obtained. Of course, further screening has its role to play in the journey from the final 7 dyads to the analysis of the final interviews' extracts from the 7 dyads. How this further screening occurred, will be discussed shortly.

Relocation of the Final 7 Dyads from Bank A and B								
D	AR	AR	AR	AE	AE	AE	AE	TAE

		(M/F)	(R/UR)		(M/F)	(M/F-R)	(M/F-UR)	(R)
1	1	M	R	5	M: 3 F: 2	M: 2 F: 1	M:1 F: 1	3
2	1	F	R	5	M: 3 F: 2	M: 3 F: 1	M: 0 F: 1	4
2	1	M	R	5	M: 5 F: 0	M: 4 F: 0	M: 1 F: 0	4
4	1	M	R	5	M: 4 F: 1	M: 2 F: 1	M: 2 F: 0	3
5	1	M	R	6	M: 6 F: 0	M: 3 F: 0	M:3 F: 0	3
6	1	M	R	6	M: 6 F: 0	M: 4 F: 0	M: 2 F: 0	4
7	1	F	R	5	M: 5 F: 0	M: 4 F: 0	M: 1 F: 0	4

Table 9 Relocation of the final 7 dyads from bank A and B

5.15. Further Screening: From the Final 7 Dyads to the Analysis of the Final Interviews' Extracts from the 7 Dyads.

Before discussing the process from the final 7 dyads to the final interviews' extracts, I would like to emphasise that all the final interviews' extracts that are used in the findings and analysis are from the final 7 dyads and nothing but. The information collected from these 7 dyads (or from the appraiser and his or her respective appraisees in each of the 7 dyads) produced a large data set to analyse. This is because the average duration of each interview was an hour which makes it 32 hours (e.g., there were 32 interviews to consider in the final 7 dyads after all the previous screening). Therefore, it was not practicable to use the whole data derived from the 32interviews of the appraisers and appraisees (or from the 7 dyads). Moreover, the data attained from the interviews was in mixed language (e.g., English and Urdu). And I have previously discussed with the reasons that the data, which was not originally obtained in the English language, has not been used in the current study.

However, it was not simple to rearrange the data which was originally in English language, particularly in view of the dyadic relationship between the appriasees and appraisers which

the current study aimed to maintain in the analysis as well. For example, on some occasions, neither the appraiser, nor all of his or her respective appraisees, in each dyad, had used English in their responses to the similar questions. So such responses were screened out as the dyadic relationship among them could not be observed and interpreted accurately because of their use of different languages. On the other occasions, one or more than one appraisee, had used English in their responses to the particular questions, in each dyad, but their respective appraisers had not responded in English to the similar questions. So such responses were also screened out as the dyadic relationship among them could not be observed and interpreted accurately because of their use of different languages. In contrast to this, there were occasions where one or more appraisers had used English in their responses to the particular questions regarding their PA process, and one or more than one appraisee, in each dyad, had also used it in their responses to the similar questions. These responses were focussed for the analysis, and so they were not screened out as the dyadic relationship among such responses could be observed and interpreted accurately because of them being in the same language. Hence, I needed to rearrange the talk of the appraiser, and his or her respective appraisees, in each dyad, with the consideration of these three points. The idea was to reach to the final interviews' extracts for the analyses that were originally in English language. Nevertheless, merely English language was not the criterion; those final interviews' extracts had to show the dyadic relationship between the appraisers and appraisees. Consequently, the final inteviews' extracts for the analysis were identified by following the third point.

Therefore, the first step in the rearrangement process was to separate all the arguments of the appraiser and his or her respective appraisees that were originally in English, in each dyad, from the remaining arguments that were in Urdu. Once the English arguments were separated from the Urdu arguments in each of the dyads, I needed to identify the extracts which I could use for the analysis, keeping in view the dyadic relationship between the appraisers and appraisees. Hence, the next step that I had taken in this rearrangement process was to separate the extracts where a similarity or a difference of opinion could be easily observed, between the appraiser and his or her respective appraisees, in each dyad. For example, according to Billig (1991), in the situation of an exigency, rhetoric is usually linked with the matters of controversy. Therefore, the analysis of any rhetoric is situated in the context of a broader, ongoing controversial matter, of which people have difference in opinion (Symon, 2008). At least one appraisee in each dyad had to have a similarity or a difference of opinion with his or her respective appraiser, for the extracts of that appriasee

and his or her respective appraiser to be qualified for the analysis from that dyad. Not only that, but also the questions to which they had responded were also needed to be the same. If this condition was not met then the extracts were screened out from each of the dyads. This was done to maintain the dyadic relationship between the appraisees and appraisers in the analysis. Thus, such qualified extracts were the final interviews' extracts which are used in the analysis. The third step was simultaneously performed with the second step. This was to note the questions to which the appraisees and appraisers had responded in each of the final interviews' extracts. While the final step in the process has already been discussed earlier, which was particularly related to identifying the themes and organising these final interviews' extracts under the themes for the analysis (e.g., the themes were formulated in view of the final interviews' extracts and the questions, or issues to which the appraisees and appraisers had responded in each of the final interviews' extracts). As previously mentioned, these themes are:

1. The issue of PA forms.
2. The issue of the quota system in grading the appraisees.
3. The issue of fairness in PA process.
4. The issue of feedback in PA process.
5. The issue of appeal in PA process.
6. The issue of appraisees and appraisers attitude towards each other related to the PA process.
7. The issue of appraisees and appraisers future plans in the presence of current PA process.

5.16. Coding Process for the Findings and Analysis

The first research question (What are the antagonistic characteristics of the arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks?) is particularly concerned with the work of Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996). This means that in regard to answering the first research question, the focus of the analysis will particularly be on the argumentative dimensions or devices of rhetoric. Therefore, in consideration of the first research question, and the rhetorical framework (as discussed in the previous chapter), a numbers of codes have been decided for the analysis. These codes are not only the codes, but also, they are the argumentative rhetorical dimensions or

devices. Therefore, the final interviews' extracts of the appraisers and appraisees from the 7 dyads are examined for the presence of these codes. The codes are: arguments or counter-arguments /offensive or defensive rhetoric / ironizing or reifying discourses, ethnomethodological understanding of reflexivity, managing the dilemma of stake (stake invocation, stake inoculation, and stake confession), category entitlement, out-there-ness (empiricist discourse, consensus and corroboration and vivid detail), and ontological gerrymandering. Accordingly, the evidence of these rhetorical dimensions or devices in the final interviews' extracts of the appraisers and appraisees would suggest that they employ such rhetorical dimensions or devices in their talk so as to construct the reality of their PA. Therefore, they will assist in answering the first research question. Moreover, the findings and analysis will not only identify the presence of these rhetorical dimension or devices, but also will examine that how these dimensions or devices have been employed alone, in relation to each other (in case multiple argumentative dimensions or devices of rhetoric are detected), and in relation to the other persuasive dimensions or devices (such as logos, ethos and pathos) and the hunted stylistic features. Hence, this will determine how efficiently the argumentative dimensions or devices of rhetoric have been used by the appraisees and appraisers.

As far as the second research question (How do appraisees and appraisers employ persuasive appeals to construct the arguments in their talk regarding the PA practiced in their banks?) is concerned, three codes have been decided for the analysis. The codes are Aristotles' (1991) appeals to persuasion, logos, ethos and pathos. Therefore, these three persuasive dimensions or devices are also explored in the final interviews' extracts of the appraisees and appraisers. The presence of these dimensions or devices of rhetoric in the final interviews' extracts of the appraisers and appraisees would suggest that they employ such persuasive dimensions or devices in their talk so as to construct the reality of their PA. Next, in order to determine their efficient use, these rhetorical appeals are examined in terms of how they have been used alone, in relation to each other (in case more than one persuasive appeal is used in the final interviews' extracts) and the hunted stylistic aspects, and in relation to the argumentative dimensions or devices.

In order to answer the third research question (What are the dominant stylistic aspects of the arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks?), no codes have been decided for the analysis as it involves the hunting of the prominent figures of speech (tropes) in the final interviews' extracts of the appraisees and

appraisers from the 7 dyads. Moreover, the hunted tropes are examined in regard to their usage alone, in relation to each other (in case more than one trope is utilised in the final interviews' extracts), and in relation to the argumentative and persuasive rhetorical dimensions or devices utilised by the appraises and appraisers. This would determine how efficiently they have been used. Needless to say, that their efficient use by the appraisees and appraisers from the seven dyads, itself, prevented them from being overlooked in the hunting process.

Last but not least, it is important to mention that as the dyadic relationship between the appraisees and appraisers is followed in the findings and analysis, so it will provide an opportunity to compare the efficient use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric between the appraiser and his or her respective appraisee (or appraisees in case more than one appraisee's extract is presented under that appraiser). Hence, on the basis of this comparison, it may be decided that whose arguments among these two important parties of the PA process are more persuasive.

Chapter 6−Findings and Analysis

An Overview

The findings and analysis are organised under 7 themes where the final interviews' extracts from the 7 dyads have been analysed. I have previously discussed in chapter 5 (research methodology) that how the 7 dyads and final interviews' extracts from the 7 dyads have been selected, and how the 7 themes have been formulated. The dyadic relationship has been followed between the appraisees and appraisers throughout the analysis as well, except under themes 5 and 6 where not all the extracts represent the dyadic relationship. This happened because of the language based screening. However, because these seemed important themes as they are represented by 4 out of 7 appraisers under theme 5, and 6 out of 7 appraisers under theme 6, after the language based screening, so I have analysed them. Under theme 5, 2 dyads represent the dyadic relationship, while under theme 6, only 1 dyad shows the dyadic relationship. Moreover, I have not provided the concluding remarks at the end of every theme, and the conclusion is dealt in chapter 7 (conclusion and discussion). The reason for this is the individual nature of each extract in terms of the findings and analysis where each extract is the finding in itself.

Theme 1-The Issue of PA Forms

Extract 1

Appraiser (Dyad 1, Bank A): ***"In my opinion, our appraisal process is very well structured. It is the best appraisal process as compared to the other banks of the country. We are all very happy with it. The appraisal forms which we use are very well designed. I must say, our human resource division is very capable. Hats off to them for doing such a great job. "***

This argument emerged as a response of an appraiser (Dyad 1, Bank A) to a question in the interview regarding the design and implementation of PA forms in his bank. As the appraiser's bank uses the forms (Annual Performance Review Forms) for appraising the performance of its employees, one may expect him to talk about the basic mechanics of the

form in terms of its design and implementation, as a response to the question. However, the analysis of his argument revealed a different story.

The argument of the appraiser initially creates an imagery of a very competent performance appraisal system in the bank. Imagery is a process by which sensory information is represented in our working memory (MacInnis & Price, 1987). The figures of speech may play an important role in this process as they facilitate in creating the sensory information. According to Paivio (1969), if the verbal material is remembered better, the more easily it evokes the mental imagery. In other words, the proper use of the figures of speech by the writers or speakers in their writings or speeches can help their audience to remember their speeches or writings in a better way and so it is easier for their audience to evoke the mental imagery of their writings or speeches.

Therefore, looking deeply into the whole argument of the appraiser, one realises that the imagery of a very competent performance appraisal system is, in fact, not very strong. One reason of this can be his improper use of the figures of speech in the argument while the other can be the lack of logos or logical appeal of persuasion in it. Both the reasons are interlinked in the context of this appraiser's argument. How? We will find out soon in the analysis of this extract.

Regarding the matter of the absence of the logical appeal from the appraiser's argument, one can argue that when he acclaimed, "In my opinion, our appraisal process is very well structured" and "It is the best appraisal process as compared to the other banks of the country", he didn't provide any footings for his acclamation. This leads one to question that on what basis the appraiser is acclaiming that the appraisal process of his bank is "very well structured" and then comparing it with "the other banks of the country".

Even his use of the plural pronoun, "We", in his statement, "We are all very happy with it", doesn't give a clear idea that whom the appraiser is referring to. For example, is it him and the other appraisers, or the appraisees are also the part of his plural pronoun, "We"? Accordingly, the statement, "We are all very happy with it", doesn't seem to be explicitly stated by the appraiser and so affects his ethical appeal of the argument. Also, because of the appraiser's use of plural pronouns ("We", "our" and "them"), his argument suggests the strategy of consensus and corroboration. This strategy is basically used by the speakers or writers in order to establish consensus within their descriptions by drawing on accounts

from other people which supports the version of reality being constructed within their descriptions (Potter, 1996). However, this strategy doesn't seem to work in favor of the appraiser, in this context, due to the sense of inexplicitly in his argument.

Therefore, it takes very less time for one to realise that the whole argument of the appraiser is merely a bunch of fawning statements which lack the reasoning and logical appeal (e.g., as they appear to be low in imagery). A number of studies have demonstrated that the imagery plays a role in memory for the propositional (logical) knowledge (Dopkins, 1996). Accordingly, one may say that if the imagery of an argument is not strong then the argument may possibly fail to represent the logical knowledge in the memory of the audience. This means that such arguments also lacks the force to be evoked or recalled easily as Wlater and Fox (1981) stated that high imagery sentences are recalled well than low imagery sentences.

As far as the figures of speech are concerned in the appraiser's argument, there is a suggestion of hyperbole in it. Hyperbole is the use of exaggerated or extravagant terms for the purpose of emphasis (Kallendorf & Kallendorf, 1985). It is an important figure of speech which "does not figure only in western rhetoric" (Claridge, 2010: 218) but worldwide. For example, while comparing and investigating the worldwide rhetorical traditions (Claridge, 2010), Kennedy (1998) listed hyperbole as one of the seven important critical terms for the Chinese literary theory and second most basic figure after simile in the Indian rhetorical theory.

According to Claridge (2010), hyperbole can play a role in all the three aspects of persuasion (logos, ethos, and pathos). Concerning logos, it can be effective in maximizing or hyperbolically inflating some aspects or proof while downplaying others in the argument; concerning ethos, it can make the speaker look untrustworthy (e.g., a speaker who frequently exaggerates may appear to be untrustworthy); concerning pathos, it can make things appear more important, more frightening or more desirable which can stimulate specific attitudes and feelings through the argument (Claridge, 2010). Therefore, hyperbole is a powerful rhetorical form when used properly, but a terrible distraction when used improperly (McGuigan, 2010). The latter notion seems to be true in the case of this appraiser. For example, in the argument of the appraiser, one feels constant exaggeration due to which his argument appears as too good to be true. This is affecting his credibility. The statements, such as "We are all very happy with it" and "I must say", particularly

suggest the presence of hyperbole in the appraiser's argument. Even the use of idiom, "Hats off to them", seems exaggeration in the context.

Claridge (2010) argued that hyperbole is used by the speakers, who are in an insecure position (e.g., they notice some resistance to their point of views), to restructure reality so as to highlight some aspects and overshadow others in their arguments. For example, in this argument, the appraiser seems to highlight all the good aspects of PA practiced in his bank. This can be seen as his defensive rhetorical strategy where he is expecting resistance to his point of view and fears that his argument may potentially be undermined. Potter (1996) argued that both offensive and defensive rhetoric are utilised in the building up of the factuality of accounts. However, this defensive rhetorical strategy seems to be very weak, in view of his constant exaggeration, as it is affecting his credibility. I will throw a detailed light on the idea of the use of the defensive rhetorical strategy by this appraiser in the forthcoming part of the analysis of his extract.

Now coming back to the subject of hyperbole affecting the credibility or ethos, McGuigan (2010) argued that there are few things more damaging to a writer's credibility than a hyperbole which is mixed up with the facts. We may argue the same about the speaker's credibility. The presence of hyperbole in the appraiser's argument is making his argument very superficial which indicates that his use of hyperbole is confused with the facts. This can also be seen as the reason due to which the appraiser's argument seems to lack the logos. Therefore, both hyperbole and ethos seem to be affecting the logos of the appraiser's argument. For example, Kallendrof & Kallendrof (1985) argued that the figures of speech have been linked with logic and reasoning at various points in the history of rhetoric. This suggests that the figures of speech can have either a positive or a negative effect on the logic and reasoning of an argument. In this case, it seems the negative effect due to the improper use of hyperbole by the appraiser and its negative effect on the ethos of his argument.

In addition, it is not merely the hyperbole which is affecting the ethos of the appraiser, but his credibility has been affected from the very starting sentence of his argument when he used the words, "In my opinion". In the view of his practice of such words, his argument seems to be all opinion based and one may think that the reality might be different to others. However, what the reality is to one person may not be the reality to another, thereby, we cannot dismiss the variations in people's reality as a product of their lie.

According to Billig (1991), the words, such as “In my opinion”, give the effect of protecting the views from challenge because the speaker emphasises his entitlement to have a view different from others. This gives the suggestion of a defensive rhetorical strategy employed by the appraiser where he seems to be protecting his account from the potential counter-arguments by emphasising upon his own entitlement to hold a view which he expects may be different from others (e.g., other appraisers and appraisees). However, with the use of words, ‘‘In my opinion’’, combined with hyperbole (or exaggeration), his defensive rhetorical strategy seems weak which suggests lack of ethos in his argument.

Moreover, as the defensive rhetorical strategy has been employed by the appraiser from the starting point of his argument so it can be seen as another reason for the weak imagery of a very competent performance appraisal system which is initially created in this argument. While, appraiser’s use of hyperbole and idiom in terms of overly praising human resource division of the bank and lack of logos in his argument are giving a strong imagery of his partisan and blind support to the management.

Now one may wonder if I have had used some sort of probing to dig the matter? Well, the answer is yes. I did ask the appraiser to throw the light upon PA forms (e.g., what made him think that the appraisal forms are well designed?). In response to that, the appraiser clearly repeated:

‘‘Our human resource division is very capable’’

However, with the repetition, he further added:

‘‘In fact, it is the best’’

Both the statements indicate the trust of appraiser on the human resource division of his bank. And it seems that the Appraiser is trying to create an emotional appeal by indicating his trust on the capabilities of the human resource division of his bank. However, his ethical appeal of the argument is not strong enough to justify the emotional appeal he is trying to create here.

The repetition of his statement, ‘‘Our human resource division is very capable’’, shows his emphasis. One may think that if the human resource division of his bank is “very capable” and “in fact, it is the best” then the PA process of this bank must be the best as well. However, as the argument lacks the justification, it seems to be an unnecessary emphasis or rather an emphasis which is merely used to support the further exaggeration, “In fact it is the best”. Therefore, this suggests an improper or unnecessary use of repetition and hyperbole. It seems as if the appraiser either lacks the information to justify the mechanics or technicalities related to the design and implementation of the PA forms, or he is avoiding it purposely in order to support his defence by “drawing the rhetorical boundary around the most advantageous issue” to him (e.g., which seems to be his absolute support to the PA process from his argument) (Potter, 1996: 185). If latter is the case, then the appraiser’s argument indicates ontological gerrymandering. In calling attention to the idea of ontological gerrymandering, Woolgar & Pawluch stated (1985, 216):

“The successful social problem explanation depends upon making problematic the truth status of certain states of affairs selected for analysis and explanation, while backgrounding or minimizing the possibility that the same problems apply to the assumptions upon which the analysis depends. By means of ontological gerrymandering, proponents of definitional explanations place a boundary between assumptions which are to be understood as (ostensibly) problematic and those which are not”.

However, Potter (1996: 184) used the term in a more general sense and stated that “one of the aspects of making description is that it will pick out a particular range of phenomena as relevant and ignore other potential ones”. This means that “one realm of entities is constituted in the description while another is avoided” (Potter, 1996: 184). Potter (1996: 184) called it an “extended sense of ontological gerrymandering”. The appraiser’s argument seems to fit in the “extended sense of ontological gerrymandering” where “one realm of entities is constituted in the description” (e.g., all praise for the PA process) “while another is avoided” (e.g., the mechanics or technicalities related to the design and implementation of the PA forms) (Potter, 1996: 184).

Further, the overall argument of the appraiser seems to create an ironical situation. This is because the trust which the appraiser seems to have on the human resource division of his bank, he didn’t succeed to justify the basis of that trust through his argument (e.g., on what basis he said that the human resource division of his bank has done a great job in designing

the PA forms?). Thus, he seems to lose the trust of the audience on his rhetoric. The point of the matter is how one can trust something which is trusted by a person who didn't succeed to develop his own trust or credibility.

Extract 2

Appraisee (Dyad 1 Bank A): ***"The fact that we rely on APR creates a lot of stress for us. I am sure you must have been told that APR is basically a form which has to be filled by us first and then our appraisers. Even though there is a set criterion which our appraisers have to follow in order to appraise our performance but still you never know. So the stress is always there. I mean what if they don't appraise us according to the set criterion? Forget about the criterion. What if they don't appraise us according to our actual performance? I think you got my point."***

This argument is from one of the appraisees of the same dyad. He was asked a similar question, as his appraiser, regarding the design and implementation of the PA forms in his bank.

The appraisee started his argument with the statement, "The fact that we rely on an APR creates a lot of stress for us". The feature which is quite noticeable in his statement is his use of plural pronouns, "we" and "us". His use of "us" indicates that there are other people too who think the same. This increases the appraisee's credibility or the ethical appeal of his statement as one feels that the appraisee is not just individually representing himself but others as well, and so he may be trusted more than his appraiser (in the previous extract). When the appraisee used the plural pronoun, "us", the second time, it separated him and other appraisees from the other party, appraisers. And so it gets clear that his use of "we" represents both the parties, appraisees and appraisers while his use of "us" represents him and other appraisees only. This increases the logical appeal of his argument. The latter use of "us" by the appraisee with another plural pronoun, "our", shows his concern for himself and the other appraisees. This increases the emotional appeal in his argument. Therefore, the use of plural pronoun, "us", helps in increasing all the three appeals to persuasion (ethos, logos, and pathos) in his argument.

In addition, when it is apparent that the appraisee's use of plural pronoun, "us", represents him and the other appraisees, he can be entitled to the category of the appraisee which

gives him the authority to have the knowledge and expertise which others (e.g., appraisers) don't have. This increases the appraisee's credibility further and adds to the persuasive appeal of ethos. Potter (1996: 132) called this "Category entitlement". "In practice, category entitlement obviates the need to ask how the person knows" as the notion is that "certain categories of people, in certain context, are treated as knowledgeable" (Potter, 1996: 133). Therefore, "according to Potter", it gives the speaker "the authority to speak about certain issues by virtue of membership in a specific group" (McKenzie & Stooke, 2001: 54). When the category entitlement of a particular group or an individual right to membership in a particular group is questioned, the category entitlement is undermined (McKenzie & Stooke, 2001). In case of this appraisee, we may not question his membership right because we know that he is not any random person but the appraisee (considering that the participants of my study were only appraisers and appraisees). Accordingly, when he is interviewed as an appraisee, we know he is the appraisee who is working in the bank and has experienced the PA process of his bank.

This is unlike the case of this appraisee's appraiser (Extract 1). For example, even if there is any sort of ambiguity created in this appraisee's argument due to his use of plural pronouns (which suggests his use of the consensus and corroboration strategy), it is overshadowed by his attention to "the detail" about the APR forms (Potter, 1996: 117). As a result, the account of this appraisee may achieve further credibility through his attention to ''the detail'' as "the detail" in a description is basically the specifics of a description which are crucial for the activity or action that the description aims to achieve (Potter, 1996: 117). Moreover, in Potter's (1996: 163) sense, these are "descriptions that capture the particulars of scenes or events as they might be seen by an observer". Therefore, the attention to "the detail", about the APR forms, by the appraisee not only further increases the ethical appeal of his argument but also further increases his argument's logical appeal. This, in turn, further supports his category entitlement. Here it is important to mention that this appraisee's appraiser, in the previous extract, also used the plural pronouns. However, what makes this appraisee's account different from his appraiser's account is that he didn't use the words, ''In my opinion''. Thus, his argument doesn't seem to be merely opinion based, but gives the impression that his representation of the reality of the PA is similar to many other appraisees.

Next, the words, "I am sure you must have been told" add more to the appraisee's credibility as they give the impression that the appraisee is well aware of what I may have

been told by others (perhaps indicating the other appraisees and appraisers), knowing that I would have interviewed the other members of his category (e.g., the other appraisees), as well as the appraisers, prior to interviewing him. Therefore, his awareness, particularly about the actions of the people in his category (the category of appraisee), seems to increase his credibility more as it further justifies his belonging to the category of appraisee. This also leads one to wonder if the appraisee knows more about what others have told me in the interviews for his knowing more means more chances to expect him produce defensive (reifying) or offensive (ironizing) rhetoric to protect his own accounts or undermine the ones of others. Potter (1996) maintained that the devices like category entitlement are combined with other discursive techniques by the people in order to make particular kinds of claims (e.g., to construct one's version as factual or one's group as legitimately claming a category entitlement). Offensive rhetoric undermines the category entitlement and/or authority, while defensive rhetoric works the opposite as it enhances both (McKenzie & Stooke, 2001).

However, the statement, "I am sure you must have been told that APR is basically a form which has to be filled by us first and then the appraisers", leads one to think that if the appraisee is really sure that I have been told about it then why is he telling it to me again? In other words, why the appraisee is repeating something about which he is sure that I have already been made aware of? One can say that he has perhaps done it to put an emphasis on the context of PA process where APR forms are used to appraise the performance of employees.

The statement, "I am sure", also suggests the presence of hyperbole. However, contrary to his appraiser's use of hyperbole, the use of hyperbole by this appraisee doesn't seem to be confused with the facts. This is because as an immediate audience of his rhetoric, I knew that he was right, especially when I was well orientated by one of the HR staff members of the bank about their APR forms prior to conducting the interviews in that bank. Therefore, eventhough his statement seems a bit exaggerating, but it is not misleading and fits to the context or what he is trying to convey.

Further, the statement, "Even though there is a set criterion which our appraisers have to follow in order to appraise our performance but still you never know", provides the reasoning for why the appraisee thinks that "APR creates a lot of stress". This adds to the logical appeal. The appraisee kept on adding to the logical appeal with the two rhetorical

questions: “What if they don’t appraise us according to the set criterion?” and “What if they don’t appraise us according to our actual performance?” With these rhetorical questions, it seems that the purpose of the appraisee is not to seek an answer to these questions but to put a stress on his doubts about the appraisers, such as whether they are appraising the appraisees “according to the set criterion” or their “actual performance”.

These rhetorical questions can also be seen as a part of the appraisee’s ‘justification process’; for example, how he justifies his claims in an argument so that they are taken as facts or truths (Potter, 1996). Therefore, following Potter’s (1996) idea of ‘justification process’, one can analyse this appraisee’s argument in terms of offensive or defensive rhetoric in order to see whether he is undermining the alternative accounts or protecting his own account. The appraisee seems to be using offensive rhetoric or ironizing with the use of the two rhetorical questions in order to undermine the potential alternative accounts which he may be expecting or anticipating, in the favor of the PA forms, from the other appraisees and appraisers. In doing so, he seems to have undermined his appraiser’s account as well which further stresses on the notion that his account is shaped by his anticipated alternative accounts of others. For example, according to Shotter & Billig (1998), every utterance is shaped by other utterances, both actual and anticipated. Therefore, the antagonistic relation between the two versions (this appraisee’s version and his appraiser’s version) is quite apparent here.

In addition, the two rhetorical questions give an impression that the appraisee thinks that appraisers may lack the knowledge of the technicalities of the APR forms. These questions can be seen as a mean through which the appraisee is ironizing or undermining the probable alternative accounts of appraisers which portray them as knowledgeable or experts. Therefore, this sort of offensive rhetoric by the appraisee can be seen as a challenge to the category entitlement of appraiser (as it challenges the authority of the appraisers which entitle them to have expertise and knowledge which others or random people don’t have). The analysis of this appraisee’s appraiser (in the previous extract) does indicate that his appraiser lacks the knowledge of the technicalities of the APR forms which means that his appraiser’s category entitlement was already vulnerable. As category entitlement can be challenged through the use of offensive rhetoric, it can be much easier to challenge an already vulnerable category entitlement through the use of offensive rhetoric. This appraisee seems to have done the same.

The appraisee's argument ends with the statement, "I think you got my point", which suggests that he might have wanted to avoid the unnecessary exaggeration or repetition by elabourating more so he preferred to stop and kept the talk to the point. This may also suggest appraisee's limitations that he cannot be more open and direct about the matter than what he has already been. These limitations may probably be his limited time availability for the interview, or his lack of trust to share the information about his appraiser with me in a more open and direct manner. If latter is the case then it is also depicted from this appraisee's reference to the appraisers; for example, his use of plural pronoun, "they", for the appraisers suggests that he is not specifically talking about his own appraiser but in general about the appraisers in his bank.

Extract 3

Appraiser (Dyad 6, Bank B): ***''We have performance appraisal forms in which all the performance related aspects of employees are documented. The forms give the participation rights to both appraisees and appraisers. For example, appraisees are given the right to agree or disagree with their appraisers on the forms. So it is the responsibility of appraisees to make good use of this right by clearly stating their agreements or disagreements. If the appraisees cannot do it then they have no right to accuse us for misusing our absolute powers in appraising them." (Laughs lightly)***

This argument emerged as a response of another appraiser (Dyad 6, Bank B) to a similar question in the interview, which was asked to the previous appraiser and appraisee (Dyad 1, Bank A), regarding the design and implementation of PA forms in his bank.

The centre of the argument of this appraiser is the issue of "participation rights" in the PA forms used in his bank. Accordingly, one can observe the "extended sense of ontological gerrymandering" (Potter, 1996: 184) in his argument. For example, the appraiser only argued about one aspect of the PA forms which is "participation rights" while avoided others. Ontological gerrymandering helps us in considering about the things which are "significantly and relatively" absent in the argument (Potter, 1996: 183). Therefore, the other aspects of the PA forms which are "significantly and relatively" absent or avoided by the appraiser can be the degree of participation of both the appraisees and appraisers in the PA forms, the criterion used by both the appraisees and apprasers for measuring the

performance in the PA forms, the rating scales used in the PA forms, and so forth (Potter, 1996: 183).

Subsequently, it can be observed that the appraiser made use of "example" to clarify the nature of "participation rights". Corbett & Connors (1999) argued that examples do not conclusively prove a point but they can contain an element of persuasive force which can alter or reinforce audiences' opinions and beliefs. This means that examples have the potential to increase the three persuasive appeals, logos, ethos and pathos, in an argument. Therefore, it is important to know the purpose of using example. In case of this appraiser, it seems that his purpose of using example is to elucidate the "participation right". When you elucidate something, it usually depicts that you have knowledge about it. Hence, it affects the credibility of the person in a positive manner. However, one has to be careful with the use of example because a wrong example can have a negative impact on the person's credibility. In order to determine whether the example is right or wrong, one needs to check the source of example. If the source is authentic then there is more chance for the example to be right than wrong. In case of this appraiser, we know that he is an authentic source as he is one of the important parties to the PA process. Therefore, his use of example adds to his ethical appeal or ethos. In addition, the appraiser's use of plural pronoun, "us", in the last sentence of his argument indicates that he is speaking as a representative or on behalf of the other appraisers. This suggests his use of the strategy of consensus and corroboration.

However, unlike the case of the first appraiser (Extract 1), at least we know that this appraiser is talking as a representative or on behalf of the other appraisers only. For example, in the previous appraiser's case, it isn't clear that if he was talking as a representative of appraisers or appraisees or both. So, even though this appraiser is not explicitly talking as a representative of the other appraisers, as the number of appraisers whom he is representing is not clear, it is still a better case than the case of the previous appraiser, in terms of generating the ethical appeal, for at least we know that he is talking about the appraisers only.

Both the notions, appraiser being an authentic source of example (or information) and his use of plural pronoun, "us", lead our attention to Potter's (1996: 114) strategy of ''category entitlement" according to which certain group of people are entitled to have the authority of more reliable knowledge and expertise than others in certain matters. So, this appraiser

can be entitled to the category of appraiser in the matter of PA process which gives him the authority to have more reliable knowledge and expertise than others; for example, any random people. Here the question which comes to our minds is that can we call the appraisees those others, especially when they are equally important party to the PA forms as the appraisers. The answer to this question may perhaps be yes, especially in case the category entitlement of appraiser is not challenged by the appraisees, while the appraisers challenge the category entitlement of appraisee.

In case of this argument, the appraiser seems to have challenged the category entitlement of the appraisees with the use of offensive rhetoric (or ironizing). The statement, "If the appraisees cannot do it then they have no right to accuse us for misusing our absolute powers in appraising them", depicts appraiser's use of offensive rhetoric as it seems to undermine the potential or anticipated alternative arguments of appraisees regarding doing their responsibilities in a right manner, especially when it comes to filling the PA forms. The statement also indicates the appraiser's doubt about the appraisees that they are not using their "participation rights" in a responsible way "by clearly stating their agreements or disagreements" on the PA forms. This indicates the lack of expertise and knowledge of the appraisees. This puts a question mark to the category entitlement of appraisee, and so affects the credibility of the appraisees. Moreover, this appraiser's case is contrary to the previous case of appraisee (Extract 2) where the appraisee has challenged the category entitlement of appraiser, and so affected the credibility of the appraisers.

In addition, the antagonistic relationship between versions (e.g., his versions and his potential or anticipated alternative versions of the appraisees) is visible through the appraiser's use of offensive rhetoric. The last two sentences of the appraiser's argument also suggest the antagonistic relationship between appraisees and appraisers, especially when he says, "they have no right to accuse us for misusing our absolute powers." The appraiser seems to be talking from his past experience in this statement. His use of plural pronoun, "us", indicates that he and his fellow appraisers faced opposition from the side of the appraisees during the PA exercise in the bank.

Therefore, as acknowledged earlier, the appraiser seems to undermine his anticipated alternative accounts of the appraisees with the use of the statements, "it is the responsibility of appraiseess to make good use of this right", and, "if the appraisees cannot do it then they have no right to accuse us for misusing our absolute powers". Hence, in the

light of the two statements, one can clearly see that this appraiser is undermining the appraisees' potential alternative accusations, against him and his fellow appraisers, based on his past experience. Billig (1987) argued that in order to understand the meaning of words and sentences, one should not merely investigate the words within that discourse or the images in the mind of the speaker at the moment of utterance. One should also take into consideration the positions which are being criticised, or against which a justification is being built up (Billig, 1987). This represents 'talking against' the established ideas (Taylor & Littleton, 2006) which Billig (1987) tagged as 'rhetorical work' (Taylor & Littleton, 2006). It proposes that talk takes place on several different levels simultaneously as a speaker responds to imagined or previously experienced audiences and their criticisms and so it is not merely an interaction with the other person's present (Taylor & Littleton, 2006).

Further, there is evidence of sarcasm in the last sentence of the appraiser's argument, "they have no right to accuse us for misusing our absolute powers". Appraiser's laugh at the end of his argument confirms that he is mocking at the situation, where appraisers are being accused of misusing their absolute powers by the appraisees but the absolute power for which they are being accused of is not, in fact, absolute because the "participation rights" are with both of the parties (appraisees and appraisers). Therefore, this sarcasm can be taken as the appraiser's criticism of such situation in a mocking manner.

Extract 4

Appraisee (Dyad 6, Bank B): ***"Appraisal forms are very lengthy. Whether we fill them or not, the results will be the same. So why waste time in filling them? Why not just sign on the blank forms? I am sure that is what our appraisers want."***

This argument is from one of the appraisees of the same dyad. He was asked a similar question, as his appraiser, and the appraiser and appraisee from the previous Dyad (Dyad 1, Bank A), regarding the design and implementation of the PA forms in his bank.

The appraisee has used two rhetorical questions in his argument, "why waste time in filling them?" and "Why not just sign on the blank forms?" These rhetorical questions do not seem to suggest that they are asked for eliciting answers. They seem to put an emphasis on the point which is made before them, "Whether we fill them or not, the results will be the same", and on the point which is made immediately after them, "I am sure that is what our

appraisers want". Hence, they are helping to make the points, which are emphasized, more factual and real. This adds to the logical appeal of the argument.

In addition, the two rhetorical questions are indicative of the practice of signing the blank appraisal forms because they are lengthy. If this is really the case then it means that the appraisees are not carrying out their responsibility, as mentioned by the previous appraiser, in the right manner. For example, in the previous argument (Extract 3), this appraisee's appraiser stated that it is the responsibility of appraisees to make good use of their participation rights by clearly stating their agreements or disagreements. Therefore, the offensive rhetoric of this appraisee's appraiser seems to work well and his credibility is further developed.

However, in consideration of the points which the rhetorical questions emphasised, they can be seen as the appraisee's ironizing rhetorical strategy in order to cast doubts on the appraisers, such as whether the appraisers actually want their appraisees to fill the forms so that objective results are achieved from the PA activity, or whether the appraisees fill the forms or not, it is considered as same for the appraisers because they are not concerned about achieving the objective outcomes. Therefore, this appraisee has undermined the anticipated alternative accounts of those appraisers, with the use of rhetorical questions, who say that they want their appraisees to fill the forms so that objective results are achieved from the PA activity. In doing so, his appraiser's account (Extract 3) has been undermined too. Accordingly, we not only observed the antagonistic relationship between the versions of this appraisee and his appraiser but also we anticipate it between the versions of this appraisee and other appraisers.

Extract 5

Appraiser (Dyad 7, Bank B): ***"It is not a rocket science to fill the appraisal forms. They are not upgraded frequently. We have been using the same forms from the last two years and there is a great possibility that the same forms will be used next year. But still, I'm always available to answer my subordinates' queries"***

This appraiser is one of the two female appraisers who are considered in this study. The argument emerged as her response to a similar question in the interview, which was asked

to the previous appraisers and appraisees (Dyad 1, Bank A & Dyad 6, Bank B), regarding the design and implementation of the PA forms in her bank.

In this argument, the appraiser seems to be using offensive rhetoric or ironizing. Her first sentence of the argument, "It is not a rocket science to fill the appraisal forms", clearly suggests it. For example, it can be seen as a counter-argument of the appraiser to undermine the accounts or versions of those who find it a rocket science or complicated to fill the PA forms. Now the question is whose versions the appraiser is undermining? Whether of the appraisees or appraisers or both? The answer is clear from the last statement of the appraiser, "But still, I'm always available to answer my subordinates' queries", where her use of word, "subordinate", indicates that she is talking about the appraisees. In addition, the appraiser's use of idiom, "not a rocket science", and her next two statements, "They are not upgraded frequently" and "We have been using the same forms from the last two years and there is a great possibility that the same forms will be used next year", support her ironizing rhetoric. Therefore, her ironizing rhetoric depicts the antagonistic relationship between versions (her versions and appraisees' versions), based on the potential alternative versions of the appraisees.

Moreover, the statements, "They are not upgraded frequently" and "We have been using the same forms from the last two years and there is a great possibility that the same forms will be used next year", provide the reasoning to why appraiser thinks that "It is not rocket science to fill the appraisal forms". This creates the logical appeal for the argument of the appraiser. However, in creating a logical appeal, she unveiled a negative issue regarding the appraisal forms that they are not frequently upgraded. Hence, one may thinks that the human resource division of this bank is not as capable as depicted by the first appraiser (Extract 1), under this theme, "The Issue of PA Forms". However, unlike the case of the first appraiser, it surely increased the credibility of this appraiser because of his truthfulness. This is because she seems to be supporting the PA forms in her first statement by saying that "It is not a rocket science to fill the appraisal forms", thereby, one expects her to continue supporting them, with the use of fawning statements, as done by the first appraiser. The fact that not only she did not do it, but also she did not hesitate from mentioning a negative issue regarding the PA forms, adds to her ethos. Nevertheless, here the important point to consider is that the issue which seems to be negative to me, may not be negative to the other audience. Or perhaps may not even be negative to this appraiser.

Therefore, the ethical appeal may only work on the audience who will find it a negative issue and think that this appraiser also finds it negative.

In addition, the argument of this appraiser indicates the presence of emotional appeal. The last sentence of the argument, "But still, I'm always available to answer my subordinates' queries", indicates it. This is because it promotes the appraiser's image of a helpful being and so generates good feelings about her. And it is due to the presence of hyperbole, "I'm always available", in the last sentence of her argument, that this appeal is strengthened. Therefore, we observed an appropriate use of hyperbole in this extract which has aided to the pathos of her argument.

Extract 6

Appraisee (Dyad 7, Bank B): ***"Most of our work is done electronically. Still, we find ourselves drowned in the paperwork. Wouldn't it be great if these forms are electronic?"***

This argument is from one of the appraisees of the same dyad. He was asked a similar question, as his appraiser and the appraisers and appraisees from the previous Dyads (Dyad 1, Bank A & Dyad 6, Bank B), regarding the design and implementation of the PA forms in his bank.

Looking at the argument of this appriasee, it is clear that the issue for him is not that he finds it difficult to fill the appraisal forms. So the offensive rhetoric of his appraiser is certainly not constructed to undermine his account but the accounts of the other appraisees. In this respect, he seems to be an in group to his appraiser.

Moreover, there is a suggestion of hyperbole in his statement, "we find ourselves drowned in the paperwork". It is an exaggeration, though properly used to stress on the intensity of paperwork and to support the rational for the electronic forms. Therefore, the hyperbole is supporting the logical appeal of this argument. This can be compared to the argument of his appraiser, where hyperbole supported the emotional appeal.

The hyperbole is followed by the rhetorical question, "Wouldn't it be great if these forms are electronic?" It is clear from the rhetorical question that the appraisee doesn't require an answer to it, rather he has used it to emphasise on the issue of paperwork which was

pointed out in his preceding statement. The rhetorical question also makes a point, for the need of electronic PA forms, in an indirect way.

In addition, the use of plural pronouns by the appraisee in his argument, such as "our" and "we", supports his ethical appeal and category entitlement as his argument doesn't seem to be merely his opinion but he seems to have a representation of other people in his argument who have the same experience as him. This suggests his use of corroboration and consensus. For example, it seems as if the appraisee is "reporting a general experience of a range of people" in the bank regarding the paperwork issue in order to justify the need of electronic PA forms (Potter, 1996: 161). However, on one hand, we observed the appraisee using plural pronouns which allows us to build the inference that there is consensus between him and others regarding the issue (of the paperwork). On the other, we observed that he has not explicitly claimed it. For example, the questions that how many people are included in the consensus regarding the issue and whether the appraisees alone are the part of the consensus or the appraisers are the part of it too remain unanswered. Therefore, even though this appraisee's account has built such inference, the fact that he has not explicitly claimed the issue makes his account challengeable. Accordingly, this may decrease his ethical appeal and put his category entitlement at a vulnerable position which may be challenged.

Moreover, an important aspect to notice in this argument is the appraisee's management of ''the dilemma of stake'' (Potter, 1996: 110). The idea of 'the dilemma of stake' was firstly introduced by Derek Edwards and Jonathan Potter in the year 1992 (Potter, 1996). Anything which is said by the speaker and can be potentially undermined or discounted by others is known as the dilemma (Robertson et al., 2010). Stakes or interests are an issue of ethos (Harris, 1998). For example, 'The dilemma of stake' (Potter, 1996) is virtually the defining notion of ethos (Harris, 1998). Therefore, it is very important for the speakers or writers to manage 'the dilemma of stake' in order to protect their accounts from potential undermining. In order to do so, one must alleviate all the interests, or even reverse them, in order to appear as a detached, objective and scientific (Harris, 1998) speaker or writer.

According to Potter (1996: 148) "stake management is probably done best implicitly rather than explicitly because this makes it both harder to undermine and allows the speakers the possibility of denying that this is what they were doing". In the case of this argument, the appraisee's stake behind electronic PA forms seems to be the reduction in paperwork. He

has used implicit way to manage 'the dilemma of stake' (Potter, 1996). For example, he has used the plural pronouns and rhetorical question.

Therefore, although appraisee's use of consensus and corroboration, in terms of using plural pronouns, may have negative implications for his category entitlement and ethical appeal, but in consideration of what Potter (1996) said about the management of stake that it is done best implicitly, the appraisee seems to have done a good job. In fact, it really depends on the audience that how they take it. For example, in case of the other appraisees and appraisers as an audience of the account of this appraisee, if their interests are matched with this appraisee's interest then it means that he has managed 'the dilemma of stake' well (Potter, 1996). In case they are not matched then there may be a possibility for this appraisee's interest or stake to be challenged or undermined by the potential alternative interests or stakes of the audience. So, in order to manage 'the dilemma of stake', there should be something of interest to the audience in one's stake or interest (Potter 1996). For example, according to Harris (1998: 89), "One does not gather the evidence of facticity, marshal it, and offer it to an audience without considerable stake in their adoption of it".

Extract 7

Appraisee (Dyad 7, Bank B): ***"Our performance is measured on the KPIs. They are the key performance indicators. For each job category, there are different KPIs. As our job requirements keep on changing, these KPIs are needed to be improved on regular basis."***

This argument is from another appraisee of the same dyad. He was asked a similar question, as his appraiser and appraisee colleague, and the appraisers and appraisees from the previous Dyads (Dyad 1, Bank A & Dyad 6, Bank B), regarding the design and implementation of the PA forms in his bank.

The appraisee seems to be using the defensive rhetorical strategy (or reifying) in order to protect his account from the potential alternative undermining. The statement, "As our job requirements keep on changing, these KPIs are needed to be improved on regular basis", shows his justification to protect his argument from the potential counter-arguments. Those counter-arguments can be from both the appraisees and appraisers, particularly those who do not find the need of improvement in the PA forms "on regular basis".

It is important to mention here that this appraisee's appraiser (Extract 5) used the reasoning that appraisal forms "are not upgraded frequently" in order to support his ironizing rhetorical statement, "It is not a rocket science to fill the appraisal forms". However, it remained unclear that whether or not his appraiser is one of those appraisers who find the need of improvement in the PA forms "on regular basis". Hence, we remain uncertain that whether the defensive rhetoric produced by this appraisee is against his own appraiser or it is against the other appraisers and/or appraisees as well.

In addition, the category entitlement of this appraisee seems to be achieved through his use of vivid detail. Potter (1996) presented a number of strategies which can be used by the speakers or writers to construct their accounts as accepted facts, and to protect their stakes or accounts from the potential alternative undermining. Three of those strategies mainly rely on the idea which Potter (1996: 150) referred as "out-there-ness". In elucidating about how the "out-there-ness of an account or version is constructed, Edwards & Potter (1992a: 105) questioned: "how precisely is a report constructed to avoid it seeming like an artful construction designed to further the speaker's interest?" The basic idea behind "Out-there-ness" is construction of descriptions as independent of the agents (e.g., speakers or writers) constructing them (Potter, 1996: 150). The three strategies are empiricist discourse, consensus and corroboration, and detail and narrative (or vivid detail) (Potter, 1996). I have already discussed the strategy of 'consensus and corroboration', a number of times in the analysis of the previous extracts (Extracts 1, 2, 3 & 6), in terms of the use of plural pronouns by the appraisees and appraisers. Similarly, the strategy of 'detail' has been discussed earlier as well (e.g., Extract 2).

Potter (1996: 117) suggested that "detailed descriptions can also be used to build up the facticity of an argument. They can provide an impression of being there by sketching features which, although not substantial to the claim or argument, would have been apparent to someone who actually witnessed some event". Therefore, the vivid detail in an account aims to emphasise on the idea that the producer of the account (e.g., speaker or writer) has captured the particulars of the event as a genuine observer.

Accordingly, by describing "KPIs" in detail and connecting "KPIs" with "job requirements", the appraisee has made it difficult for the factuality of his account to be challenged or undermined by the potential alternative accounts when he said that "KPIs are

needed to be improved on regular basis". This forms a case where not only the category entitlement of the appraisee has been achieved through the vivid description but also it has strengthened his reifying or defensive rhetoric to protect his account from being undermined. And, simultaneously they have all added to the logical and ethical appeals of his account.

Moreover, similar to the case of his colleague appraisee (Extract 6), the appraisee has used plural pronoun in his argument. For example, the plural pronoun, "our", has been used twice in his argument. This use of plural pronoun shows that he has the representation of other people in his argument as well. This means that his defensive rhetoric cannot be easily undermined or challenged by the potential alternative versions as his account doesn't seem to be merely his opinion but we know that there are other people who think the same like him. Therefore, the use of plural pronoun can be seen as his strategy to support his defensive rhetoric and category entitlement, which further builds his credibility, and so further enhance the ethos of his argument.

In addition, as in the case of the argument of the previous appraisee (Extract 6), there is a suggestion of consensus and corroboration in this account as well. On one hand, we observed the appraisee using plural pronouns which allows us to build the inference that there is a consensus between him and others regarding the issue of improving KPIs on regular basis. On the other, we observed that the appraisee has not explicitly claimed it. So here again, the fact that he has not explicitly stated the issue makes his account contestable. Accordingly, this decreases the appraisee's ethical appeal and also puts his category entitlement at risk. However, one may argue that due to the presence of vivid detail in his argument, the negative impact of not stating the issue explicitly in his argument may possibly be neglected.

Theme 2-The Issue of the Quota System in Grading the Appraisees

Extract 1

Appraiser (Dyad1, Bank A): ***"Quota system is used as a tool for the blame game by the subordinates. It has become a norm now that everyone blames quota system but no one actually focuses on improving their own performance. I always advise my subordinates to focus on improving their own performance first before blaming anything."***

This argument is a response of an appraiser (Dyad 1, Bank A), to a probing question, regarding the quota system practiced in his bank, while he was suggesting improvements for the PA process. The appraiser seems to be positioning his category entitlement against the appraisees in order to criticise them of using quota system "as a tool for the blame game" rather than focusing "on improving their own performance". He has done it by giving his personal example, "I always advise my subordinates to focus on improving their own performance first before blaming anything", which puts his category entitlement at a better position than of the appraisees. This is because being at the advising position; the appraiser seems to have better knowledge and expertise than the appraisees. This increases his credibility and so as the appeal to ethos.

The use of personal example by the appraiser also seems to help him in managing the accountability of his argument in a better way. According to Edwards & Potter (1992a), rhetoric is concerned with how interactions are put together, specifically in relation to the speaker's accountability. This means that the manner in which the speakers or writers put the statements in their arguments together, explains their accountably for the statements they make in their argument. Managing the issues related to accountability is the matter of footing (Potter, 1996). In order to manage the issue of accountability, speakers and writers produce their arguments "as quotations, positions, ideas or their own personal views" (Potter, 1996: 205). In this argument, the appraiser seems to have managed them well because his argument does not seem to be merely his personal views but it seems to have practical significance as well. This creates a positive impact on the logical appeal of his argument and adds more to his credibility.

Simlarly, the appraiser seems to avoid the vague formulations in his account through his ethnomethodological understanding of reflexivity. This, in turn, also seems to manage his accountablity. For example, when we come to know that the appraiser advises his "subordinates to focus on improving their own performance first before blaming anything", it does not merely represent "some facet of" his job as an appraiser, it has practical significance as well (Potter, 1996: 47). In other words, "it also does some business by displaying" the accountability of the appraiser as it contributes "to the general set of events which consists of", for example, his subordinates' lack of focus on their own performance, his subordinates' unreasonable blame on the quota system for receiving low performance grades, his own implied support to the quota system, and so forth (Potter, 1996: 47).

Now coming back to the category entitlement of appraiser, it seems to be supporting the ironizing rhetoric of the appraiser. For example, the appraiser appears to undermine two sorts of potential alternative versions of both the appraisees and appraisers in his argument:

1. The ones which do not support the presence of the quota system in PA.
2. The ones which blame the quota system for the bad performance outcomes.

However, in doing so, he started with the appraisees first as he stated that "Quota system is used as a tool for the blame game by the subordinates". Next, with his use of indefinite pronouns, "everyone" and "no one", both the appraisees and appraisers seem to be his target of ironizing (or offensive rhetoric) as he stated that "It has become a norm now that everyone blames quota system but no one actually focuses on improving their own performance." Then, in the last statement, when he used his personal example, he only referred to appraisees. So his ironizing rhetoric seems to be more explicitly targeting the appraisees than appraisers. Considering this, one may say that the appraiser has done it purposely in order to protect his own category entitlement (category entitlement of appraiser) from the potential challenge of the audience, particularly the appraisees. In other words, ironizing the accounts of appraisers explicitly would probably have led his own category entitlement at a vulnerable position to be challenged by others. The idea is that if he himself is challenging the accounts of the other appraisers explicitly, who belong to the same category entitlement as him, then who would believe him? (e.g., as being one of the two important parties to the PA process, the other appraisers would also have the authority to the knowledge of PA as him which others would not have). Therefore, in order to protect his own category entitlement, he has targeted the appraisees more explicitly than the appraisers.

This leads our attention towards the idea of "the dilemma of stake" (Potter, 1996: 110). Both category entitlement and stake management can bring the emphasis on "the nature or identity of the producer" of an account (Potter, 1996: 150), and so can either make or break his credibility. According to Forbat (2005), the rhetorical strength of an accounts can be weakened by indicating participants' vested interests involved in the events which are described in those accounts. While the absence of interests can be used to strengthen the factual features of accounts as people make every effort in the direction of indicating lack of personal interests explicitly in the descriptions (Forbat, 2005). In this extract, the stake

of the appraiser seems to be supporting the quota system. He seems to have confessed his stake with the use of his personal example in the last statement of his argument, "I always advise my subordinates to focus on improving their own performance first before blaming anything".

In "stake confession" the speakers are aware of their potential bias; however, still they display to hold personal conviction to a particular idea in their account (Potter, 1996: 129). This is exactly what this appraiser seems to have done which has provided a back to his ironizing rhetoric as well. For example, the appraiser seems to know that his interest in the support of quota system could potentially be undermined by others (e.g., appraisees, appraisers and other audiance). So he seems to have confessed his interest with the use of his personal example by putting emphasis to a more serious matter (e.g., his subordinates' performance) in a way which gives an impression that his subordinates are not focusing on their performance and pointlessly blaming on the quota system. Therefore, the appraiser's strategy of "stake confession" is providing a defence to his interest of supporting the quota system and protecting it from the potential alternative undermining by others. Moreover, it is this defensive rhetoric or reification of the appraiser which is supporting his offensive rhetoric or ironizing, ''Quota system is used as a tool for the blame game by the subordinates''. This forms a case where the appraiser is doing both, justifying his position from the potential counter-arguments of others (e.g., appraisees, appraisers and other audience) and criticising the potential counter-positions of others as well. Thus, it suggests the antagonistic relationship between versions.

Extract 2

Appraisee (Dyad 1, Bank A): ***"The bank should eliminate the use of quotas from performance evaluations. I know it will not be easy. The problem is that even though the appraisers practice quotas to rank the performance of their subordinates, they don't admit it. So how can it be removed when the people who practice it do not admit that they actually practice it?"***

On the contrary, in a similar sort of a probing question which was asked to his appraiser, this appraisee (Dyad 1, Bank A) shows his interest in the elimination of quota system with the use of offensive rhetoric where his offensive rhetoric is supported by his category entitlement, management of 'the dilemma of stake', and the rhetorical question.

After going through the argument of this appraisee, there are two important questions which come into one's mind:

1. Does the quota system really exist in his bank as a part of the PA process, especially when the appraisers "do not admit that they actually practice it"?
2. If it really exists, do the appraisers practice it but "do not admit that they actually practice it"?

The appraisee seems to support the answers that quota system exists as a part of the PA process of his bank, and the appraisers practice it but "do not admit that they actually practice it". While his support for such answers seems to be convincing. This is because being an appraisee, one of the two important parties to the PA process, he is expected to have an authority to the knowledge of PA. Accordingly, when he satated that "The problem is that even though the appraisers practice quotas to rank the performance of their subordinates, they don't admit it", one tends to believe him because of his category entitlement as an appraisee. So the ethical appeal, in terms of his credibility, is present in his argument. However, the question is: how strong is this ethical appeal? We can answer this question with our focus on the idea of "the dilemma of stake", and how this appraisee has managed it (Potter, 1996: 110).

The appraisee seems to be in 'the dilemma of stake'. This is because one thinks that as an appraisee, he must have his concerns about quota system. For example, he might have been the victim to the quota system in his past, and so suggesting its elimination. Therefore, another question is: being an appraisee, can he manage 'the dilemma of stake' well? In other words, is there a possibility that his account can be undermined as a product of his self-interest? In order to know this, we need to investigate the appraisee's, what Potter (1996: 110) called, "conceivable axe to grind". Potter (1996: 110) presented an example of prosecution witnesses to understand this idea in a better way, "the prosecution witnesses, many of them passers-by with no conceivable axe to grind were articulate and plausible". Therefore, it is important for the speakers or writers to have "no conceivable axe to grind" in order to present objective or impartial accounts (or accounts which are difficult to be dismissed or undermined as a product of their interests).

In case of this appraisee, he seems to have confessed his interest with the use of the statements, “The bank should eliminate the use of quotas from performance evaluations”, and “I know it will not be easy”. However, we understand that all the appraisees, particularly the ones who have been the victim of the quota system in this bank, would probably have said the same that “The bank should eliminate the use of quotas from performance evaluations”. This makes the quota system a serious matter if it is practiced. Therefore, the appraisee’s interest in its elimination doesn’t merely seem to be his self-interest. Thus, it cannot be easily challenged by the potential alternative arguments of others (e.g., appraisers). This means that he has managed ‘the dilemma of stake’ quite plausibly due to which the ethical appeal in this appraisee’s argument seems to be quite sound.

In addition to the ethical appeal, the logical appeal in the argument of this appraisee can be observed when he provided the reasoning of why he knows that “it will not be easy” to eliminate the quota system from his bank, “The problem is that even though the appraisers practice quotas to rank the performance of their subordinates, they don’t admit it”. This reasoning can also be seen as his ironizing or offensive rhetoric to undermine the potential alternative accounts of appraisers who:

1. Support the quota system
2. Practice the quota system but do not admit of their practicing it.

For example, one can easily notice that this appraisee is using the ironizing rhetoric in order to target his appraiser (Extract 1), under this theme, “The Issue of the Quota System in Grading the Appraisees”. Therefore, it promotes and verifies the idea of the presence of the antagonistic relationship between different versions of appraisees and appraisers.

There is a rhetorical question used in the end of the argument of this appraisee, “how can it be removed when the people who practice it do not admit that they actually practice it?” This rhetorical question emphasises on the issue of the preceding statement in his argument, and so supports the ironizing rhetoric of the appraisee’s argument. On the whole, in this extract, we can observe that how the appraisee’s category entitlement, stake management and rhetorical question have provided the support, in building of his ironizing argument, which contains both logical and ethical appeals to persuasion.

Extract 3

Appraisee (Dyad 1, Bank A): ***"I believe the root cause of all the problems in performance evaluations is quota system. A suggestion would be the elimination of quota system for an effective and efficient performance evaluation system. This is all I can think about."***

This argument is a response of a female appraisee (Dyad 1, Bank A) to a question regarding the suggestions for improving the PA process of her bank. Her argument seems to be similar to her appraisee colleague (Extract 2), in terms of her support for the elimination of the quota system, but contradictory to the argument of her appraiser (Extract 1) who seems to be supporting the quota system.

The appraisee seems to build the reasoning of her suggestion on her belief which is that "the root cause of all the problems in performance evaluations is quota system". As it seems her personal statement or belief, one may think that there might be other salient causes of the problems in the PA than merely the quota system. For example, lack of the training provided to the appraisers to evaluate the performance of the subordinates can be one of the salient causes. Therefore, the argument lacks the logical and ethical appeals of persuasion.

In addition, her suggestion, "the elimination of quota system for an effective and efficient performance evaluation system", reveals her defensive stance. However, this defensive or reifying rhetoric does not seem to be very strong as it is based on her personal belief. Hence, protecting her argument, with the support from her personal belief, from the potential alternative undermining, does not seem to be working for this appraisee's argument. This is because her argument can be easily challenged by the potential counter-arguments of those appraisees and appraisers who think that there are other salient causes of the problems in the PA which are more important to be resolved than the elimination of the quota system. For example, her appraiser's (Extract 1) offensive rhetoric already seems to challenge her defence as he has argued that appraisees should focus on improving their performance. Therefore, the lack of appraisees' interest to improve their performance can be considered a strong argument to challenge this appraisee's argument which is merely based on her personal belief.

Moreover, the last statement in the argument of the appraisee, "This is all I can think about", puts her category entitlement on doubt as one may question: really, is it all what the appraisee can think about? This may possibly affect the credibility of the appraisee adversely and so as the ethos of her argument.

Further, the appraisee has represented the quota system as "the root cause of all the problems in performance evaluation", but haven't mentioned about the problems (e.g., what sort of problems are they?). One may think that perhaps the appraisee has not mentioned about those problems because she does not consider those problems as the main issues but the resulting issues of the main problem, that is, quota system. For example, lack of the training provided to the appraisers to evaluate the performance of the subordinates and the lack of appraisees' interest to improve their performance are the two issues, which can be considered as the main issues, but the appraisee may probably be considering such issues as the resulting issues of the main issue, quota system.

It takes our attention to the idea of ontological gerrymandering as it helps us in thinking about the things which are both "significantly and relatively" missing in the argument (Potter, 1996, 183). Therefore, the argument of this appraisee may also be challenged on the grounds of ontological gerrymandering; for example, the audience (particularly, the appraisee's appraiser) may anticipate the missing elements in this argument, and so may use them to build the potential alternative counter-arguments against the defence of this argument.

Extract 4

Appraiser (Dyad 4, Bank B): ***"The quota system is to be blamed and not the appraisers for providing performance evaluation that are not what were expected by the appraisees. From the appraisers' point of view, evaluations are drafted objectively. It is appraisees' bad luck if the performance evaluation results are not what appraisees expected."***

This argument is a response of another appraiser, from a different dyad and bank (Dyad 4, Bank B), to a probing question regarding the quota system practiced in his bank, while he was suggesting improvements for the PA process. His argument depicts that he is speaking from his recent experience of the PA activity. For example, the first and the last sentences of his argument suggest it (e.g., with the use of the present progressive tense).

In addition, the argument of the appraiser suggests the antagonistic relation, particularly between the versions of this appraiser and appraisees, "The quota system is to be blamed and not the appraisers for providing performance evaluation that are not what were expected by the appraisees". One may think that the appraiser has provided this justification as a result of his anticipation that the appraisees are blaming him and the other appraisers. Therefore, the appraiser seems to be using the defensive rhetorical strategy in justifying (or protecting) his argument against the possible alternative counter-arguments.

Moreover, one observes that this defensive strategy of the appraiser seems to be supporting the logos in his argument and vice versa. For example, appraiser used his blaming of quota system as a reason or justification behind appraisees not receiving their expected appraisal results. This, at the same time, provides the defence for his argument and protects it from being undermined by the potential alternative counter-arguments of those appraisees who blame the appraisers, "for providing performance evaluation that are not what were expected'' by them, not the quota system. This also takes us back to the argument of the appraisee (Extract 2), under this theme, "The Issue of the Quota System in Grading the Appraisees". For example, one may think that the reason why the appraisers do not admit or confess practicing the quota system is that the appraisees blame them but not the quota system. Hence, this argument of the appraiser provides the defence and reasoning against the argument of the appraisee from extract 2. This again depicts the antagonistic relationship between the versions. Now the question which comes into our minds is that if the appraisers should not be blamed then who should be blamed? One may say that by arguing that "quota system is to be blamed", the appraiser is implicitly indicating towards the designing body of the PA (e.g., the HR division of the bank).

The appraiser adds further to his defence or reification with the use of the statement, "From the appraisers' point of view, evaluations are drafted objectively", which is again promoting the idea that the appraisers should not be blamed but the quota system. Therefore, when this appraiser stated that "It is appraisees' bad luck if the performance evaluation results are not what appraisees expected", one may understand it. Of course it is appraisees' bad luck because both appraisers and appraisees do not seem to have control over the quota system. Hence, the whole argument of the appraiser seems to provide a good reasoning which increases the argument's logical appeal to persuasion, and so supports the defensive rhetoric (or reification) used in it and vice versa.

Similarly, the argument also creates the emotional appeal to persuasion (or pathos), by creating sympathy for the appraisers. This is because one may think that why the appraisers should be blamed when they do not have any control over the quota system which influences their grading no matter how objectively they grade the appraisees.

Extract 5

Appraisee (Dyad 4, Bank B): "I know many people are appraised at lower performance categories than what they actually deserve. ***Quota system is just an excuse which is used by both sides to take the attention away from the real issues. One real issue is the seriousness of both sides about the appraisal process. I think attention to this issue is more important as an improvement step than debates about the quota system"***

In a response to the similar sort of a probing question which was asked to his appraiser (Extract 4), this appraisee (Dyad 4, Bank B) throws a light upon another issue which to him is more important from the perspective of improving the appraisal process than the debates about the quota system.

In the start of his argument, the appraisee seems to create an ethical appeal to persuasion with the words, "I know". For example, these words indicate that the appraisee knows that "many people are appraised at lower performance categories than what they actually deserve" so this adds to his credibility as it develops his category entitlement on the basis of his awareness and knowledge as the ''appraisee''. Moreover, in comparing the first two statements of this appraisee ("I know many people are appraised at lower performance categories than what they actually deserve" and "Quota system is just an excuse which is used by both sides to take the attention away from the real issues") with the first statement of his appraiser in extract 4 ("The quota system is to be blamed and not the appraisers for providing performance evaluation that are not what were expected by the appraisees"), one may think that whether it is due to the quota system, or the other issues that the appraisees in this bank are not appraised according to their performance.

When the appraisee called the quota system as "an excuse which is used by both sides to take the attention away from the real issues", one certainly thinks that what might those

"real issues" be? This drives our attention back to the analysis of extract 3. For example, one may think that is this appraisee referring to the lack of training provided to the appraisers to evaluate the performance of their subordinates and the lack of appraisees' interest to improve their performance as the "real issues"? However, one does not have to wait much to know one of the real issues for this appraisee as he immediately introduced it in his subsequent statement by stating, "One real issue is the seriousness of both sides about the appraisal process". This statement can be seen as the reason or justification of appraisee for knowing that why "many are appraised at lower performance categories than what they actually deserve". In other words, we may say that the appraisee thinks that it is because of the non-serious behaviour of both the appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA process which results into the appraisees being "appraised at lower performance categories than what they actually deserve". This leads us to question that do these two parties, appraisees and appraisers, fill the appraisal forms seriously and objectively? Thus, the reifying rhetoric of his appraiser (Extract 4), "From the appraisers' point of view, evaluations are drafted objectively", may be challenged (or undermined) on these grounds. Accordingly, this argument seems to have a good reasoning and logical appeal. On one hand, it is providing a defence (or protection) against the potential alternative versions which may undermine it (as reifying rhetoric), while on the other, it is undermining the potential alternative claims of others (as ironizing rhetoric).

However, in the view of the reasoning or reification of this appraisee, "One real issue is the seriousness of both sides about the appraisal process", one may think that is this reason strong enough? For example, what can be the potential alternative versions on the basis of which the argument of this appraisee may be discounted? Again, this takes our attention back to the analysis of extract 3. For example, others may think that the lack of the training provided to the appraisers to evaluate the performance of the subordinates and the lack of appraisees' interest to improve their performance are equally serious issues as "the seriousness of both sides about the appraisal process". Hence, they may challenge the appraisee's argument on these grounds.

In the defence of this appraisee, one may consider an important point; that is, the appraisee referred to the issue as "One real issue". This means that appraisee thinks that there can be other issues too and he is not denying them. Others may pay attention to the idea of ontological gerrymandering in the appraisee's argument in order to point out the other issues which are absent in his argument but cannot challenge him on the basis of what

those other issues are. This is because he may have those issues in his mind too as equally important issues. It is just that he didn't mention them or may be avoided them. Thus, he may get the benefit of the doubt in this regard. In other words, others may not challenge (or undermine) his argument for providing this issue but may challenge his account for providing only one issue or not giving more detail in terms of mentioning other issues.

Last but not the least, an interesting point to mention here is that when the appraisee used the statement, "Quota system is just an excuse which is used by both sides to take the attention away from the real issues", he seems to raise doubts on the category entitlements of both the appraisees and appraisers. Even though he has already built his category entitlement with the "I know" effect previously, one may think that what makes him better (e.g., knowledgeable and trustworthy) than others? In other words, why should we still trust him? In his defence, one may say that by mentioning the "One real issue", which is not the quota system, he has differentiated himself from the other appraisees and appraisers who use quota system as an excuse. Therefore, his credibility remains intact.

Extract 6

Appraiser (Dyad 5, Bank B): ***"It takes less than a quarter of a year to complete the performance appraisal process. The rest of the year is spent in cooling down the appraisees, thanks to the quota system. And by the time appraisees' concerns are answered, and they are all cooled down, it's already time for their next performance appraisal."***

This argument is a response of an appraiser (Dyad 5, Bank B), to a probing question, regarding the quota system practiced in his bank, while he was suggesting improvements for the PA process.

There is a suggestion of irony in the appraiser's argument. His statement, "thanks to the quota system", suggests it as he does not actually seem to be thankful to the quota system. He seems to be rather blaming it. Accordingly, the irony seems to be used by the appraiser for the satirical purpose in order to disapprove, ridicule, and even expose the idiocy of the PA process due to the quota system. For example, his statement, "And by the time appraisees' concerns are answered and they are all cooled down, it's already time for their next performance appraisal", suggests it.

Moreover, the statement, "by the time appraisees' concerns are answered and they are all cooled down, it's already time for their next performance appraisal", indicates the idea that all the efforts of the appraisers to answer the appraisees' concerns, and to eradicate their anger (or to cool them down) go in vain once the next performance appraisal approaches. This creates an emotional appeal or pathos for the argument of this appraiser as one feels sympathy for him. Therefore, one can say that the irony in this argument seems to support the pathos of the argument.

Further, the irony in the appraiser's argument also seems to be supporting his ironizing rhetoric to undermine those potential alternative arguments which show the support to the quota system. For example, the first appraiser's argument (Extract 1), under this theme, "The Issue of the Quota System in Grading the Appraisees", may be undermined as one may question that how can the appraisees not blame the quota system and focus on improving their performance when almost two third of the year is spent in answering their concerns and cooling them down? Therefore, it is a case where the ironizing rhetoric in one person's argument (which is based on the anticipation of the alternative arguments of others, such as the appraiser of extract 1) is undermining the ironizing rhetoric of another person's argument (which is based on the anticipation of the alternative arguments of others, such as the appraiser of this extract).

Extract 7

Appraisee (Dyad 5, Bank B): ***"Everyone wants to be the part of the extraordinary performance category because it is the best. I want to be the part of it too. But, I have heard that only twenty percent of the people are put in it. I feel that twenty percent is very low. If the quotas cannot be removed from the performance categories then at least the quota percentage allotted to the extraordinary performance category needs to be increased."***

In a response to the similar sort of a probing question which was posed to his appraiser (Extract 6) regarding the quota system practiced in his bank, while he was suggesting improvements for the PA process, this appraisee (Dyad 5, Bank B) seems to be interested in the removal of the quota system. In this respect, his argument seems to be similar to the arguments of the appraisees from extracts 2 and 3, and the appraisers from extract 4 and 6,

under this theme, “The Issue of the Quota System in Grading the Appraisees”. However, unlike these appraisees and appraisers, this appraisee seems to be bargaining between the two options. First option is the removal of the quota system, while the second option is the increase in the “quota percentage allotted to the extra ordinary performance category”. Therefore, his interest seems to be either the removal of the quota system or the increase in the “quota percentage allotted to the extraordinary performance category”.

The appraisee’s argument starts with the statement, “Everyone wants to be the part of the extraordinary performance category because it is the best”. The statement leads one to question that in the presence of the quota system, is it possible for everyone “to be the part of the extra ordinary performance category” which is also the best category one can be appraised in? Practically speaking, whether the quota system is present or not, the answer to this question seems to be no. The reason is that not everyone can be an extraordinary performer to be put into this category. Everyone’s performance varies. Some perform above average (or extra ordinary) while others perform average or below average. Moreover, in the presence of the quota system which lets “only twenty percent of the people” to be the part of the extraordinary performance category (as mentioned by this appraisee later in the argument), it seems next to impossible for everyone “to be the part of the extraordinary performance category”. This takes us back to the argument of this appraisee’s appraiser (Extract 6), “The rest of the year is spent in cooling down the appraisees, thanks to the quota system”. And one may think that the reason “the rest of the year is spent in cooling down the appraisees” is that “Everyone wants to be the part of the extraordinary performance category”; however, because of the quota system, not everyone can actually be the part of it.

In addition, this appraisee seems to have confessed his interest with the statement, “I want to be the part of it too”. By “it”, he means the extraordinary performance category. This can be seen as his main interest which seems to be directly related to the achievement of his other interests (which are either the removal of the quota system, or the increase in the “quota percentage allotted to the extraordinary performance category). However, before confessing his own interest or stake directly, the appraisee mentioned about everyone’s interest first, “Everyone wants to be the part of the extraordinary performance category because it is the best”. And by doing this, he seems to have made a room for his own direct confession. Even though we know that as an appraisee, he is the part of “everyone” too, but his explicit confession made his stance clearer. This increases both the ethical and

logical appeals of his argument. Therefore, one can say that he seems to have managed ‘‘the dilemma of stake’’ (Potter, 1996: 110) quite well.

This can be further explained with the idea of the rhetorical technique, “corroboration and consensus”, which is used by this appraisee to boost the factuality of his argument (Potter, 1996: 116). Edwards and Potter (1992a) noted that the use of rhetorical devices, such as the provision of vivid description, the use of reported speech, and the invoking of consensus warrants, is a discursive tool that helps build the facticity of a version of event or an account, grounding that account in the external world rather than in the mind or psychology of the speaker (Edwards, 2003). Similarly, Edwards & Potter (1992a) argued that consensus can be used in contrast to the use of stake as it assists in bolstering claims to factuality. This is done by including descriptions of others in the argument (Forbat, 2005). For example, corroborating claims from others in an argument is expected to make an argument seem to possess a greater influence than if the same claim is made by the speaker alone in his argument (Forbat, 2005). Therefore, when this appraisee used corroboration first by mentioning “everyone wants to be the part of the extraordinary performance category”, he can be seen as positioning himself as an ordinary and reasonable being, possibly wandering off any potential dispute that his opinion cannot be generalized (Forbat, 2005). Hence, by presenting “corroboration and consensus” (Potter, 1996: 116) first, in his argument, before confessing to his own interest, makes an interesting case which adds to both the ethical and logical appeals of his argument.

Accordingly, his interest can be protected from the potential alternative undermining (or the counter-arguments) of others. For example, it can not only be protected from the potential alternative undermining of those who support the quota system (such as the appraiser from extract 1, under this theme), but also it can be protected from the potential alternative undermining of those who support the low quota percentage allotments to the higher performance categories (e.g., the extraordinary performance category).

However, with the “I have heard” effect in the statement, “I have heard that only twenty percent of the people are put in it”, puts the category entitlement of this appraisee in doubt. This is because as an appraisee, one of the important parties to the PA process, one expects him to know the things profoundly about the PA process rather than merely heard them.

Another important issue in this argument of the appraisee is that he has only mentioned

about the extraordinary performance category and the twenty percent quota allotment to it. So one may question, what about the other performance categories and their quota allotment percentages? For example, this makes one skeptical about the appraisee. One may think that he has purposely avoided other categories and their quota allotment percentages because he himself is interested in the extraordinary performance category to which he has confessed as well. This is an ontological gerrymandering issue. Therefore, one may undermine (or ironize) his argument with the potential alternative counter-arguments on two grounds: his ignoring the other categories and their quota allotment percentages, and his focusing on the performance category and its quota allotment percentage which interested him. This is unlike the case of the appraisee from extract 5, under this theme. However, in his defence, one may say that it is due to the importance of this extraordinary performance category for "everyone" that he has mentioned it but not the other categories.

Extract 8

Appraisee (Dyad5, Bank B): ***"Quotas are used to put the limit on the number of people in each performance category. I have been put in the category of satisfactory this time. I surely deserved better. I had never thought that one day I would also be a victim of quota system."***

This argument is from another appraisee from (Dyad 5, Bank B). He was asked the similar sort of a probing question as his appraiser (Extract 6) and his appraisee colleague (Extract 7), regarding the quota system practiced in his bank, while he was suggesting improvements for the PA process.

The appraisee started his argument with the ironizing rhetoric, "Quotas are used to put the limit on the number of people in each performance category". His ironizing rhetoric can be seen as a resource to undermine or dismiss the potential alternative counter-arguments of those who favor the quota system, such as the first appraiser (Extract 1) under this theme.

Moreover, the appraisee pointed out the impact of quota system with the use of his own personal example, "I have been put in the category of satisfactory this time". The use of his own personal example creates both the ethical and emotional appeal for his argument as one empathizes with the appraisee. In addition, when the appraisee mentioned, "I had

never thought that one day I would also be a victim of quota system", it creates sympathy for him and so adds more to the emotional appeal or pathos of his argument.

Further, the appraisee's use of statements, "I surely deserved better", and "I had never thought that one day I would also be a victim of quota system", depict that he is also one of those appraisees as his appraisee colleague (Extract 7) who are interested in the extraordinary performance category. Particularly, the statement, "I surely deserved better", suggests that he is confessing his interest to be in a better performance category (perhaps the extraordinary performance category of his bank as it is the best performance category one can be appraised in). Therefore, similar to the analysis of the extract from his appraisee colleague (Extract 7), we are taken back to the statement of his appraiser (Extract 6), "rest of the year is spent in cooling down the appraisees, thanks to the quota system". The statement leads us to think that even though people deserve better, they are not put (or appraised) in the better categories of performance, such as the extraordinary performance category, because of the prevalence of the quota system in the PA of this bank.

Theme 3-The Issue of Fairness in PA Process

Extract 1

Appraiser (Dyad1, Bank A): ***"I have the experience of working with the leading banks of the country. My diverse experience says that this bank's performance appraisal system is the best. It is very fair and objective. I am not saying that there is no room for improvement in it. But at least I can assure you that it is the best I have experienced."***

This argument is a response of an appraiser regarding a question about the fairness in the appraisal process. The appraiser establishes his credibility from the very first line by mentioning about his experience. In practice, ethos and pathos are closely related, for one effect of ethos, as well as inducing a degree of trust, is also to create a feeling of goodwill in the audience towards the speaker, so that the projection of an appropriate character achieves more subtly the effect required by explicit appeals for a favorable listening (Carey, 1994). Therefore, this can be seen as a case where the ethical appeal leads to create emotional appeal in the argument.

Subsequently, the repetition of the word, "experience", in the second line, and in the last line as a third form of the verb, hints hyperbole. In other words, we experience one figurative language (repetition) hinting another (hyperbole). For example, one gets a sense of exaggeration from the repetition of the word, "experience", three times, in this small piece of an argument. However, the purpose of this hyperbole can be justified by the purpose of repetition which seems to be creating emphasis for building ethos. According to Kallendorf & Kallendorf (1985), the figures of speech enable a writer to arrange, shape, and present ideas in a way that the image of a thoughtful and analytical person is projected whose ideas deserve to be taken seriously. This can be equally regarded as true in case of this appraiser (where repetition and hyperbole has enabled him to build ethos). Therefore, the presence of repetition and hyperbole in the argument of this appraiser has surely projected his image as a thoughtful being whose ideas are worthy of attention which is also aiding to the weak logical appeal of his argument.

This is unlike the case of the first appraiser (Extract 1), under the first theme, "The Issue of PA Forms", where the hyperbole was mistaken for facts by him, and so damaged his credibility. For example, McGuigan (2010) argued that when you are using figures of speech, it is important to make sure that you are helping your cause, rather than hindering it. A misuse form, or a form used in an inappropriate place, can act as a barrier to your readers, break the flow of your argument or actively confuse your readers about your meaning (McGuigan, 2010).

In addition, it can be observed that the appraiser is being defensive in his statement, "I am not saying that there is no room for improvement in it". For example, it seems as if the appraiser expects potential alternative counter-arguments on his overall account from the other appraisers and appraisees so he has used this statement on his defence. Therefore, the appraiser seems to be involved in reification. In other words, he has constructed the account in a way that it looks factual or real. And so we find ourselves agreeing with the appraiser on the grounds that everything has a "room for improvement". Those who will not find the appraisal system as "the best" will still find common grounds with the appraiser on the realm that there is a "room for improvement in it". Consequently, this reification can be seen as a way appraiser is protecting his account from the potential alternative undermining. Moreover, this defensive rhetorical strategy seems to be adding more to the ethos of the appraiser.

However, the appraiser's argument lacks enough reasoning to support his statement regarding the fairness and objectivity of the appraisal system. Clearly, appraiser's mentioning of his "experience" repeatedly does not seem to give enough reasoning for it. Fortunately, the ethical appeal of the appraiser's argument seems strong enough to diminish the weak impression of the logos. Instead, one may say that the logos have been strengthened in this argument because of the strong ethical appeal. Therefore, this can be seen as an example of a case where the weak logical appeal gets strengthened because of the strong ethical appeal in the argument. Therefore, when the appraiser says, "I assure you", in the last sentence of his argument, it generates a greater impact. This is because it has been stated by him after the statements which have already generated ethos.

The argument also hints the ontological gerrymandering. For example, the question required the appraiser to talk about the fairness in the appraisal process; however, the appraiser kept emphasising on establishing it as "the best" appraisal system by repeatedly mentioning about his "experience", and calling performance appraisal system as "the best". However, he could have emphasised on establishing it as "fair" which he conveniently avoided. "So, in terms of ontological gerrymandering", the appraiser's "description selects one realm of entities" ("the best") "and ignores another" ("fair") (Potter, 1996: 184).

In the defence of the argument of the appraiser, one can say that when he labeled the appraisal system as "the best", one naturally expects it to be "fair" as well. So in view of that this appraiser didn't need to emphasise more on the "fair" aspect as it is understood through the other aspect, "the best". This guides us to the idea of a "major ethnomethodological concept", "reflexivity", according to which a description is not just "about" something but it is a constitutive "part of'' that something (Potter, 1996: 47). For example, "in stressing the reflexive nature of discourse, ethnomethodologists are attempting to undermine the commonly assumed dualism between a description and what it is description of'' (Potter, 1996: 47) and so to them a description "is a constitutive part of the events" (Potter, 1996: 47). In other words, one can say that "the sense of the events is, in part, constituted by the description" (Potter, 1996: 47). Therefore, the description, "the best", naturally constitutes the event, "fair".

Now the question is why he did it? Why he focused more on the general realm? In order to answer the questions one needs to return to the idea of ''the dilemma of stake'' (Potter, 1996: 110). One can say that he may have selected to argue in a more general way in order

to restrain himself from entering into a potentially controversial debate, on the specific issues of fairness in the PA process, with other appraisers and appraisees. For example, he may have anticipated that the other appraisers and appraisees have specific interests in the issue of fairness in the PA process as the issue is potentially controversial. If this is the case then by attributing interests to other appraisers and appraisees ("stake invocation"), though in an implied manner, the appraiser has avoided himself from entering into a potentially controversial debate on the specific issues of fairness in PA process. These specific issues about the fairness in the PA process may have been those issues regarding which this appraiser would have thought that they could be easily undermined by the other appraisers and appraisees if he would argue about them. Therefore, not arguing about them has protected his account from the potential alternative counter-arguments of the other appraisers and appraisees on the specific issues of fairness in PA process.

Moreover, when appraiser says, "But at least I can assure you that it is the best I have experienced", one seems to believe him. This is because this appraiser is not any random person who appraises the performance of people in the bank. If he is called an appraiser then appraising is one of his crucial job responsibilities. He is not the only one who is appraising the performance of people in the bank as one of his crucial job responsibilities but there are many others like him. His job title may possibly be different, depending on which level of hierarchy he belongs to in the bank and the other crucial responsibilities he performs, but when he is carrying out his appraising responsibility, he is referred as the appraiser. For example, majority of the appraisees referred to their appraisers as appraisers. There were very few cases where appraisees used the terms, such as supervisor or boss instead of the term appraiser. Therefore, this appraiser is worthy of the entitlement of the category of appraiser and so as all the other appraisers I interviewed in the two banks. However, what makes this appraiser's case more strong than others, in terms of credibility, is that we are aware from his account that he has "diverse experience". And so the entitlement to the category of appraiser gives him authority of being a credible source of information than others. Consequently, when he says "But at least I can assure you that it is the best I have experienced", one tends to believe him. Therefore, in this extract, one can observe a case where "a description can present an information source as credible based on authority derived from membership in a particular category" (McKenzie, 2003: 272).

Extract 2

Appraisee (Dyad 1, Bank A): ***"All I can say is that 'ammo ki pati' is very important in getting a good appraisal."***

This argument is from one of the appraisees of the same dyad. He was asked a similar question, as his appraiser, regarding the fairness in the appraisal process.

The exact translation of 'ammo ki pati' is the box of mangoes. The term is mostly used as to refer to bribery in a polite and indirect manner. It refers to a form of bribery which is done by giving or gifting something to someone and in return asking some sort of a favor. This something can be anything from a real box of mangoes to other valuable things. Mostly it is not stated verbally by the sender that what favor he wants from the receiver. It is presumed that the receiver already knows what favor he has to give to the sender in return. Therefore, one can say that allusion is being used here by the appraisee as 'ammo ki pati' which refers to bribery in a polite and indirect manner.

Moreover, the statement, "all I can say is that 'ammo ki pati' is very important in getting a good appraisal" indicates the use of offensive rhetorical strategy by the appraisee. For example, the statement of appraisee seems to negate what his appraiser argued above. It seems as if the appraisee had an idea that the appraisers would not accept that unfairness exists in the PA process so he undermined their potential alternative statements already with his statement, "all I can say is that 'ammo ki pati' is very important in getting a good appraisal". This indicates the antagonistic relation between appraisees and appraisers and their versions.

When I asked the appraisee to explain what he means by 'ammo ki pati', he replied:

"You know it very well. Don't you?"

Here, one can say that the appraisee left his statement on my interpretation. Saying something and then leaving the rest on the interpretation of an audience may mean four things:

First, knowing that I am a native and so I would be familiar with the term, the appraisee may have trusted me in my interpretation. For example, his rhetorical question ("Don't you?") also suggests the emphasis that he believes that I know and so he trusts that I would interpret it right. Knowing that he trusts me creates an emotional appeal of persuasion in his statement. However, there may be two possibilities to consider here: either the appraisee trusted me with my interpretation to reach out to his broader audience (for example, other appraisees and appraisers), or he trusted me with my interpretation as his only audience, while ignoring his broader audience. Now the question is did I trust him as his interviewer or immediate audience? Optimistically speaking, knowing that someone trusts you, leads you to trust back. So there is ethos created for the appraisee.

Second, the appraisee may have limitations to explain it more openly or directly; for example, he may be thinking of what if the information got leaked using his name. Now the question is who would leak this information? If I was the only audience he thought of his rhetoric then it means that he didn't trust me despite of the fact that we agreed that I will keep the names of the interviewees anonymous. If this is the case then my first statement regarding his trusting my interpretation gets negated and so as the emotional appeal which it had created as the trust factor is not there anymore.

If trust is an issue then this leads us to the third thing. The appraisee might be concealing something. The idea of concealing something of course affects the ethos negatively.

Forth, one can also say that the appraisee may not have enough evidence to support his statement so he deliberately preferred to leave it on the interpretation of his immediate audience (me) rather than justifying it. If this is the case then this affects the logical appeal to persuasion in his argument negatively.

Extract 3

Appraisee (Dyad 1, Bank A): ***"What can I say? In some instances, it is fair. In some instances, it is not. I am sure it can be improved"***

This argument is a response of another appraisee from the same dyad, to a similar question, which was asked from his appraiser and his appraisee colleague, regarding the fairness in the appraisal process.

The appraisee's repetition of the same words at the start of the statements, "In some instances, it is fair. In some instances, it is not", suggests the presence of 'anaphora'. Anaphora usually gives prominence to the idea. Here, the idea which gets the prominence is that PA process is both fair and unfair. The rhetorical question in the start also supports the anaphora by emphasising that both situations are present as if it is something obvious to expect that both situations are present.

However, as this appraisee is sure that "it can be improved", one expects it to be improved in the instances where it is not fair. Now the question is why the appraisee is sure? We know that he has witnessed the PA process as being one of the important parties to it. For example, we know that he is the party whose appraisal is conducted while his appraiser is the party who conducts it. Therefore, he is entitled to the category of the "appraisee" which gives him the authority to be seen as a knowledgeable source about the PA process. In other words, his entitlement to the category of the ''appraisee'' gives him the authority to be a credible source of information. So when he says that "I am sure it can be improved", one tends to believe him.

Moreover, when he says that "I am sure it can be improved", he seems to be agreeing with his appraiser. This is because he has represented the same idea as his appraiser: there is a "room for improvement in it". One can observe that he is using the defensive rhetorical strategy (or reification) to protect his account from the potential alternative criticism from those he is expecting to object or undermine the part of his account which is about its not being fair. For example, he may be expecting other appraisees and appraisers to be calling it fair. At the same time, he seems to be defending the accounts of those who find it not fair but are hopeful that it can be improved. Therefore, this forms a case where he is not only defending his own account, but also he is defending the expected accounts of other appraisees and appraisers which are similar to his own.

In addition, the idea of the presence of "ammo ki pati", presented by the previous appraisee (Extract 2), loses its strength in a sense that the argument of this appraisee suggests that "ammo ki pati" is not "very important" after all as one thinks that it may be important in some instances but not in all. Accordingly, he seems to have ironized the account of the previous appraisee but only partly. In other words, this appraisee has undermined the account of not only the previous appraisee but also the other appraisees and appraisers, whom he expects to disagree, by mentioning in his account that "In some instances, it is

fair"; however, he has not done it utterly as he has also mentioned in his account that "In some instances, it is not".

Extract 4

Appraiser (Dyad 3, Bank A): ***"It is not my random observation. I have been appraising for more than 15 years. It is certainly a very long time. I believe that the soul of a good appraisal system is in the idea of letting people progress, especially those who are performers. When I am appraising, I follow this idea very religiously*****."**

This argument is a response of another appraiser regarding a question about the fairness in the performance appraisal process practiced in his bank. In a similar fashion as the appraiser from extract 1 (Dyad 1, Bank A), under this theme, "The Issue of Fairness in PA Process", this appraiser mentions about his experience of working. However, unlike his appraiser colleague, he seems to be more specific in terms of the field of his experience and the number of years he has spent in that field as he said, "I have been appraising for more than 15 years".

The appraiser seems to be building his category entitlement as a credible appraiser from the very first statement of his argument, "It is not my random observation". Then his second statement of the argument, "I have been appraising for more than 15 years", supports his first statement. This is because when we know these credentials about the appraiser, his credibility is increased as these credentials give him the authority to have expertise and knowledge which others don't have. His next statement, "It is certainly a very long time", seems to be adding to his category entitlement as a credible appraiser. Therefore, the first three statements of the appraiser's argument can be seen as his tactic to build up his category entitlement as a credible appraiser before coming to the actual point of his argument. This is quite an interesting way to start an argument as by doing this, the audience's trust is already developed on the speaker or writer before they actually come to the main point of their argument.

Another interesting aspect regarding the first three statements of the appraiser's argument is that the statements give the impression as if the appraiser is arguing with himself first, in his mind, before coming to the main point of his argument and persuading others. For example, when he said, "It is not my random observation", he seems to have proved this

statement with the two subsequent statements, “I have been appraising for more than 15 years”, and “It is certainly a very long time”. These two subsequent statements seem to be working as his reifying (or defensive) rhetoric to protect his own first statement. Hence, he seems to be persuading himself first, before coming to the main point of his argument and persuading others, by arguing with himself. This takes us to what Watson (1994: 60) stated, while emphasising on the rhetorical or persuasive features of an argument, “justifying what we ‘are about’ to ourselves and others is part of our maintaining our personal self-esteem which, in turn, is part of our making sense of our position in the world and thus achieving the sense of control which is essential to our sanity”. According to Harvey et al. (1990), the accounts which we tell to ourselves and the accounts which we tell to others, both manage our self-esteem. In the view of this, the argument of the appraiser seems to be building both ethical and logical appeal from the very start.

In addition, the main point of his argument is represented in his statement, “I believe that the soul of a good appraisal system is in the idea of letting people progress, especially those who are performers”. This statement represents the appraiser’s interest through what he believes in. Therefore, his interest seems to be in letting performers progress. The appraiser seems to have accepted his interest with the statement, “When I am appraising, I follow this idea very religiously.”

However, even though the appraiser seems to have done the “stake confession” (Potter, 1996: 129), he has been able to manage ‘‘the dilemma of stake’’ (Potter, 1996: 110) quite well. This is because he has already built the ethical and logical appeal in his account through category entitlement and arguing with himself first as discussed earlier. Therefore, one can say that his stake or interest is not easy to be challenged. Moreover, his statement, “the soul of a good appraisal system is in the idea of letting people progress, especially those who are performers”, can also be seen as his ironizing rhetoric to undermine the potential alternative counter-arguments of those who do not think that it is in their hands to let the performers progress. For example, under the previous theme, “The Issue of the Quota System in Grading the Appraisees”, an appraiser, in extract 4 (Dyad 4, Bank B), said that “The quota system is to be blamed and not the appraisers for providing performance evaluation that are not what were expected by the appraisees”.

Last but not the least, the argument of this appraiser also seems to have an emotional appeal. This is because the appraiser leaves an impression on us as a considerate and fair person who lets performers progress.

Extract 5

Appraisee (Dyad 3, Bank A): ***"What fairness do you expect in the presence of Chaudhary and Arayee brothers? It is very important to salute them if you want any sort of progress. I have never saluted them and you can see the result. Where am I standing today? All my juniors have been promoted but not me*****"**

This argument is a response of an appraisee, from the same dyad and bank as his appraiser (Dyad 3, Bank A), to a question regarding the fairness in the appraisal process.

The appraisee's argument starts with a rhetorical question, "What fairness do you expect in the presence of Chaudhary and Arayee brothers?" However, before going to the significance of this rhetorical question in the argument of this appraisee, I would explain what does it mean by "Chaudhary and Arayee brothers"? "Chaudhary and Arayee" are two of the many castes in the province of Punjab, Pakistan. When someone adds brother/brothers while referring to a particular caste, such as Chaudhary brother/brothers or Arayee brother/brothers, it commonly means two things:

1. In order to give respect to individual/individuals or group belonging to that caste.
2. In order to criticise individual/individuals or group belonging to that caste indirectly or sarcastically.

Looking at the rhetorical question, it seems that the word "brothers" is used to criticise the individuals or group belonging to the two castes, "Chaudhary and Arayee". For example, the rhetorical question gives an impression that it has not been asked by the appraisee for the purpose of receiving an answer but to emphasise upon the matter that the fairness cannot be expected in the PA process due to the presence of "Chaudhary and Arayee brothers" in the process. Therefore, this argument may not have any persuasive appeal for the people who proudly call themselves ''Chaudharies and Arayees''. They may rather find the argument of this appraisee offensive and dismiss it completely.

The next statement of the appraisee's argument, "It is very important to salute them if you want any sort of progress", clears that the appraisee used the word "brother" in order to criticise the individuals or group belonging to the two castes. In professions where the salute is not a mandatory requirement of the job, it is commonly considered as a fawning tactic where the saluting person could expect favors (of any sort, big or small) from the person whom he/she salutes. Of course this idea does not apply to the jobs where the salute is considered as a mendatory requirement of the job, such as military and police. However, it is completely at the discretion of the saluted person to give the favors which the saluting person expects from him/her.

The appraisee immediately makes his position clear, after stating that "It is very important to salute them if you want any sort of progress", with the use of the statement, "I have never saluted them and you can see the result". In the two subsequent statements, "Where am I standing today?", and "All my juniors have been promoted but not me", the appraisee informs us about the consequence he suffered because of not saluting the "Chaudhary and Arayee brothers". This is the second time the appraisee has used the rhetorical question in this argument. However, this rhetorical question seems to be more specific to him, in comparison to the first one, as it emphasises upon the consequence he suffered because of not saluting the "Chaudhary and Arayee brothers". Therefore, one feels sympathy for him. This adds to the emotional appeal of his account.

It is not clear though that who are these "Chaudhary and Arayee brothers"? For example, whether they are appraisers (including his own) or is he referring to HR Division (which designed the PA process). However, in the consideration of the argument of the appraiser from extract 4 (Dyad 4, Bank B), under the previous theme, "The Issue of the Quota System in Grading the Appraisees", he is probably not referring to his appraiser but the people of the HR division who have designed the PA process and assigned the quota system. Therefore, he is probably indicating towards the HR division as the appraiser from extract 4 (Dyad 4, Bank B) did, under the theme, "The Issue of the Quota System in Grading the Appraisees", by stating that "The quota system is to be blamed and not the appraisers for providing performance evaluation that are not what were expected by the appraisees".

In addition, his argument seems to be a complete contrast to the argument of his appraiser (Extract 4). This leads one to think that how his appraiser lets performers progress when in

the end quota system influence the grades. And if the quota system doesn't have any role in the PA process then how come this appraisee didn't get promoted like his juniors. This may put the argument of his appraiser in doubt. However, in the consideration of how strong the argument of his appraiser was, one may think that probably this appraisee is not a performer and so he didn't get promoted.

Moreover, the appraisee's argument is full of ironizing (or offensive) rhetoric to undermine the potential alternative accounts of not only the "Chaudhary and Arayee brothers" who would claim to be fair, but also all the people who would claim about the fairness in the PA process in his bank. It is a very controversial account. The appraisee has given his personal example in order to make his account strong as his use of personal example enhances the emotional appeal of his account. However, the other two, logical and ethical appeals seem to be quite vulnerable in his argument. His stake or interest seems to be in the outcome of his PA process, his promotion matter, which he seems to be managing with the ironizing strategy. Finally, the issue in his account is that not all the audience may be able to take his argument with neutral mind because of a great deal of controversy in it.

Extract 6

Appraisee (Dyad 3, Bank A): ***"It is very complicated for me to tell you about the fairness. My appraisal is done by my immediate boss and I do the appraisal of those who work under me. If I talk as an appraisee, I have experienced occasions where I have felt that I should have been appraised better. For example, on one occasion, I had definitely performed better than my colleague, Miss X. While on the other, I felt better, in terms of performance, than Mr Y and Z. But, unfortunately they were all graded better than me. Oh! Please don't mention their names to anyone. Although I was not happy with the appraisal results, I still gave my appraiser the benefit of the doubt because he generally seems to be a nice guy to me. I don't think he can be unfair. You see, I am an appraiser too. I understand how things work here. So I don't want to blame him".***

This argument is a response of another appraisee, from the same dyad and bank as his appraiser (Extract 4) and appraisee colleague (Extract 5), to a question regarding the fairness in the appraisal process.

There is massive detail in the argument of this appraisee. According to Robertson et al. (2010), the speaker's account is considered more solid, real, and objective if it is based on more details. However, his argument seems to be contradictory to the argument of his fellow appraisee (Extract 5) mainly on the grounds of the use of offensive and defensive rhetoric. For example, his fellow appraisee's argument is full of ironizing (or offensive) rhetoric, while his argument is largely based on reifying (or defensive) rhetoric. The appraisee seems to have used defensive rhetoric (or reification) in order to protect the account of his appraiser (Extract 4). It seems that he has already anticipated about the potential argument of his appraiser and so he built his account in the consideration of it. For example, he seems to be supportive of the view that his appraiser lets the performers to progress. Similarly, it seems that the appraisee has already anticipated the alternative counter-arguments against his appraiser's position (e.g., of his fellow appraisee colleague) so he kept on defending it.

However, the appraisee also shared his concerns regarding his PA, "I have experienced occasions where I have felt that I should have been appraised better". Therefore, in sharing his own personal example, he went into a plenty of detail again. For example, while going in the flow of providing detail, he even mentioned the names of his fellow colleagues whom he though were graded better than him despite of him performing better than them. Yet, straight away, he asked me not to mention their names to anyone. Therefore, they are mentioned as ''X'', ''Y'' and ''Z'' in his account. He may have thought that I would be interviewing them too. One interesting matter to mention here is that even when he thought that he has not been graded according to his performance, he didn't blame his appraiser for that and gave him "the benefit of the doubt because he generally seems to be a nice guy" to the appraisee. This indicates that the appraisee may have thought that there could be other factors due to which he was not graded according to his performance. This takes us back to the case of the appraiser in extract 4 (Dyad 4, Bank B), under the theme, "The Issue of the Quota System in Grading the Appraisees", where the appraiser stated that "The quota system is to be blamed and not the appraisers for providing performance evaluation that are not what were expected by the appraisees". Therefore, one may think that this appraisee might have considered the issue of the quota system as one such factor.

Moreover, because he shared his personal example while arguing about "The Issue of Fairness in the PA process", it seems to have increased all three appeals of persuasion in his argument. For example, the example of his personal experience may lead one to think

that the appraisee is intelligent and can be trusted so it increases the ethos. Example of his personal experience may also provide the opportunity to the audience to relate to the situation of the appraisee and so it increases both the ethos and pathos of his argument. While in terms of increasing the logos, example of his personal experience seems to have led the appraisee to provide more details or facts.

In addition, there is an important issue to point here in regard to the category entitlement. In the beginning, this appraisee's category entitlement as the ''appraisee'' seems to be affected unconstructively, with his use of the statement, "It is very complicated for me to tell you about the fairness". However, later in his argument we have come to know that he has stated that because of being both the appraisee and appraiser on simultaneous basis, "My appraisal is done by my immediate boss and I do the appraisal of those who work under me". Therefore, one can easily observe that the apraisee kept on shifting (or switching) between the two category entitlements, the ''appraisee'' and ''appraiser''. The statements, "If I talk as an appraisee" and "I am an appraiser too", particularly suggest it. The interesting aspect is that when the appraisee shifted from his category entitlement of the ''appraisee'' to his category entitlement of the ''appraiser'', he created a defence (or reification) to protect the category entitlement of his appraiser from the potential alternative undermining. For example, his last four statements of the argument, "I don't think he can be unfair. You see, I am an appraiser too. I understand how things work here. So I don't want to blame him", suggest it. Therefore, he used his category entitlement of the ''appraiser'', but not the ''appraisee'', to support and defend his appraiser's category entitlement and his appraiser's potential position. In other words, he used his category entitlement of the ''appraiser'' to support and defend what he anticipated as the position of his appraiser from the potential alternative undermining by the other appraisees, such as his fellow appraisee colleague (Extract 5).

Accordingly, this forms a case where we observe the appraisee protecting the account of his appraiser through his one of the two category entitlements; for example, through his category entitlement of the ''appraiser'', which leads one to believe that what he says about his appraiser is right. Thus, the credibility of his appraiser is created in his account. It seems to be an interesting case as one person uses his argument and switches between the two category entitlements for the purpose of protecting the other person's category entitlement and account, rather than just protecting one's own account and category entitlements, from the potential alternative undermining. This leads one to question, why?

Or, what's the stake or interest of the appraisee in doing so? One may say that protecting his appraiser's account and category entitlement means protecting his own position and his category entitlement of the ''appraiser'' too. This may also mean that this appraisee values his role as the appraiser more than his role as the appraisee. For example, in his statement, "I am an appraiser too", he hints to confess it. So has he managed ''the dilemma of stake'' (Potter, 1996: 110) well? In the consideration of what has been discussed, one may say that he does not seem to manage it well as the appraisee, but he seems to manage it well as the appraiser.

Therefore, in view of the analysis of this extract, we may agree with what Potter & Wetherell (1987) and Gilbert & Mulkey (1984; 2003) stated that the issues of interest or stake are managed with the detail (or vivid description) by the speaker. Therefore, it seems to be in the interest of the appraisees and appraisers to provide this amount of detail, as this appraisee has provided, in order to promote their respective category entitlements. In this case, the detail has promoted this appraisee's one of the two category entitlements, and that is, the category entitlement of the ''appraiser''- the one which he seems to value more.

Extract 7

Appraiser (Dyad 6, Bank B): ***"Appraisal is conducted every year. We have four categories to rate the performance of the appraisees. The categories are extraordinary performance, very good performance, satisfactory performance, and unsatisfactory performance. A person needs to be in the category of extraordinary performance for three consecutive years in order to get the promotion. If the person has been rated as an extraordinary performer for two consecutive years and falls into the category of very good performance in the third year, he is not eligible for the promotion. This makes the process very strict. Everyone wants to be in the category of extraordinary performance and no one wants to be in the category of unsatisfactory performance. The promotion is only given if the person has achieved three years of consecutive extraordinary performance. There are rewards for the very good performers too but of course nothing is better than promotion. Unfortunately there are no rewards for the satisfactory performers. And the worst thing ever is if you are ranked as an unsatisfactory performer. You are either given warning or demotion if you are an unsatisfactory performer. The strictness of the process makes it difficult for the dodgers to dodge us. I mean they can dodge once but not for three consecutive times. You genuinely are an***

extraordinary performer and deserve promotion if your performance is ranked as extraordinary for three consecutive years."

This detailed argument is a response of an appraiser (Dyad 6, Bank B) to a question about the fairness in the appraisal process.

In the argument, the stake of the appraiser appears to be in proving that the PA process in his bank is fair. He is doing it by providing great deal of detail. The main point he is highlighting by providing all the detail is that "The strictness of the process makes it difficult for the dodgers to dodge" the appraisers. As mentioned in the previous extract (Extract 6), according to Potter & Wetherell (1987) and Gilbert & Mulkey (1984; 2003), the issues regarding stake or interest are managed with the detail or vivid description by the speakers. This is what the appraiser seems to be doing in this argument. The appraiser has created the logical and ethical appeals in the argument with the help of the vivid (or detailed description). Moreover, he has managed ''the dilemma of stake'' (Potter, 1996: 110) well with the details in his argument. Similarly, by managing it, his category entitlement is also protected.

Moreover, with the use of the detail in his account, the appraiser has been able to produce his defence well. He appears to be using defensive rhetoric to prove the fairness in the PA process when he said that "The strictness of the process makes it difficult for the dodgers to dodge us. I mean they can dodge once but not for three consecutive times". He is protecting his account from the potential alternative undermining of those who could question the fairness of the PA process. As mentioned earlier, the use of defensive rhetoric (or reifying) by the appraiser is also supporting his category entitlement. Similarly, the vivid description in his argument provides a defence for his interest -which seems to be justifying that the PA process of his bank is fair.

The appraiser has used repetition on a number of occasions in his argument as well. For example he has repeated his same point regarding promotion in three different ways in different parts of his argument. First time, when he said, "A person needs to be in the category of extraordinary performance for three consecutive years in order to get the promotion". Second time, when he said, "If the person has been rated as an extraordinary performer for two consecutive years and falls into the category of very good performance in the third year, he is not eligible for the promotion". And third time, when he said, "The

promotion is only given if the person has achieved three years of consecutive extraordinary performance". The repetition is there to create an emphasis on the point that "The strictness of the process makes it difficult for the dodgers to dodge" the appraisers and so it protects his interest of justifying that the PA of his bank is fair. Additionally, the repetition is also giving an impression as if the appraiser is arguing with himself first before coming to the main idea of his argument (e.g., as the appraiser in Extract 4 has done under this theme).

However, the important point to consider here is that the appraiser is only making his point from one perspective. He is trying to represent the PA process as fair from the perspective of "The strictness of the process" for the appraisees but he has not mentioned anything about "the strictness of the process" for the appraisers in appraising the performance. One may wonder that what if the appraisers are biased or judgemental. Therefore, one would also like to know about "the strictness of the process" for the appraisers which, for instance, stops them from being biased or judgemental. Similarly, we observe one outcome aspect of the PA, in this detailed argument of the appraiser, and that is, promotion. One may wonder that he could have used the other outcome aspects of the PA as well, than merely promotion, in order to protect his interest of justifying the fairness in the PA process. Accordingly, this suggests "the extended sense of ontological gerrymandering", where the appraiser has argued about one area and avoided the other, in his argument (Potter, 1996: 184). Therefore, his stake (or interest) seems to have the likelihood of being challenged.

Finally, an interesting fact to mention here is that in the previous theme, "The Issue of quota system in Grading the Appraisees", the appraisee from (Extract 7) pointed out that "Everyone wants to be the part of the extraordinary performance category because it is the best", which this appraiser also pointed out in his argument. For example, this appraiser used the statement, "Everyone wants to be in the category of extraordinary performance and no one wants to be in the category of unsatisfactory performance". However, if the statements of these two appraisee and appraiser are compared, we would know that both used them to justify their contradicting interests. The appraisee used the statement in his effort to create an argument in order to justify his interest of becoming the part of this extraordinary category (or perhaps to indicate the unfairness in the PA process implicitly) by providing two options: either the removal of the quota system completely, or the increase in the "quota percentage allotted to the extraordinary performance category''.

While this appraiser used the statement to provide detail in order to justify his interest that his bank's PA process is fair. For example, what he appears to mean is that "everyone wants to be in the category of extraordinary performance", but only the genuine people are able to be the part of this category because of the strictness of the PA process, that is, one has to have "three years of consecutive extraordinary performance". Hence, the antagonistic relationship between the versions of the appraisee and appraiser is spotted.

Extract 8

Appraisee (Dyad 6, Bank B): ***"Taiz logo ka appraisal hum jasay logo say hamesha acha hota hai. Do you think it's a fair appraisal when the appraisers can be easily fooled?"***

This argument is a response of the appraisee from the same dyad and bank as his appraiser (Extract 7). The appraisee was asked the similar question as his appraiser regarding the fairness in the appraisal process.

The first statement of this appraisee is in Urdu language and its translation is: Cunning or crafty people always manage to get a good appraisal than those who are like me. The word "taiz" can be used both positively and negatively. When used in a positive sense, it means clever or smart. However, it is commonly used and understood negatively in order to indirectly call people as cunning or crafty. The word "Logo" means people which in this case are appraisees. Therefore, one may say that the allusion has been used here by the appraisee as "taiz" appraisee indirectly means a cunning or crafty appraisee who always manages to get a good appraisal despite of not performing well.

The appraisee has also used comparison to differentiate himself from the "taiz" appraisees in the first sentence. This comparison by the appraisee to differentiate himself from the "taiz" appraisees also indicates that the appraisee has definitely not used the word "taiz" in a positive meaning. For example, when one comes to know that the "taiz" appraisees always manage to get good appraisal, but not the ones who are like this appraisee, one's sympathies are generated for this appraisee and the ones who are like him. The sympathies are generated because one considers this appraisee and the ones who are like him opposite of the negative meaning of "taiz". Therefore, the allusion and comparison has built the pathos (or the emotional appeal) in the argument of this appraisee.

Moreover, the immediate use of a rhetorical question by the appraisee after his first statement leads us to think about the incapability of appraisers to recognise the genuinely good performers. So it is clear that this appraisee is not expecting any answer to his rhetorical question. With the rhetorical question, he simply wants to stress upon the point that when appraisers can be easily fooled by the "taiz" appraisees then it cannot be called a fair appraisal. And the appraisee made this point persuasive with the use of illusion, comparison and rhetorical question.

The argument of this appraisee not only clashes with the appraiser of his own dyad, but also with the appraiser of the previous dyad (Extract 4). I will talk about them one by one:

Firstly, ones scepticism about the capability of the appraisers to recognise the genuinely good performers, which is raised after reading this appraisee's argument, doesn't fade away even when one considers the detailed logical defence made in the argument of his appraiser. Thereby, the logical defence made in the argument of his appraiser (Extract 7) could be potentially undermined by this appraisee's ironizing. This is because of the issue of the ontological gerrymandering in his appraiser's argument (e.g., his appraiser represented the PA process as fair from the perspective of "The strictness of the process" for the appraisees, but he didn't mention anything about "the strictness of the process" for the appraisers in appraising the performance). Therefore, the capability of the appraisers to recognise the genuinely good performers remains doubtful.

Secondly, we have learnt that the appraiser of the previous dyad (Extract 4) lets the people to progress, especially the ones who are performers. So in the light of the argument of this appraisee, one may become sceptical about the ability of the appraiser of the previous dyad (Extract 4) to recognise the genuine performers. This is because the account of that appraiser does not give much detail that on what basis he considers someone as a good performer.

Therefore, one can say that this appraisee has managed to undermine the arguments of both the appraisers with the use of his offensive (or ironizing) rhetoric. This depicts the antagonistic relationship between the versions of the two important parties to the PA process. However, as the appraiser (Extract 4) has ''been appraising for more than 15 years" so considering his experience, one would expect him "to possess particular knowledge and understanding that others would not have" (Robertson et al., 2010: 05). In

other words, if one would consider him in the category of the ‘‘appraiser’’, especially “for more than 15 years”, it would certainly entitle him to have the reliable knowledge about the PA than others. So his entitlement to the category of the ‘‘appraiser’’ would work as his defence to protect his argument from being undermined by others as it has created a strong ethical appeal for the appraiser in terms of his credibility.

The case of the previous appraiser (Extract 4) is also quite similar to the first appraiser (Extract 1), under this theme, “The Issue of Fairness in PA Process”. For example, in both the cases, the “category entitlement” has increased the credibility of both the appraisers in a similar fashion. This is due to the mentioning of their “experience” by both of the appraisers in their accounts. Accordingly, one can say that they are not merely the “witness” and the important party to the PA process, but they are the ‘‘witness’’ and the important party to the PA with “experience”.

Extract 9

Appraiser (Dyad 7, Bank B): ***“I generally treat both men and women on equal grounds. [A long pause, almost of 15 seconds] There are some situations which require you to be fair not in terms of men versus women but for the women. Do you think our culture and society is supportive enough to send women alone to some rural area far from their homes for employment purposes? Do you think doing this is fair for our women? The female ratio to male is already very low in the banking sector of our country. Majority of the females who work in banks are from the cities and they prefer to work in the cities only. When they are transferred to the rural branches, they are reluctant to go there. Most of them leave their jobs if the transfer is mandatory. We don’t want that to happen. We want to encourage our women to work. This is what I call the real fairness.”***

This is a detailed argument from a female appraiser (Dyad 7, Bank B). She generated this argument as a response to a question, which was asked to her during the interview, regarding the fairness of the PA process in her bank. An interesting fact about this appraiser is that she is the appraiser of five appraisees, I had interviewed for this study, who were all men. Of course she appraised more than five; however, I could only interview five.

Similar to the argument of the previous appraiser (Extract 7), there is a great deal of detail in this appraisee's argument. This suggests logical and ethical appeal. However, she mainly appears to build her account on two aspects. First is, one of the outcomes of the PA process, transfer. And second is that her argument only includes her perspective of the fairness in the PA for the women. Similarly, we observed one outcome aspect of the PA, in the detailed account of the previous appraiser, which is promotion. Accordingly, as in the case of the previous appraiser, her argument may potentially be challenged, on the grounds of "sufficiently and relatively" missing or absent aspects (Potter, 1996:183).

Moreover, this appraiser's account is based on her own belief of what "the real fairness" is to her. According to her, the real fairness is treating men and women on equal basis but she also believes that "there are some situations which require you to be fair not in terms of men versus women but for the women". She has confessed her belief with the statement, "This is what I call the real fairness". She uses two rhetorical questions to justify her account from being challenged: "Do you think our culture and society is supportive enough to send women alone to some rural area far from their homes for employment purposes? Do you think doing this is fair for our women?" It is clear from these questions that the appraiser is not seeking any answer to them. She has made these rhetorical questions to stress on the following points:

1. Our (Pakistani) culture and society is not "supportive enough to send women alone to some rural area far from their homes for employment purposes"
2. In case the women are sent "alone to some rural area far from their homes for employment purposes", it is not fair to them because they will end up leaving their jobs.

Therefore, the appraiser appears to be empathizing with the women as she is a woman herself. This creates emotional and ethical appeals of persuasion in her argument. These two rhetorical questions provide not only the reasoning for her belief but also defence to her stance or belief which is, "there are some situations which require you to be fair not in terms of men versus women but for the women". Hence, she has used reifying rhetoric, in the form of rhetorical questions, to protect her account from the potential alternative accounts of those who do not support such a belief. Moreover, her reification is supported by the detail. Her use of the detail itself suggests that she has anticipated the potential alternative criticism (or counter-arguments) against her arguments.

In addition, the use of plural pronouns, "we" and "our" (when referring to the women) suggests "consensus and corroboration" (Potter, 1996: 158). Again, this can be seen as a defensive rhetorical strategy of the appraiser to protect her argument from the potential alternative undermining as one may assume that there are a number of people who would agree to the point of this appraiser. Therefore, it adds to her credibility. Additionally, her use of "our" (when referring to the women) indicates ownership, consideration, and care for the women and so increases the emotional appeal of her argument.

Extract 10

Appraisee* (Dyad 7, Bank B):** ***"I don't think it is fair. I am saying this because I am sure that I had performed better than one of my colleagues. But when I got my appraisal result, I was shocked to see that I have been transferred to one of our rural branches. I have been told to join that branch within a month. This is not what I was expecting after performing well for the entire year. I feel like as if I have regressed in my career. I have talked to my boss and she didn't give me a good reason. She said it will be difficult for my female colleague to work in that rural branch. Don't you think I am a victim of gender partiality?"

This is yet another detailed argument. It is a response of one of the five appraisees appraised by the previous appraiser (Extract 9). The appraisee was asked the same question, as his appraiser, regarding the fairness in the appraisal process.

He appears to be the victim of what he called, the "gender partiality". The appraisee justified his account with the use of his personal example. Hence, one feels a direct connection between the accounts of him and his appraiser in terms of the fact that they both used personal examples. Moreover, it seems as if his appraiser justified her actions of the recent appraisal in her argument because she knew that I would be interviewing her appraisees too, perhaps this appraisee in particular.

Furthermore, there appears a contradiction in the beliefs of both the appraisee and his appraiser. What is believed to be fair for his appraiser is what this appraisee seems to consider as unfair and so calls himself a victim. The appraisee has used his personal

example in the detail to create more effect in his account. Therefore, the account appears to have all the three persuasive appeals, logos, ethos, and pathos.

This account can be seen as a good example of the antagonistic relationship between the versions of the appraisee and appraiser. Here the appraisee is using the ironizing rhetoric to undermine the potential alternative accounts of those who call the appraisal process fair. Not only that, he appears to be particularly interested in undermining the potential alternative arguments of those who indicate any sort of favor to the "gender partiality" in the PA process.

The rhetorical question he has used at the end of his argument also stresses on the issue of the "gender partiality", "Don't you think I am a victim of gender partiality?" He seems to have used the rhetorical question for the purpose of ironizing and emphasising on his personal experience. In addition, it is due to sharing his own personal experience that his account seems to be protected from the potential alternative counter-arguments. Particularly the ones which are based on the idea that the appraisee has mentioned only one outcome aspect of the PA, transfer, and has avoided the other outcome aspects. The reason that he has experienced the situation himself creates the seriousness in his argument and fades the unfavorable effects of his sharing only one aspect and avoiding the other -what Potter (1996: 184) referred as "the extended sense of ontological gerrymandering".

Theme 4-The Issue of Feedback in PA Process

Extract 1

Appraiser (Dyad 2, Bank A): ***''The results of appraisal are distributed separately to every individual in sealed envelopes. I think it is a very good idea. Everyone's confidentiality is maintained in this way. This also reduces the chance of negative competition among appraisees and limits them from using their links to change the appraisal decisions later.''***

This argument emerged as a response of one of the two female appraisers (Dyad 2, Bank A), who were interviewed for this study, to a question regarding the feedback.

The appraiser seems to justify her statement, “I think it is a very good idea”, with another statement, “Everyone’s confidentiality is maintained in this way”. One can say that the appraiser has done this because she expected her ideas to be conflicting with the ideas of her appraisees. She is clearly using the defensive (or reifying) rhetoric in her argument as she is justifying her argument in an effort to prevent it from the potential alternative counter-arguments (or undermining). Those potential alternative counter-arguments could be against this way of providing feedback in the “sealed envelopes”, or they could be against this way of providing feedback in the “sealed envelopes as the only way used by the bank for providing the feedback.

Here, it is important to point out that the appraisee didn’t mention anything about whether it is the only way of providing the feedback or there are other ways used as well. However, in consideration of this bank being one of the leading banks in Pakistan; it may seem strange that this is the only way to give feedback. Therefore, this may suggest the “extended sense of ontological gerrymandering” (Potter, 196: 184). This is because one may question that has she comprised her argument on one aspect only and avoided the other? On these grounds, one may also wonder that what could be her interest. For example, one may think that perhaps by mentioning this aspect of the feedback she may have thought that she would be able to justify her argument in a better way, and so it would be more persuasive to the audience. Perhaps, this is the reason she continued justifying her statement, “I think it is a very good idea”, with more reasoning, “This also reduces the chance of negative competition among appraisees and limits them from using their links to change the appraisal decisions later”. Accordingly, one observes a strong logical appeal in her account.

However, is her account protected from being challenged by the potential alternative counter-arguments? Or, has she been able to manage her interest well? To answer these questions, one may say that her account may not be challenged easily based on her reasoning which seems to be supporting her defensive rhetoric. However, it may be challenged on the issue of providing only one aspect of the feedback. Or her interest in providing only aspect and avoiding the other.

Extract 2

Appraisee (Dyad 2, Bank A): ***"What confidentiality? Sealed envelopes are just the formality. We all share our feedback with everyone."***

This argument is a response of a female appraisee (Dyad 2, Bank A) to a probing question regarding the feedback.

The appraisee posed a rhetorical question at the very start of her argument and it is clear from her next statement that she is not looking for an answer to this question. The real purpose of this rhetorical question seems to emphasise on the point that there is no confidentiality involved when the appraisal results are distributed or feedback is provided. Therefore, the rhetorical question can be seen as appraisee's accusation on her appraiser for the false representation of reality. For example, her appraiser (Extract 1) had mentioned that "Everyone's confidentiality is maintained in this way".

Accordingly, the placement of this rhetorical question at the very start of the argument suggests that the appraisee doesn't believe that there is confidentiality in the feedback. Her subsequent statement, equally supports this belief of her's, "Sealed envelopes are just the formality".

Therefore, the appraisee seems to be ironizing or employing offensive rhetorical strategy with the help of the rhetorical question as she seems to be undermining what she has expected her appraiser would have said regarding the issue. This shows the antagonistic relationship between the versions of both the appraisee and her appraiser.

With the last statement of the argument, "We all share our feedback with everyone", this appraisee makes her argument more strong in terms of undermining her appraiser's account. At the same time, the last statement also depicts that she is reifying or defending her account from the potential alternative undermining. Therefore, she seems to be using both ironizing and reifying rhetoric in her argument. In terms of the persuasive appeals, this account seems to have reasoning and logic. Of course it requires an argument to have reasoning and logic to ironize or reify.

Accordingly, the argument leads us to think that what's the use of the "sealed envelopes" when everyone shares feedback with everyone. This creates an ironical situation where on one hand envelops are sealed and personalized, while on the other there is a common practice of sharing the feedback with everyone.

Extract 3

Appraiser (Dyad 4, Bank B): "It is very hard to run the feedback session with the appraisees when my appraisal scoring of them doesn't match with the results of performance appraisal. I personally feel that I should not be in charge of the feedback sessions if this is the situation."

This argument emerged as a response of an appraiser (Dyad 4, Bank B) to a question regarding the feedback.

In the consideration of the first statement of the argument, the appraiser seems to give the reasoning that why he finds it "very hard to run the feedback session with the appraisees"? However, the information seems to be incomplete and forceless as one thinks that why appraiser's scoring of appraisees doesn't match with the results of the performance appraisal? If we go back to the earlier argument of him (Extract 4), under the theme, "The Issue of the Quota System in Grading the Appraisees", "The quota system is to be blamed and not the appraisers for providing performance evaluation that are not what were expected by the appraisees", we would know the reason. However, one wonders that it would have been better for him to mention it again here for the matter of detail or vividness to increase the logical appeal of his account.

This argument can be seen as an example of an understatement. Understatement can be used to emphasise upon the extreme nature of events, or for ironic effects (McGuigan, 2010). Therefore, understatements may work in an argument where the descriptive or detailed statements do not work. For example, we normally expect more force attached to the descriptive statements while in reality their force is less than what we normally expect (McGuigan, 2010). When you use the understatement, you basically signal to the reader that the concept itself is so self-explanatory that you don't have to add superfluous words in order to add to its force (McGuigan, 2010). However, in this argument we see a wrong

use of the understatement. For this reason, one can easily observe that it has unfavorably affected the logical appeal in the argument.

Moreover, the statement, “I personally feel”, suggests that it is appraiser’s individual opinion with which others may not agree. However, it seems that he has used it to protect his stance, from being challenged, on the grounds that everyone has a right to opinion. Another way he has used to protect his argument from being challenged is through his reasoning. It has been pointed earlier that how his use of understatement has unfavorably affected the logical appeal of his argument; however, the argument does not lack the logical appeal completely.

This can be explained better with the focus on his interest or stake. For example, his interest seems to be in not being an “in charge of the feedback sessions” which is apparent from his statement, “I personally feel that I should not be in charge of the feedback sessions if this is the situation”. He seems to be managing this interest with the reasoning, “It is very hard to run the feedback session with the appraisees when my appraisal scoring of them doesn’t match with the results of performance appraisal”. Hence, there is reasoning and logic in his account but it is understated as discussed earlier. However, if the previous account of this appraiser (Extract 4), under the theme, “The Issue of the Quota System in Grading the Appraisees”, is taken into consideration then the logical appeal of his argument can be enhanced, and so his interest can be protected from the potential alternative undermining.

Therefore, my role as an analyst is very important here to remind the audience of what has been stated previously by this appraiser. If the audience is not reminded and has missed out this aspect then it may also affect the ethos of this appraiser’s argument in a sense that the audience may be sceptical of the appraiser that why his scoring “doesn’t match with the results of” appraisees’ performance appraisal (e.g., the audience may think that he may be changing the results of appraisees’ performance appraisal later on because of being influenced by the appraisees’ links or connections).

Extract 4

Appraisee (Dyad 4, Bank B): ***"The only feedback which I receive on my performance is my grade in a piece of paper and nothing else. Others may be receiving the feedback in a different way. You can ask them."***

This argument is a response of a female appraisee (Dyad 4, Bank B), to a similar question as her appraiser (Extract 3), regarding the feedback. Her argument seems to contradict the argument of her appraiser as she presented a complete different picture of the feedback than him.

The statement of appraisee seems to employ the offensive rhetorical strategy or ironizing in a sense that it contradicts with the argument of her appraiser. For example, her appraiser gave the picture of running the feedback sessions which he seemed not happy with but here she is saying that she receives her feedback "in a piece of paper". Accordingly, one wonders that what sort of feedback her appraiser was talking about then? This makes her appraiser's account sceptical. One may feel that this appraisee may have expected her ideas to be conflicting with what she would have anticipated as the ideas of her appraiser so in an effort to undermine those ideas of her appraiser, she showed this different picture of the feedback in her argument.

At the same time she has used reification or defensive rhetoric to protect her account from potential alternative undermining as well. For example, her statement, "Others may be receiving the feedback in a different way", suggests it. Hence, she seems not to be rejecting the idea that there may be other feedback methods too.

However, one may feel the sense of gender based inequality from her argument. In this regard, one may consider the low female ratio to male, working in the bank, as a reason for this inequality. For example, that's why females may possibly be ignored in the bank in relation to the feedback matters. Or, maybe there are different procedures of feedback followed for males and females in the bank. For example, she said that "others may be receiving the feedback in a different way". Whatever the case may be, there is a controversy in her account which is leading us to see the antagonistic relationship between the versions (of her and her appraiser).

Theme 5-The Issue of Appeal in PA Process

The following four arguments (Extract 1-4) were presented by the four different appraisers from dyads 1, 3, 4, and 6 in their responses to a question regarding the appeal process in PA. Later, there are two more arguments (Extract 5 and 6), under this theme, "The Issue of Appeal in PA Process", which belong to the appraisees appraised by the appraiser from Extract 4.

Extract 1

Appraiser (Dyad1, Bank A): ***"I don't think appraisees should be allowed to appeal. Everyone is a good performer in their own eyes. Allowing will result into everyone appealing."***

It can be easily noticed that the appraiser's stance in this argument is that appraisees should not be allowed to appeal. However, his use of statement, such as "I dont think", gives an impression that different positions can be expected regarding the matter. Especially, appraisees can be expected to have a different standpoint if one considers that the appraiser is right in saying, "everyone is a good performer in their own eyes". If this is the case then one can expect appraisees to be a competing party to appraisers. Hence, there is a sense of antagonism in the argument. Accordingly, one views appraiser to be employing a defensive rhetorical strategy in order to protect his stance against the potential alternative criticism, from the side of appraisees, in the succeeding sentences of his argument.

In addition, this argument of the appraiser is creating an imagery of an appeal procedure which is merely limited to the papers but not implemented on the practical grounds. However, the last sentence of this argument, "allowing will result into everyone appealing", gives the impression that perhaps some are given special privileges regarding the matter of appeal.

Extract 2

Appraiser (Dyad 3, Bank A): ''Appraisees misuse appeal process by using their influential connections to intervene in their appraisal decision. I don't want to give them such a chance by allowing them to appeal.''

Here, the appraiser does not seem to be in the favor of the appeal procedure. He is using offensive or ironizing rhetoric to undermine the potential alternative criticism which he expects to experience on his account for depriving appraisees from the right to appeal. The first statement of his argument, "Appraisees misuse appeal process by using their influential connections to intervene in their appraisal decision", indicates ironizing. Now the question is whom the appraiser is expecting to generate the potential alternative criticism? As this argument indicates that appraisees are deprived of the right to appeal, one can easily assume them to be on the other side of the pole. Therefore, one observes strong antagonistic characteristics in the argument of this appraiser.

Additionally, the appraiser has provided the cause first ("Appraisees misuse appeal process by using their influential connections to intervene in their appraisal decision"), and then the effect of it on his actions ("I don't want to give them such a chance by allowing them to appeal"), in his argument. By doing so, he seems to have used the defensive rhetorical strategy in his argument (or reified his argument) as well. Surely, it has generated a positive impact upon the logical appeal of his argument.

Further, rhetoric works both ways, offensively to "ironize", and defensively to "reify" positions (Byford, 2009). Reifying meaning is to change something abstract into material thing (Potter, 1996). Reifying accounts produce something as an object, be it an event, a thought or a set of circumstances (Potter, 1996). It is a strategy to put something beyond question in order to build its facticity (Byford, 2009). It is one of the ways by which ontological gerrymandering is achieved; for example, "one aspect of making any description is that it will pick out a particular range of phenomena as relevant and ignore other potential ones" (Potter, 1996: 184). "This is the extended sense of ontological gerrymandering; one realm of entities is constituted in the description while another is avoided" (Potter, 1996: 184).

On these grounds, one witnesses "the extended sense of ontological gerrymandering" in the appraiser's argument as he appears to pick one fact, ''Appraisees misuse appeal process by using their influential connections to intervene in their appraisal decision", and seems to ignore the other potential ones, particularly those facts which could have been in the favor of the appraisees regarding the matter (Potter, 1996: 184).

Extract 3

Appraiser (Dyad 4, Bank B): "I will not mind appeal against me if it is based on genuine grounds but I believe that a genuine appeal is a rare case. I will do anything if you can find anyone here with a genuine reason to appeal"

In this argument the appraiser has firstly tried to build his credibility by stating, "I will not mind appeal against me if it is based on genuine grounds". After that, with the self-entitlement, "I believe", he seems to be defensive to protect his account from the potential alternative counter-arguments and one immediately sees him as an opposition to the appraisees as he advances, "a genuine appeal is a rare case". Further, with the use of the statement, "I will do anything", he seems to be much more confident about what he is saying as compared to his previous sentence in the argument where he used the words, "I believe". This can be seen as a case where the speaker can be seen as gradually increasing his ethos as he proceeds with his argument.

Extract 4

Appraiser (Dyad 6, Bank B): *"There is an appeal procedure in our bank but still you will find many appraisees saying that they are not aware about it. It's hard to believe that people can be ignorant about the things which are for their own benefits. Isn't it?"*

In this argument, the statement, "there is an appeal procedure in our bank but still you will find many appraisees saying that they are not aware about it", gives the idea of conflicting versions from both the parties, appraisees and appraisers, regarding the presence of appeal procedure in their bank. Thus, suggesting the antagonistic nature of their relationship and versions.

The appraiser has employed offensive rhetoric to undermine the notion that appraisees are

not aware about the presence of an appeal procedure in the bank by stating, "It's hard to believe that people can be ignorant about the things which are for their own benefits". Here, clearly the appraiser is at denial. According to Byford (2009), the denial not only involves defensive rhetoric, but also offensive rhetoric. The statement then immediately follows a rhetorical question. However, as the answer of the question is quite obvious, it can be said that the appraiser does not require or expect an answer to it. This means that he has positioned the question in order to put the accent on his account.

Extract 5

Appraisee (Dyad 6, Bank B): "There must be an appeal procedure but only in the documents. It's a pity that the things which are for our benefits are only limited to documents with no practical implementation."

This argument is a response from one of the appraisees, appraised by the appraiser from Extract 4, under this theme, "The Issue of Appeal in PA Process". He was asked the similar question, regarding the appeal process, which was posed to the above four appraisers.

The appraisee seems to be using offensive rhetorical strategy in his argument. For example, he seems to be undermining the potential alternaive counter-arguments, which he expects from the side of his appraiser, with the statement, "It's a pity that the things which are for our benefits are only limited to documents with no practical implementation". This suggests the existence of antagonistic relationship between the version of appraisees and appraisers. In addition, with the use of words, "It's a pity", the appraisee has succeeded in generation the emotional appeal for his argument, and so made his argument persuasive on the emotional grounds.

Extract 6

Appraisee (Dyad 6, Bank B): "Appeal procedure? I have no idea. The management must know."

Another appraisee (Dyad 6, Bank B) responded differently, than his fellow appraisee colleague, to the similar question regarding the appeal process in PA.

Unlike his fellow appraisee (Extract 5), this appraisee seems to be unaware of the appeal process, and so proves his appraiser's (Extract 4) point wrong that "It's hard to believe that people can be ignorant about the things which are for their own benefits".

Here, the statement of appraisee, "the management must know", suggests his use of category entitlement. For instance, as particular sort of things are entitled to be known by particular category of people so management seems to be that particular category of people for this appraisee here. However, by doing so, his own category entitlement as an appraisee becomes vulnerable and can be challenged. This is because one expects the appraisee to have the knowledge about the matters related to PA as being one of the important parties to it.

Theme 6-The Issue of what Appraisees and Appraisers Feel about Each Other Relating to the PA Process

The following six arguments (Extract 1-6) were presented by six different appraisers from dyads 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 in their response to a number of probing questions which were asked to them when they were answering about their relationship with each other. Later, there is one more arguments from an appraisee (Dyad 6, Bank B), under this theme, who is appraised by the appraiser from dyad 6.

Extract 1

Appraiser: (Dyad 1, Bank A): ***"If they can perform the work as they please then I can also appraise them as I please."***

In this argument, the appraiser is trying to justify his likely actions by blaming the appraisees. Therefore, one witnesses his direct rivalry with the appraisees. This suggests the antagonistic relationship between the two parties and their arguments. The appraiser seems to guard his account from any potential alternative criticism by the side of other party with the use of the strategy of blaming them. By doing so, he seems to make his opponent party's potential alternative criticism look weaker in the light of his criticism for the opponent party as he says, "if they can perform the work as they please then I can also appraise them as I please". Moreover, the first half of his statement seems to be his

justification to appraise the appraisees as he pleases. Therefore, the whole statement not only appears to be protecting his account from the potential alternative undermining of the appraisees, but also it appears to be undermining the appraisees' potential alternative criticism to safeguard his account. One can refer to such discourse as reifying (which is protecting one's own account from the potential alternative undermining versions) and ironizing (which is undermining the potential alternative versions to protect one's own account) (Potter, 1996).

The standard meaning of irony is to use words in the opposite way to their literal meaning (Potter, 1996). Potter (1996) treated ironizing discourse as talk or writing which undermines the literal descriptiveness of versions. It stands as opposite to reify which is motivated, distorted or erroneous in some way as it turns the material things back into talk (Potter, 1996). Moreover, one may observe that the appraiser has made good use of the antimetabole as it is used in the argument to invert the order of repeated words (Kallendorf & Kallendorf, 1985) for the purpose of both reifying and ironizing.

In addition, Billig et al., (1988) explored the relationship between words and actions and claimed that words are actions. Therefore, when the appraiser says, "I can also appraise them as I please", one gets the idea that he is not just saying it but he actually practices what he is saying. This idea of taking words as action is not unique. It has also been reflected in the works of Marshall (1994), van Dijk (1997) and Drew & Sorjonen (1997).

Extract 2

Appraiser: (Dyad 2, Bank A): ***"Conducting performance appraisal is our responsibility but not the outcomes of it. If appraisees do not get their desired outcomes, for example, the financial rewards, then it is not our headache.*** **Our task is to appraise their performance only."**

There is a suggestion of the antagonistic relationship between the appraisees and appraisers and their aguments in this account. The statement, "it is not our headache", makes it apparent as one deduces that there must be criticism from the side of appraisees who consider appraisers as responsible for not presenting them with their desired outcomes. Therefore, here the appraiser seems to be using defensive rhetoric. The appraiser justified his statement, "if appraisees do not get their desired outcomes", with another statement,

"conducting performance appraisal is our responsibility but not the outcomes of it". Accordingly, the first sentence of the appraiser's argument seems to be his position for any possible alternative counter positions.

The interesting part about this argument is that the appraiser seems to justify the issue even before presenting it. In a normal order, the issue comes first and then the justification. However, in this case the issue is in the second sentence while its justification is already there in the first sentence of the argument. One may see the use of this tactic by the appraiser as to build the pathos and ethos in his argument. In addition, the repeated use of word, such as "our", gives the argument a sensation that as if it is representing all the appraisers. So, one sees the ethos building up here too. There is also an evidence of example in the argument. However, the use of example does not seem to prove anything. It provides what is one of the possibilities (Hamilton, 2003). This leads one to have a broader vision, and so one may think about multiple other possibilities too.

Extract 3

Appraiser: (Dyad 3, Bank A): ***"A number of appraisers out here are simply management kay chamchay. The higher the appraisers are in their ranks, the higher the possibility is of them becoming one. Unfortunately I am not honoured with this title. Oh well, who wants to be?"***

''Management kay chamchay'' is a slang term. Its word to word meaning in English is management's spoons. It is generally perceived as a negative term and used for those staff members in organisations who follow the management blindly for their personal gains. So those who are labeled with it never approve of themselves as being the one.

Therefore, one immediately identifies the presence of metaphor in the opening sentence of the appraiser's argument when he referred "a number of appraisers" as ''management kay chamchay''. In addition, knowing the background of the term, ''management kay chamchay'', one can easily understand the irony of the appraiser when he said that unfortunately he is not honoured with this title. We know that the appraiser actually means to say that fortunately he is not honoured with this title. The appraiser uses the rhetorical question at the end of his argument so that his irony becomes apparent. The rhetorical question also draws our attention towards appraiser's sarcasm. Accordingly, both irony and

rhetorical question indicate ethos in the appraiser's argument. In addition, the words, "who wants to be" seem to suggest two layers of irony as it denotes both the criticism on others who are "management kay chamchay" and the regret of those who are not (including him) for not being the one.

Moreover, we observe the mark of anaphora in the second sentence of appraiser's talk. Anaphora is one of the figures of speech which is defined as ''repetition of the same word at the beginning of successive clauses'' (Kallendorf & Kallendorf, 1985). The use of anaphora in the second sentence of the appraiser's argument suggests style, rhythm and emphasis. It seems very noticeable; therefore, leads one to think that perhaps the appraiser has deliberately cultivated it in his argument in order to support the logos in it. In addition, appraiser's use of this offensive slang, "Management kay chamchay", in his argument, indicates that there is a presence of antagonism among appraisers and their arguments too.

Extract 4

Appraiser: (Dyad 4, Bank B): ***''I know many of my fellow appraisers will not agree with me but I think it is the requirement of time that we open ourselves to the best practices of the world by adapting them to our conditions. Our performance appraisal is one such example of doing so and I think it is working very well.''***

Potter (1996) argued that rhetoric is a feature of the antagonistic relationship between versions: how a description counters an alternative description, and how it is organised, in turn, to resist being countered. In this argument, the antagonistic relationship of the appraiser with his fellow appraisers is quite apparent as his statement, "I know many of my fellow appraisers will not agree with me" indicates that his fellow appraisers have competing opinions. However, we are not aware about those competing opinions but this appraiser does, and so his argument seems to be based on both the actual and potential alternative arguments of the appraisers.

Moreover, with the use of the statement, such as "I think", twice in his argument, the appraiser seems to be using a defensive strategy. One can easily observe that he has done it to protect his argument from the challenge of his fellow appraisers whom he thinks have different opinions than him about the matter. Further, the initiation of the issue by the appraiser that his fellow appraisers will not agree with him, followed by the statement

which indicates uncertainty, such as “I think”, seems to have weakened the ethos of his argument.

As previously observed, the importance of ethos cannot be ignored for the generation of logos. Ethos asks the audience to confer some measure of authority to the speaker on the basis of one’s perceived competence, virtue, and goodwill- phronesis, arete, and eunoia (in the classical Greek terminology) (McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Noel, 1999). Accordingly, Bonet & Sauquet (2010) pointed out that Aristotle insisted on the importance of ethos first and then introduced the idea of logos. However, in the case of this argument, weak ethos is also affecting the logos unconstructively.

There is also a suggestion of contradiction in the appraiser’s own argument when he says, “I think it is working very well”. One certainly thinks that how can a performance appraisal, based on the adaptation of the best practices of the world, work well when many of the appraisers, one of the most important parties of the performance appraisal system, do not endorse such an idea? For example, he said “many of my fellow appraisers will not agree with me”. Therefore, this further adversely affects the ethos of the appraiser’s argument.

Extract 5

Appraiser: (Dyad 5, Bank B): ***“Oh they are really arrogant horses when it comes to the acceptance of performance appraisal results.”***

Although there are literally hundreds of figures of rhetoric, ranging from anadiplosis to zeugma, some are so rare that you are unlikely to run into them, while others, such as hyperbole and metaphor, are so common that it is rare to see a newspaper article or hear a speech in which they are not frequently used (McGuigan, 2010).

In this small piece of argument, metaphor is quite evident. The significance of metaphor as rhetorical devices is well known within rhetorical research (Gross, 1990). A metaphor connects one subject to another that may not be obviously related and by doing so it makes the argument ‘‘stylistically pleasing and concise” (McGuigan, 2010). In this case, the appraiser connects the appraisees to the arrogant horses. Therefore, the metaphor has

conveyed the impression of appraiser regarding appraisees in a stylistically attractive manner with the use of a few words.

Extract 6

Appraiser: (Dyad 6, Bank B): ***"We only want the good performers to be promoted. Do you think it is wrong? I think three years give us adequate time to ensure it. If people think that three years are a lot of time then they are not rational.''***

In this argument, the appraiser makes use of the rhetorical question. According to Kallendrof & Kallendrof (1985) rhetorical question implies strong affirmation or denial. It is the device which is perhaps most commonly associated with the concept of rhetoric (Watson, 1995a). In the view of the rhetorical question posed by the appraiser, it is clear that the question intends no answer as the answer seems to be very obvious.

Additionally, the appraiser seems to reflect his strong affirmation to the point he has made just before the question, "we only want the good performers to be promoted". This seems to prompt logos in the appraiser's argument. Further, one can say that asking such questions keep the audience involved in the listening as they boost the interest and emotions of the audiance. This increases the pathos of the argument. Therefore, in this argument, one observes a case where one of the figures of speech, rhetorical question, positively affects the pathos. For example, Quintilian, (1976), as cited in Kallendorf & Kallendorf (1985), stated that there is no more effective method of exciting the emotions than an apt use of figures of speech.

Moreover, with the use of words, such as 'we' and 'us', it seems as if the appraiser is talking as a representative of a group which thinks in the same way as him. Thus, it triggers ethos in his argument. On the other hand, the use of words, "I think", makes the appraiser look as if he lacks surety. However, this doesn't seem to affect the ethos of the argument much due to the already created ethos, pathos and logos by the appraiser.

There is also an evidence of antagonistic feature in this argument which can be easily observed in the statement; "if people think that three years are a lot of time then they are not being rational." The statement makes one think that the appraisers and appraisees have contradictory views about the matter. In addition, defensive rhetorical strategy is evident in

the appraiser's argument to justify his stance, "I think three years give us adequate time to ensure it", against any probable opposing stance.

Extract 7

Appraisee: (Dyad 6, Bank B): ***''Oh! The process is perfect! Our Appraisers conduct it perfectly. They are experts. Experts without any training, I would say.''***

This argument is a response of one of the appraisees, regarding a probing question, while he was answering about the relationship of appraisees and appraisers with each other. This appraisee was appraised by the appraiser from Extract 6, under this theme, "The Issue of what Appraisees and Appraisers Feel about Each Other Relating to the PA Process".

The argument of the appraisee seems to contradict with the different bits of the arguments of all the six appraisers in one way or the other. This is because there is a suggestion of irony in it. For instance, when the appraisee stated that the appraisers are "experts without any training" after giving all the praise statements about them earlier, it seemed to be quite ironic. It is hard to believe that somebody can be an expert without training. Therefore, all the praise statements seem to be contributing towards building the irony.

In addition, looking at this argument without considering the last statement, it gives the idea of "vague formulations" as it seems to be nothing but the personal opinion of the appraisee without the support of the facts (Potter, 1996: 168). However, the last sentence of the argument revealed the irony in it. Thus, the presence of this irony leads one to question the different claims of the six appraisers under this theme. In addition, the statements, "They are experts. Experts without any training, I would say'', may also be seen as ironizing or offensive rhetoric to undermine the potential alternative versions of the appraisers. Thus, indicating the antagonistic relationship between the versions of appraisees and appraisers. Accordingly, it appears that the irony in the argument of this appraisee has supported the purpose of ironizing as well.

Theme 7-The Issue of Appraisees and Appraisers future plans in the Presence of Current PA Process

Extract 1

Appraiser (Dyad 7, Bank B): ***''Where will I go? I love this bank. Of course I will be staying in this bank. [She laughs]. I am just 6 months away from my retirement. [She laughs again]. Well, to be honest, there is no one better than my ex-employer but when you gain some things you lose the others. [Lamenting tone]. This is the nature. What can we do?"***

This extract is from one of the two female appraisers (Dyad 7, Bank B) who are considered for this analysis. She came up with these statements while responding to a question that whether or not she sees herself working for this bank in the future?

One immediately observes a strong sense of sarcasm in her argument. For example, the start of her argument suggests two possible points. First, it suggests that "of course" she "will be staying in the bank" because being so close to her retirement she doesn't seem to have any other option (in terms of any other equivalent or better opportunity to work elsewhere). Second, it suggests that she is herself not interested in any other opportunity as it is just a matter of 6 more months for her to bear with this bank. However, the first point seems to be quite valid than the second. This is because her argument started with a rhetorical question which points towards her doubts of getting any other equivalent or better opportunity elsewhere. While looking at the question, it is clear that the appraiser is not expecting an answer here. The rhetorical question is just posed by her to stress upon her sarcasm.

After digging into the interview transcripts' records of this appraiser, it was evident that this appraiser has a service of only two year in this bank. Before, she was working for another bank which she kept on praising from time and again during the whole course of the interview. For example, she has used this statement, "there is no one better than my ex-employer", a number of times earlier in the interview as well. The reason which made her to join this bank two years back was the promotion opportunity offered to her by this bank. It is very common among the employees in the banking sector in Pakistan to switch banks

for better opportunities. The whole situation of her leads one to question that how can she love this bank when she has been repeatedly praising her former bank despite of working in a better position in this bank? This suggests irony.

Moreover, starting the statement with a rhetorical question and then laughing twice during the course of proceeding with the statements shows that the appraiser is using sarcasm to cover up her contempt or hate over the situation that she finds herself in. This is also indicated by her statement, "When you gain some things you lose the others", which she stated in a lamenting tone. Therefore, when the appraiser said that she loves the bank, she appears to be ironic in her statement. And the continuous presence of sarcasm in her statements supports her irony, especially when she discloses that her retirement is just six months away. Also, her lamenting tone while stating, "When you gain some things you lose the others", suggests the irony in her statement, "I love this bank", because she seems to regret upon the decision, to be the part of this bank, which she took two years back. Further, one may find the irony in appraiser's reason to stay in the bank in future. Being only six months away from her retirement means that the appraiser will no longer be able to work in the bank in the long run. So the statement, "Of course I will be staying in this bank", seems ironic as well.

The appraiser ends her argument with a rhetorical question again, "What can we do?" When one considers the statement prior to this rhetorical question, "This is the nature", it becomes clear that it is not a sort of question where the appraiser is expecting the answer. The appraiser just insinuated her lack of control over the nature by this question and by doing so, she is able to put the emphasis on her sarcasm and irony.

The difference between sarcasm and irony may sometimes be understated (Butler, 2015). This is the reason some scholars view sarcasm as merely a sub-category of irony because the interpretation of sarcastic utterances commonly involves reversal of meaning or valuation typical of irony (Butler, 2015). Similarly, according to Kaufer (1983), the widespread confusion of irony with sarcasm is the result of the frequency with which sarcasm is encoded ironically. Therefore, Kaufer (1983) debated against this tendency to subsume sarcasm under irony (Butler, 2015).

According to Kaufer (1983), the principal function associated with irony is creating a sarcastic effect which is not a true species of irony. Kaufer (1983) further maintained that

Sarcasm designates a general tone of utterance while irony indicates the opposite of what is stated. When these two are wed together, irony enhances a sarcastic effect by increasing its bite but sarcasm is no more dependent on irony than irony on it (Kaufer, 1983). In addition to enhancing a sarcastic tone, irony usually functions rhetorically by allowing a speaker to achieve emphasis through negation (Kaufer, 1983). Particularly, it permits a speaker to emphasise on a particular proposition by pretending to contradict it (Kaufer, 1983).

In the statements of the appraiser, one can easily experience the rhetorical function of irony as the appraiser achieves the emphasis on her position in the argument through applying negation twice in her statements. The use of sarcasm by the appraiser has also supported her in emphasising the negation throughout her argument. Therefore, these statements of the appraiser form a case where irony has been used rhetorically by the appraiser through negation which is aided by sarcasm.

The sarcasm and irony in the argument of the appraiser suggest that it is not the PA process which this appraiser considers as important in his decision to stay with this bank in the future, but it is actually the situation, in which the appraiser is trapped in, which is the deciding factor for her in this regard. It seems that this appraiser completely ignored the PA process in her argument as if it doesn't matter for her at this stage of her career when she is so close to her retirement. This raises the question that does it matter to others in the bank?

Extract 2

Appraisee (Dyad 7, Bank B): ***"I don't know if I can stay here for another minute and you are talking about my future plans. You know we will be receiving our appraisals' feedbacks soon but even that is not tempting enough to make me stay. "***

When a similar question was posed to the appraisee (Dyad 7, Bank B) as his appraiser (Extract 1), a different response was generated as compared to his appraiser. We can see a prominent contrast in the situation of this appraisee and his appraiser. Unlike his appraiser, this appraisee is at a very early stage of his career with more than 3 decades in hand to his retirement. He has been working in this bank for around 3 years. This means that from the view of the length of employment in this bank, he is a year senior than his appraiser.

We can immediately sense the presence of irony in the response of this appraisee as the appraisee stayed there and answered the rest of my questions for another hour. Moreover, we see two different cases under this theme, **"**The issue of appraisees and appraisers future plans in the presence of current PA process". One has a reason to stay, while the other does not. Perhaps the interview provided the appraisee the reason to stay longer (e.g., in consideration of the high employee turnover rate in the banking sector in Pakistan) as the retirement provided his appraiser the reason to stay for another 6 months.

Chapter 7− Conclusion and Discussion

In this study, the rhetorical analysis of the interviews' talk of appraisees and appraisers has been performed, regarding the different aspects of performance appraisal (PA) process practiced in their banks, which is drawn on an inspiration from both the classical and contemporary rhetorical traditions. The main objective of the study has been to understand that how appraisees and appraisers construct the reality of a potentially controversial practice, PA, with the use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. It is achieved by focusing on three interconnected yet important matters:

- First, by focusing on answering the three main research questions (which basically directed us to the two important canons of classical rhetoric, 'invento'- where the technical arguments employed by the appraisees and appraisers are considered, and 'elocutio'- where the stylistic aspects of the arguments employed by the appraisees and appraisers are considered) as they provide the point of intersection between the classical and contemporary rhetorical traditions in the study.

- Second, by focusing on the work of Aristotle (1991), Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996), which assisted in establishing the rhetorical (or the analytical) framework for the current study. For example, firstly, in terms of Aristotle's (1991) canon of classical rhetoric, 'inventio' (or the argument itself), which leads to persuasion though the application of the three available means of persuasion, logos, ethos and pathos, by the speakers. Therefore, they are sought in the talk of appraisees and appraisers, as the persuasive dimensions (or devices) of rhetoric, in relation to how they are used by them in order to make their arguments persuasive. Similarly, 'elocutio' (or the stylistic aspects) are focused within the talk of appraises and appraisers, particularly the dominant figures of speech (or tropes) are hunted in order to understand that how they added to the persuasive of their arguments. Secondly, in terms of the work of Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996), which makes us appreciate that both the rhetoric and arguments are spread across in all parts of our social lives and social interactions. In this regard, the particular focus has been given to the notions of 'argumentative context' and 'justification process', which helped in determining the antagonistic relationship between the different versions of the arguments of the appraisees and appraisers. For example, this has been achieved by

searching the argumentative dimensions (or devices) in the talk of appraisees and appraisers, such as arguments and counter-arguments / offensive and defensive rhetoric / ironizing and reifying, ethnomethodological understanding of reflexivity, managing the dilemma of stake (stake invocation, stake inoculation, stake confession, category entitlement, out-there-ness (empiricist discourse, consensus and corroboration and vivid detail) and ontological gerrymandering. In doing so, clearly, the focus remained on 'inventio'.

- Third, by focusing on the discursive social psychology's (DSP's) perspective of rhetoric, which is advocated by both Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996), with the emphasis on constructionism as the main theme of the discipline of DSP. Therefore, rhetoric is regarded as constructionist (both constructed and constructive). In other words, not only arguments are constructed, with the use of different words, languages, rhetorical devices and so forth, for attaining persuasion but also they are the constructive process of persuasion itself (e.g., arguments construct different versions of reality resulting into attaining persuasion). The very idea of arguments being constructive indicates that the reality of one appraisee or appraiser may not be the reality of another appraisee or appraiser, and so one may expect the antagonistic relationship between their different versions of reality. For example, prosecutor and defence lawyers may have same evidence but their arguments may construct different versions of reality (Potter, 1996). Accordingly, the idea of the constructionist nature of rhetoric leads us to search for the rhetorical devices which are used in the arguments. Similarly, the focus of the current research has been on how the appraisees and appraisers construct the reality of their PA persuasively with the use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions (or devices) of rhetoric in their talk (where the constructionist nature of rhetoric is validated through the evidence of the presence of those dimensions in their talk). Thus, the focus of the study has mainly been 'how', rather than 'what', the appraisees and appraisers constructed the reality of their PA with the use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. Similarly, in the light of the constructionist view of rhetoric, the study demonstrates that how the reality of their PA is constructed by the appraisees and appraisers with the use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions (or devices) of rhetoric in their arguments, which, in turn, also implies that the reality of their PA is constructed by the appraisees and appraisers because they used the argumentative and persuasive dimensions (or devices) of rhetoric in their arguments.

Hence, it didn't matter whether their talk was constructed in the naturally occurring environment of the feedback interviews of their PA, or it was constructed in a setting of semi-structured interviews regarding their PA, as long as the main concern of the study is 'how', one anticipates them to be constructing their arguments in the similar fashion in both of the situations. This is because arguments are based on our cognitive and thinking process which determines our opinions, behaviours, and actions. Therefore, arguing involves thinking and thinking is what determines the reality. These are the notions which provide the base to the idea of 'argumentative context'. Accordingly, in following the notions of the 'argumentative context' and the 'justification process', which determined the antagonistic relationship between the different versions of the arguments of the appraisees and appraisers (e.g., their arguments were analysed with the consideration of the notions that they may either be countering the potential alternative arguments, or defending themselves from the potential alternative criticism), the appraisees and appraisers are considered the audience of each other's rhetoric in the study.

Moreover, the dyadic relationship between the appraisees and their respective appraisers is maintained throughout the data collection process, and the findings and analysis, in the current study, which proved them to be the audience of each other's rhetoric. For example, their arguments were analysed in terms of each other's arguments which demonstrated the antagonistic relationship between their versions. Similarly, not only there was a sense of the antagonistic relationship between the accounts of the appraisers from the different dyads but also there was a sense of the antagonistic relationship between the appraisees' accounts from the same and different dyads.

Now I will specifically focus on how the three research questions are answered. But before that I will revisit them again. They are:

1. *What are the antagonistic characteristics of the arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the performance appraisal (PA) practiced in their banks?*

2. *How do appraisees and appraisers employ persuasive appeals to construct the arguments in their talk regarding the PA practiced in their banks?*

3. *What are the dominant stylistic aspects (figure of speech, particularly tropes) of the arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks?*

In order to find the antagonistic characteristics of the arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding the PA practiced in their banks, I have examined that how they have constructed the reality of their PA with the use of the argumentative dimensions (or devices) of rhetoric in their talk. Accordingly, the rhetorical framework based on the work of Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) and Potter (1996) has assisted in terms of deciding the codes for the analysis. While the findings and analysis demonstrate the presence of all those codes in the talk of the appraisees and appraisers, such as arguments and counter-arguments / offensive and defensive rhetoric / ironizing and reifying, ethnomethodological understanding of reflexivity, managing the dilemma of stake (stake invocation, stake inoculation, stake confession, category entitlement, out-there-ness (empiricist discourse, consensus and corroboration and vivid detail) and ontological gerrymandering. Therefore, the presence of these rhetorical devices in the talk of appraisees and appraisers not only reveals that how the arguments are constructed by them regarding their PA in a persuasive manner but also facilitates in identifying the antagonistic characteristics of the arguments in their talk. For example, the evidence of appraisees and appraisers' use of arguments and counter-arguments / offensive and defensive rhetoric / ironizing and reifying discourses, which is also supported by their use of other argumentative and persuasive dimensions (or devises) of rhetoric, itself implies the presence of antagonistic characteristics in their talk. Hence, the first research question is answered this way.

Pertaining to how the persuasive appeals (such as logos, ethos and pathos) are used by the appraisees and appraisers in order to construct their arguments (or the reality of their PA), they are clearly used by them both independently and in relation to the argumentative and stylistic devices. Moreover, the presence or lack of presence of these appeals in the talk of appraisees and appraisers indicates the positive or negative effect on the persuasiveness of their arguments. Similarly, an effective use of one appeal by the appraisees and appraisers indicates a positive impact on the other appeals and the persuasiveness of their arguments, while their ineffective use of one appeal indicates a negative impact on the other appeals and the persuasiveness of their arguments. Hence, the second research question is answered this way.

As for the stylistic aspects, I hunted the dominant figures of speech (particularly tropes). Therefore, I kept on identifying the dominant tropes as much as I could in the arguments of the appraisees and appraisers. They mainly are, hyperbole, idiom, repetition, irony, sarcasm, rhetorical question, anaphora, understatement, antimetabole, slang, and metaphor. Most of these figures were repeated various times by different appraisees and appraisers in their arguments. Certainly, these were not the only figures of speech which were present in their talk. Many more could potentially be hunted. However, my focus has been in identifying those tropes which created an impact on the argumentative and persuasive dimensions (or devices) of their talk. Hence, the third research question is answered this way.

Now I will discuss a number of important details about the overall study. The first important detail for the discussion is that even though the semi-structured interviews were conducted with the appraisees and appraisers within the natural setting of the two banks during the time when their actual PA process was going on in those banks, they generated retrospective data. This is because the appraisees and appraisers talked about their PA process in the light of their recent and past experiences derived from the naturally occurring setting of it. However, even if the findings of this research are based on the post-rationalization of the appraisees and appraisers, they are still important findings. This is because they have implications: they support our understanding of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding a potentially controversial practice, PA.

The second detail for the discussion is regarding the fact that throughout the study, PA has been referred as a potentially controversial practice. One reason for this is the involvement of many different parties in the PA process with potentially different interests. The critical literature review on PA also suggests it to be a potentially controversial practice. However, the primary concern of the current research is not to prove that PA is a controversial or a potentially controversial practice. The emphasis on its being a potentially controversial practice is given in order to accentuate the significance of the study in view of the link between PA and the study of rhetoric as it has been previously discussed (in the critical literature reviews on both Rhetoric and PA) that controversy attracts the study of rhetoric. As such, the point of the matter is that if the issues of controversy attract the study of rhetoric then when we say that something is potentially controversial, it should also be equally worthy of the rhetorical attention or study. Therefore, the potential for controversy

in PA attracts the importance of investigating it in terms of how the two important parties to the PA process construct their PA as real or factual with the use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. Of course their constructed reality of their PA is expected to be different from each other in the light of their arguments being a constructive process of persuasion (where arguments are used to construct different versions of reality resulting into attaining persuasion).

Another reason for the emphasis on the matter of the potential for controversy associated with PA is that it would have been very confounding to work with the rhetorical framework whose substantial part focuses on the argumentative dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers in order to answer the first research question. For example, the first research question required the evidence for the presence of the antagonistic characteristics of the arguments in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding their PA, while the rhetorical framework of the study helped in finding the presence of the antagonistic characteristics of the arguments in their talk.

This leads us to the third detail for the discussion, that is, whether the appraisees and appraisers, the two important parties to PA, also recognised PA as a potentially controversial practice. One may say that they did, otherwise they would not have countered each other's potential alternative arguments during the course of their one-to-one interviews when the other party was not even present. If this is the case then one may argue that their arguments or rhetoric may have been intentional. This leads to another question: would the arguments of the appraisees and appraisers be different if they had not recognised PA as a potentially controversial practice? For example, having recognised the potential for controversy in PA, the interviewees may have expected their accounts to be accepted by the other interviewees with cynicism. This is because the interviewees were aware that I have been interviewing both the appraisees and appraisers. Accordingly, this may have been the reason that they constructed their accounts not only to resist the possible undermining from the accounts of other appraisees and appraisers but also to undermine the potential alternative accounts of other appraisees and appraisers.

This points to Billig's (1987; 1991; 1996) ideals of rhetoric. For example, I have previously mentioned in chapter 4 (rhetorical framework) what Billig (1987; 1991; 1996) argued, that is, when people say what their attitude is (or when they are giving description), they are positioning themselves on an issue where they know that there is debate and

difference. This brings in the implication of the 'argumentative context', that is, even if something is intentional, it can be considered as meaningful in rhetorical terms. The idea has its essence in considering the arguments as a product of thinking as according to Billig (1993b), rhetoric provides the entry to the understanding of thinking as a traditional practice and to the study of argumentation. This evokes the ancient understanding of rhetoric which implies a significant connection between rhetoric and argumentation (Tindale, 1999). Therefore, the intentional arguments can be considered as a part of the same thought process through which the unintentional arguments emerge, and so their significance cannot be ignored in rhetorical terms. For example, as discussed earlier, the analysis of this research witnessed the descriptions of appraisees and appraisers taking the rhetorical meaning from their anticipated alternative descriptions and counter-descriptions of the other appraisees and appraisers. Hence, this contributes towards the cognitive significance of rhetoric (Billig, 1987; 1993b; 1996), particularly relating to a potentially controversial matter, where thinking is considered as ''inherently dialogic…not merely the silent argument of the soul with itself, but even more frequently, it is the noisier argument of one individual with another'' (Billig, 1993b: 121). ''In other words, if thinking is rhetorically constituted, then rhetorical engagements are embodiments of cognition'' (Mootz III, 2016: 216). Consequently, this also involves the utterences, which are meant for the audience who is not physically present at the time of those utterences, as witnessed in the case of this study.

The argument about the appraisees and appraisers' intentional or deliberate construction of their accounts may further be justified with what Hartelius & Browning (2008: 19) argued regarding rhetoric, that is, rhetoric "permeates human interaction as long as language is used deliberately". Similarly, Von Koskull & Fougère (2011) argued that rhetoric can be seen as a central feature of management and marketing practices. This is because managers spend most of their time in using deliberative language (Mintzberg, 1973). Therefore, rhetoric in this broader sense of a mundane aspect of human action (Watson, 1995a), has been increasingly used by the management scholars as an analytical lens in recent years (Green, 2004; Heracleous & Barrett, 2001; Von Koskull & Fougère, 2011). However, one may question that the semi-structured interviews which were conducted for this study do not represent the mundane setting of organisations (e.g., it is unlike the actual observation of the entire PA process while the process is being carried out), despite being conducted in the banks, so who is the audience of those interviews. In this case, we still may not deny the human interaction aspect of rhetoric (e.g., in terms of the interaction between the

interviewer and interviewees) and the implication of the argumentative context (e.g., where the parties of the argument are not necessarily needed to be present to observe each other's accounts).

Here it is important to note that from the beginning of the study, I had also expected both the parties (appraisees and appraisers) to construct their accounts by undermining the other party's accounts and to resist their accounts from being undermined by the potential alternative accounts of the other party. This is quite understandable, particularly in the light of my recognition of the potential for controversy associated with PA from the beginning of the research. Moreover, following the current rhetorical framework, it was understandable for me to expect it from the beginning of the study. This leads one to think that the studies which are based on the accounts regarding potentially controversial matters or practices, such as PA, tend to trade upon scepticism, and so it may naturally be expected of the audience of such studies to expect arguments and counter-arguments.

This carries us to the fourth detail for the discussion, that is, my role as a researcher in the current study, and my own rhetoric in the thesis. Altogether, my role as a researcher remained neutral towards both the parties. I did not take any party's side throughout the research. I did not try to prove which party is right and which party is wrong in their arguments. Although, as an interviewer, I remained the immediate and the only visible audience of the appraisees and appraisers, it was neither my account which the appraisees and appraisers undermined, nor was it my account from which they resisted (or protected) their accounts from being undermined. In fact, I did not hold any account of my own at the time of conducting the interviews but only the questions regarding different aspects of their PA which they had to answer. This essentially left them to undermine each other's accounts and protect their own accounts from being undermined by each other (e.g., based on the alternative potential arguments and counter-arguments of each other's accounts in their minds).

Therefore, appraisees and appraisers, as an audience of each other's accounts, had a more significant role than me being an immediate audience of their accounts at the time of conducting their interviews. Unless they had thought of me to be biased towards one of the parties then they would have possibly considered me to influence the same thinking as the other representatives of that party at the time of my analysing their data. If this had been the case, they were mistaken about my role as an analyst which has been guided by the

rhetorical framework. However, I believe that the interviewees were intelligent enough to recognise that as I was not biased towards any party in relation to asking them the interviews' questions, I would not be biased in analysing their accounts as well.

As far as my role as an analyst is concerned, as mentioned earlier, it has been guided by the rhetorical framework used in the study. In other words, the findings and analysis of the current research are what they are because the analysis I have performed is guided by the rhetorical framework, not because I have been biased towards any party. Therefore, my role as an analyst has neither been to undermine any account of the appraisees and appraisers, nor has it been to protect or resist my account from their undermining. In contrast, my role as an analyst has been to show (with the application of the rhetorical framework) that how the appraisees and appraisers construct the reality of their PA with the use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. Therefore, in case the accounts of appraisees and appraisers are undermined in the analysis, they are not undermined in any deliberate effort from my end but because of the way both the parties have used the argumentative and persuasive devices of rhetoric in their talk (which have been analysed following the codes from the rhetorical framework).

Furthermore, as far as the overall thesis is concerned, we cannot deny that this thesis is a rhetorical work in itself. This is because it emanates from the ideas of both classical and contemporary rhetorical traditions. Similarly, my own approaches in the thesis writing can be called rhetorical. This reminisce what Billig (1989) stated: when the writers call their approaches rhetorical, they are linking themselves to the classical rhetorical tradition, and so separating themselves from the modern rejected view of rhetoric.

Now I will discuss the limitations of the current study as the fifth detail. Firstly, I will talk about the matter of the respondents' use of mixed language in the interviews. The respondents of the interviews replied to the interviews' questions in both English and Urdu languages. Even though I had translated and transcribed all the audio-recorded interviews, I used the data for the analysis from those sections of the interviews which were naturally spoken by the respondents in English. This was, of course, done with the exception to some Urdu terms and phrases. The exceptions were made because those Urdu terms and phrases had spontaneously been fused by the appraisees and appraisers to their arguments which were spoken in English. Moreover, such cases provided the example of code-switching of the appraisees and appraisers (e.g., from English to Urdu) in the analysis. In

particular, those Urdu terms and phrases can be observed in the selected interviews' extracts of the appraisees and appraisers, for the analysis, where they opened up about the taboo or sensitive issues. Hence, their code-switching implies their preference for their native language for the potency in their expressions (e.g., in terms of all the three appeals of persuasion, logos, ethos and pathos).

Additionally, in the extracts which are used for the analysis, those Urdu terms and phrases are written in Roman Urdu. However, in order to analyse the extracts consistent with the rhetorical framework, they had to be well interpreted and translated into English. For that reason, my involvement and responsibility have been crucial as I had to translate and interpret them to their closest meaning (from Roman Urdu to English in the analysis). Of course, being a native speaker of Urdu helped me in the interpretation of those terms well, and so I was able to translate them well into English. Similarly, the multiple screening levels used in the current study may possibly be considered as the limitation; however, I have discussed and justified them all in chapter 5 (research methodology). Moreover, this limitation does not appear to affect the analysis of the study as the same findings may have been achieved otherwise.

Secondly, I will discuss the accessibility issue to the naturally occurring environment of the feedback interviews of PA as a limitation. My first priority to collect the data for this research was through the audio-recorded observations of the naturally occurring environment of the feedback interviews of PA. However, due to the accessibility issues to such interviews' setting in both of the banks, I could not carry on with the first plan. This left me with the choice of conducting semi-structured interviews with the appraisees and appraisers regarding different aspects of their PA. However, later it was realised that conducting semi-structured interviews was, in fact, one of the best methods for the current study because both of the banks used PA forms for their appraisal evaluations. While the feedback interviews of PA were considered as secondary to them (e.g., they were only performed on need basis).

Another interesting issue, which I am entitling as the sixth detail for the discussion, deals with the irony. When interviewing the appraisees and appraisers, I realised the irony in the situation because all the appraisers whom I had interviewed were, at the same time, appraisees too. They were appraised by the people above them in the level of the hierarchy. However, their appraisers were not the part of my interviews. During the interviews, these

appraisers were mainly talking from the perspective of appraisers. Interestingly, there were some instances where the appraisers could not handle the situation and their arguments were overlapping because of their dual role. One of the appraisers even thought that I would be interviewing him as an appraisee. This formed a very interesting situation because that appraiser kept on switching between the perspective of appraisee and appraiser throughout his argument, and so one could easily observe the variations in his rhetoric. Similarly, while interviewing the appraisees, some of the appraisees informed me that they were appraisers too. However, their appraisees were not the part of my interviews. Therefore, it is noteworthy that not all the appraisees whom I interviewed were appraisers but all the appraisers whom I interviewed were appraisees in the two banks. The irony of the situation is that all the appraisers who were talking adversely about their appraisees were themselves filling the roles of appraisees in the banks. Likewise, some appraisees who were talking adversely about their appraisers were themselves filling the roles of appraisers in the banks. This irony is created due to the situation of the dual roles of both appraisees and appraisers. Moreover, switching between positions from an appraiser to an appraisee, and vice versa indicates the confusion among them due to their dual roles. This, in turn, implies the complex nature of responsibilities and opportunities provided to the members by their organisations.

Furthermore, one may expect the instances of the dramatic irony during the course of the semi-structured interviews. Dramatic irony is usually created for suspense (or humour) where the speaker does not know about something but the audience does. For example, as an interviewer, I was the immediate and the only visible audience available to the appraisees and appraisers, and so on the surface level, only I knew what they argued about their PA and each other. However, the situation appears to be different at a deeper level, particularly in view of the 'argumentative context'. Therefore, one's anticipation about the dramatic irony is dismissed with the deeper implication of the 'argumentative context' (e.g., during the course of their semi-structured interviews, the arguments of the appraisees and appraisers were based on the potential alternative arguments and counter-arguments of each other, which did not require them to be physically present in each other's interviews).

Now, in order to discuss the seventh detail, there is a need to reminisce the point about the dual role of the appraisees and appraisers as it builds the ground for the seventh detail for the discussion. This detail covers what Edwards & Potter (1992a) and Potter (1996: 110) called ''the dilemma of stake''. For example, according to Edwards & Potter (1992a) when

anything people say or do may potentially be discounted as a product of their interest, in terms of its outcome, they may be caught in 'the dilemma of stake'. In addition, this detail covers what Potter (1996) referred as 'category entitlement'. I will discuss both of them one by one.

Firstly, I will start with 'the dilemma of stake'. In the analysis, we have witnessed a number of appraisers expressing good things regarding the PA process practiced in their banks in a number of occasions. One may say that as they conduct the PA process (e.g., as being one of the important parties to it), it is definitely in their self-interests to state good things about it. However, when an appraiser says that I am an appraisee too (e.g., as some of them said so in their interviews) and still sticks to the same perspectives, one may dismiss the idea that the account of the appraiser is merely the product of his or her self-interest. The reason is that one may be expecting him or her to be talking from different perspectives for each of his or her roles. For example, the majority of the appraisees in the study have a different perspective than their appraisers so it is natural to expect the dual role holder to be talking from different perspectives for each of his or her roles.

Therefore, sticking to the same perspective, while being in the dual role of an appraiser and appraisee, may lead one to think of him or her as trusted being. This further has a positive impact as his or her accounts are protected from the potential alternative undermining. On the other hand, when the dual role holder is not being consistent with his or her perspectives and switches roles then not only his or her trust could potentially be lost but also his or her account could be potentially discounted. Having said that, we may not dismiss the notion that there is a possibility that the dual role holder considers one role important than the other which leads him or her to stick to the perspectives of what he or she considers the important role.

Secondly, as far as the 'category entitlement' is concerned, we know that when it comes to reliable knowledge about certain matters, certain categories of people are entitled to have it more than others. However, in the case of this research, as both the parties are equally important to PA, it is quite challenging to determine which party has more reliable knowledge. Similarly, in the situation where the appraisees and appraisers have a dual role, it is again challenging to determine which category of the dual role holder has more reliable knowledge.

Interestingly, we have also experienced a case (in the analysis) where the arguments are used by a person for the purpose of protecting the other person's account, from the potential alternative undermining, through the use of 'category entitlement'. Hence, this initiates the eight detail for the discussion. For example, we observed a person, who has dual roles, simultaneously switching positions between his roles. In doing so, he put himself into the category of appraiser which entitled him to the knowledge and expertise of appraiser. Thus, he presented his account in defence of his appraiser's account which added to the credibility of his appraiser. Consequently, he was not only able to protect his own position but also the position of his appraiser from the potential alternative criticism. This idea leads to open further discussion. For example, it appears that the appraisees and appraisers always have some accounts to protect (e.g., which are not necessarily their own), and some potential alternative accounts to undermine (e.g., in order to protect the accounts which are not necessarily their own).

Moreover, in a couple of final interviews' extracts used for the analysis, we observed the efforts of the interviewees to convince or persuade themselves of their own accounts as if they were the audience of their own accounts. Accordingly, this builds the ninth detail for the discussion and draws our attention towards the idea of Sensemaking process where people give meaning to their experiences. According to Malphurs (2013: 68), where the rhetorical criticism ignores "the ability of a speaker's communication to cognitively reinforce their own personal commitments, Sensemaking highlights the ability for humans to persuade themselves of a position through speech". Moreover, one may argue that it is due to the dual role confusion among the appraisees and appraisers which had led them to persuade themselves. Hence, they may also be considered as the audience of themselves. Similarly, they may reify in their accounts to protect their accounts from the potential alternative criticism of themselves, and ironize in their accounts to counter-argue their own potential alternative criticism. Again, this contributes towards the cognitive importance of rhetoric (Billig, 1987; 1993b; 1996).

On the whole, the study considers rhetoric as the argumentative and persuasive feature of organisational life as the members of organisations frequently use different argumentative and persuasive dimensions (or devices) of rhetoric to persuade each other. Therefore, the knowledge of these dimensions (or devices) is important because it communicates that how the reality of different controversial or potentially controversial organisational phenomena is constructed by the members of organisations (e.g., the arguments and persuasion of the

members of organisations shape the reality of different controversial or potentially controversial organisational phenomena which, in turn, contribute towards our understanding of not only those phenomena but also organisations and their members). In this regard, PA is one important organisational phenomenon. Its importance further intensifies due to the involvement of many different parties in the process. Appraisees and appraisers are the two important parties to it.

Therefore, being the rhetorical beings and the part of the 'argumentative context', when the appraisees and appraisers argued about their PA process, their arguments were considered as the reality. As discussed earlier, what makes it an interesting situation to study from the rhetorical perspective is that the individuals from these two parties belonged to both of the categories (appraisees and appraisers), simultaneously. Moreover, the potential for controversy in PA attracted the rhetorical attention as it inspired to study the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding their PA. As far as which party's arguments can be considered more persuasive is concerned, both sides seemed to have used the argumentative and persuasive dimensions (or devices) of rhetoric in practically an equal sense. However, the arguments of appraisees seem to have represented a more critical reality of their PA than the arguments of appraisers. This may possibly be the consequence of the appraisers being more confused in their dual roles than the appraisees (e.g., because all the appraisers were appraisees too, but not all the appraisees were appraisers).

In consideration of what has already been discussed, I will now specifically discuss the study's contributions, implications, and future research directions. The research contributes towards our understanding of the importance of rhetoric in organisational contexts characterised by actual or potential controversy. In doing so, it provides a rich insight into the use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers regarding their PA which represents rhetoric as an important aspect of PA (e.g., an aspect through which the everyday reality of PA is constructed), and also demonstrates it as a valuable persuasive skill used by them. In particular, the study contributes by directing the attention of the stakeholders of PA towards the idea of using the argumentative and persuasive devices of rhetoric in a more efficient manner in order to persuade themselves as well as those who are part of any sort of 'argumentative context' posed by their PA setting. Similarly, as a practical implication, the stakeholders of PA, especially the appraisees and appraisers, should consider rhetoric not only as an important

aspect of PA but also a useful skill to be mastered. Respectively, they should invest their efforts in mastering this skill with an appropriate attention to training.

In addition, the research contributes towards testing the theory which constitutes the rhetorical framework. For example, the rhetorical framework used in the study mainly identifies the codes for the analysis which are then applied to the actual empirical data. The evidence of the presence of those codes in the analysis, thereby, suggests the presence of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in the talk of appraisees and appraisers. Hence, the theory which constitutes the rhetorical framework is proven or tested on their talk regarding their PA. Accordingly, the study contributes in terms of its use of the deductive method for the analysis. For example, in terms of its use of a framework, which identified the codes for the analysis, as stated earlier.

Similarly, the use of the rhetorical framework for the analysis, based on the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric, results in methodological contributions as it provided the codes for analysis For example, it is on the basis of the rhetorical framework that a potentially controversial practice, PA, is analysed from the perspective of how the two important parties of the practice construct the reality of it with the use of the argumentative and persuasive dimensions of rhetoric in their talk. Therefore, the rhetorical framework used in the study is a contribution from a methodological perspective to future studies based within an organisational context characterised by actual or potential controversy.

On the other hand, it is an empirical study. The data used for the analysis is derived from the actual experiences of the appraisees and appraisers. Even though the rhetorical framework determined the codes for the analysis of the data, the abundant evidence of the presence of those codes in the data validates the use of the argumentative and persuasive devices of rhetoric by the appraisees and appraisers in order to construct the reality of their PA. In turn, a theory of PA is built from the perspective of rhetoric. Thus, even a diminutive possibility of the pre-analysis stage that the collected data may not be able to represent the argumentative and persuasive rhetorical dimensions is dismissed at the post-analysis stage in this thesis.

Another important contribution of the study involves the ‘argumentative context’ and ‘justification process’. The ‘argumentative context’ in the study is based on the one-to-one

semi-structured interviews' setting where the appraisees and appraisers presented and justified their positions regarding their PA against the potential (or anticipated) counter positions of each other. Consequently, being the part of such 'argumentative context' and 'justification process', the appraisees and appraisers were each other's audience. Similarly, it is evident from their arguments that such 'argumentative context' had not required them to be physically present at the time of each other's interviews (when they constructed the reality of their PA) as their arguments were based on a broader context of their PA, involving their real-life experiences of each other and their PA process as a whole. Therefore, the analysis contributes towards demonstrating how people anticipate the arguments of the absent audience (or physically non-present audience), and use rhetorical devices to justify their own arguments, regarding a potentially controversial matter. While considering the broader context of their PA, the implication of the 'argumentative context' (where the appraisees and appraisers were not necessarily required to be physically present to observe each other's arguments) is that appraisees and appraisers are rhetorical beings, and so they not only use the argumentative and persuasive devices of rhetoric but also they use the similar argumentative and persuasive devices in the naturally occuring setting of their PA as they used in their semi-structured interviews. In this regard, an interesting phenomenon observed in the analysis is the code-switching of the appraisees and appraisers (from English to Urdu), especially when discussing sensitive or taboo matters, which implies their preference for their native language for the potency in their expressions.

Lastly, the current study provides a room for future research as it may inspire the use of rhetorical analysis in a variety of different ways. For example, within the boundaries of the positive view of rhetoric, the talk of appraisees and appraisers may possibly be rhetorically analysed with the use of different rhetorical frameworks; for example, a framework based on Booth's (2004) win rhetoric, listening rhetoric and rhetoric of negotiation. Similarly, different methods of data collection may be utilised for rhetorical analysis by the future researchers, along with the utilisation of a different rhetorical framework. On the other hand, a similar rhetorical framework, as in the current study, may be used for the analysis of the talk of the parties to a controversial or potentially controversial management and HRM practice or phenomenon.

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Appendices

Appendix A (Set 1−Questions for Appraisers)

1. What is your name?
2. What is your position in the bank?
3. What is the entry level qualification for working at this position?
4. How long have you been working:
   A. At this position?
   B. Overall in the bank?
5. Could you describe what it has been like working in the bank? What are the best/worst things about working in the bank?
6. How would you describe the management style of the bank? Do you closely supervise/manage or do you give the employees much autonomy/scope?
7. What kind of performance management system is in place in the bank?
8. What is your general view of the performance appraisal system?
9. In general, what do you think is the purpose of the performance appraisal system?
10. Could you describe the bank's performance appraisal system?
11. What purposes the performance appraisal system in the bank is intended to achieve for:
    A. Appraisers?
    B. Appraisees?
    C. Bank?
12. Do you think performance appraisal system in the bank is well designed and implemented to achieve such purposes? (If yes, how? If no, why not?)
13. Could you discuss if you are generally satisfied with the extent of involvement of you and your appraisees in appraising their performance?
14. What happens prior to the actual performance appraisal? Do you consult your appraisees on matters such as, setting of their performance targets/objectives, methods of measuring their performance, evidence of written documentation of their performance to be used and date and time of their performance appraisal? (If yes, how? If no, why not?)
15. What kind of performance targets/objectives set for appraisees to achieve? (Give examples)

16. How are the performance targets/objectives set? Are they set with the consideration of appraisees' past, present and expected future performance? (If no, why not?)
17. Who sets the performance targets/objectives?
18. What important attributes of performance are measured in the performance appraisal of appraisees in order for you to decide if they have achieved their set performance targets/objectives or not?
19. How such attributes of performance are measured? Are there any standards?
20. What kind of written documentation of appraisees' performance used in their performance appraisal?
21. How frequently do you appraise the performance of a lone appraisee within a year?
22. Do you consider this time interval appropriate? (If yes, why? If no, why not?)
23. How does the feedback on appraisees' performance appraisal happen?
24. Do you think the performance appraisal feedback is:
    A. A confidential matter (If yes, how the confidentiality is maintained? If no, why not?)
    B. Well-timed? (If no, why not?)
25. Could you explain how you feel about the quality of feedback you provide on the performance appraisal of appraisees?
26. How easily can your appraisees communicate their concerns to you? Do you think they face any communication hurdles with you at any point of time?
27. Can appraisees appeal against unfair performance appraisal decisions in the bank? (If yes, how is it entertained?)
28. Have you ever personally felt that you have unfairly appraised an appraisee? (If yes, questions 29, 30 and 31)
29. What do you think were the possible reasons which led you to the unfairness in that appraisees' performance appraisal?
30. Were there any conflicts emanated from that unfair performance appraisal? (If yes, what were they? If no, why not?)
31. Have your appraisees ever appealed against unfair performance appraisal decisions? (If yes, how was it entertained?)
32. Do you think performance appraisal system in the bank is generally fair? (If yes, why? If no, why not?)
33. Do you think performance appraisal of appraisees have an overall positive/negative impact on their job performance? (If yes, why? If no, why not?)

34. Overall what do you think are the general advantages and disadvantages of performance appraisal in the bank?
35. Are you generally satisfied with the PA system in the bank? If no, why not? And can you suggest the possible ways to improve the present performance appraisal system in the bank?
36. Are there any issues based on your own experience of appraising performance within this bank which you would like to add?

Appendix B (Set 2−Questions for Appraisees)

1. What is your name?
2. What is your position in the bank?
3. What is the entry level qualification for working at this position?
4. How long have you been working:
   C. At this position?
   D. Overall in the bank?
5. Could you describe what it has been like working in the bank? What are the best/worst things about working in the bank?
6. How would you describe the management style of the bank? Are you closely supervised/managed or do you have much autonomy/scope?
7. What kind of performance management system is in place in the bank?
8. What is your general view of the performance appraisal system?
9. In general, what do you think is the purpose of the performance appraisal system?
10. Could you describe the bank's performance appraisal system?
11. What purposes the performance appraisal system in the bank is intended to achieve for:
    D. Appraisees?
    E. Appraisers?
    F. Bank?
12. Do you think performance appraisal system in the bank is well designed and implemented to achieve such purposes? (If yes, how? If no, why not?)
13. Could you discuss if you are generally satisfied with the extent of involvement of you and your appraiser in your performance appraisal?
14. What happens prior to the actual performance appraisal? Are you consulted by your appraiser on matters such as, setting of your performance targets/objectives, methods of measuring your performance, evidence of written documentation of your performance to be used and date and time of your performance appraisal? (If yes, how? If no, why not?)
15. What kind of performance targets/objectives set for you to achieve? (Give examples)

16. How are the performance targets/objectives set? Are they set with the consideration of your past, present and expected future performance? (If no, why not?)
17. Who sets the performance targets/objectives?
18. What important attributes of performance are measured in your performance appraisal in order for your appraiser to decide if you have achieved your set performance targets/objectives or not?
19. How such attributes of performance are measured? Are there any standards?
20. What kind of written documentation of your performance used in your performance appraisal?
21. How frequently is your performance appraised within a year?
22. Do you consider this time interval appropriate? (If yes, why? If no, why not?)
23. How does the feedback on your performance appraisal happen?
24. Do you think the performance appraisal feedback is:
    C. A confidential matter (If yes, how the confidentiality is maintained? If no, why not?)
    D. Well-timed? (If no, why not?)
25. Could you explain how do you find the quality of the feedback you receive on your performance appraisal?
26. How easily can you communicate your concerns to your appraiser? Do you face any communication hurdles with your appraiser at any point of time?
27. Can you appeal against unfair performance appraisal decisions in the bank? (If yes, how is it entertained?)
28. Have you ever personally felt that you have been appraised unfairly by an appraiser? (If yes, questions 29, 30 and 31)
29. What do you think were the possible reasons for the unfairness in your performance appraisal?
30. Were there any conflicts emanated from your unfair performance appraisal? (If yes, what were they? If no, why not?)
31. Have you ever appealed against unfair performance appraisal decisions? (If yes, how was it entertained?)

32. Do you think performance appraisal system in the bank is generally fair? (If yes, why? If no, why not?)
33. Do you think your performance appraisal has an overall positive/negative impact on your job performance? (If yes, why? If no, why not?)
34. Overall what do you think are the general advantages and disadvantages of performance appraisal in the bank?
35. Are you generally satisfied with the PA system in the bank? If no, why not? And can you suggest the possible ways to improve the present performance appraisal system in the bank?
36. Are there any issues based on your own experience of performance appraisal in the bank which you would like to add?