In Marketing, it's either you have it or you don't:

A study of knowledge and knowers legitimated in the Marketing diploma curriculum in South Africa

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Nea onnim no sua a, ohu

He who does not know can become knowledgeable through learning (Western Africa)

by

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December 2020

Supervisor: Professor Sioux McKenna

Declaration of Originality

I certify that this thesis has not been submitted for a degree in any other university and it is my own original work. Where other author's work has been cited, it has been referenced according to Rhodes University's Referencing Guide.

Signature of student	Date: 24/08/2020

Isifingqo

Lolucwaningo lwenziwe ngaphansi kohlelo lwezemfundo ephakeme lwaseNingizimu Afrika lapho ukwehluka kwezikhungo zemfundo ephakeme kusaveza ubandlululo ngenxa yomlando wezwe obandakanya izigameko zobandlululo. Njengothisha esikhungweni semfundo ephakeme, sengibe nemibuzo eminingi mayelana nokuthi ibaphi abafundi abaphumelelayo, baphumelela kanjani, ibaphi abahlulekayo nabasala endleleni bagcine ngokuyeka.

Uhlelo lwezemfundo eNingizimu Afrika lunenkinga yenani eliphansi lokugcina abafundi kanye nenani elikhulu labafundi abangaqedi kanti iningi lalabobafundi libandakanya abantu abamnyama. Baningi abafundi abamnyama abangene kuma-technikon ngesikhathi sokuphela kobandlululo ngonyaka ka-1994 kanti futhi nenani labo kwaba ilona eliphezulu kakhulu kulezi zikhungo. Ama-technikon anikezele ngezinhlelo zokufundwa kwamakhono okuhlobene kakhulu nalokho okudingeka ezindaweni zokusebenza. Lezi zikhungo zazingenazo izifundo ezenziwa emva kokuqedwa kweziqu zokuqala. Ngo-2005 zagcina ngokushintsha zibe izikhungo zobuchwepheshe bolwazi lokwenza kanti kuze kube manje, lezi zikhungo zisakhiqiza ucwaningo oluncane kakhulu. Lezi zikhungo zinenkinga yamazinga aphansi abafundi abaqeda iziqu zabo kanye nenani labafundi abaningi abaqeda bengaqashwa uma ziqhathaniswa nezikhungo zendabuko. Lokhu sekuholele ekutheni kube khona uhlelo lokubuyekezwa kolwazi olunikezwa abafundi oluzongenelela ukuze kutholakale izindlela ezingcono ezizolekelela kulolulwazi olukhona. Phambilini sezike zaba khona iziphakamiso zezifundo ezigxile olwazini ezihlobene nalezi ikakhulukazi ohlelweni lwe-diploma.

Lolucwaningo luphinde lwaveza ukuba umkhakha we-Marketing awunalo ucwaningo oluningi olwenziwe. Lomkhakha usuchazwe njengongenaso isisekelo esiqinile solwazi olusekelwe ucwaningo. Into ebekwa phambili kakhulu kwa-Marketing ulwazi olugxile kakhulu ezintweni ezijwayelekile kunalolu oluzogxila ezihlokweni ezithile zalo mkhakha.

Lolucwaningo luhlose ukuhlola lemibuzo elandelayo:

1. Iluphi uhlobo lolwazi olubekwa phambili ohlelweni lokufunda lwe-Marketing?
2. Ingabe ukubekwa kwababambiqhaza emkhakheni we-Marketing kunamuphi umthelela kwisinqumo kanye nokuhlelwa kolwazi ohlelweni lokufunda lwe-Marketing?

Lolucwaningo lwenziwe ngokusetshenziswa kwezinhlolovo ukuthola imibono yabafundisi be-Marketing ngolwazi lwabo lokuthi yini ebonakala ibalulekile ohlelweni lokufunda emkhakheni wabo. Abafundisi abangashumi amathathu nanye abavela ezikhungweni ezilishumi nanye babambe iqhaza kulolucwaningo. Lolucwaningo luhlaziye ukuhleleka kolwazi ohlelweni lokufunda lwe-Marketing. Ukwenza lokhu, lolucwaningo lusebenzise i-Legitimation Code Theory ikakhulukazi isikhali se-Specialisation kanye ne-Semantics. Lezizikhali yizona ezigunyaza ukuhlaziywa kolwazi nokubaluleka kwalo kweminye imikhakha ngokomqondo kanye nangolwazi olugxile kokuthile.

Ucwaningo lubuye lwaveza ukuthi abafundisi be-Marketing bangene kulomkhakha bephuma kweminye imikhakha ehlukene. Imiphumela yengxoxo kanye nocwaningo lwakamuva luveze ukuba umkhakha we-Marketing uqobo ulwazi lwayo lusuka kweminye imikhakha kodwa eminingi. Lomkhakha uqoqa ulwazi ngenhloso yokufundisa amakhono adingeka ezindaweni zokusebenza. Uhlelo lwezemfundo lwe-Marketing lunokuhlangana nenkinga yokuba lezizindawo zokusebenza ziningi, zahlukene njalo zivame ukushintsha indlela zazo zokusebenza.

Imibono yabafundisi iphinde yaveza ukuthi umkhakha we-Marketing ubanzi kakhulu kanti ubanjwe ukuthi awukuvumeli ukukhula ngendlela efanele. Lokho kwadala ukuthi umkhakha we-Marketing uthathwe njengomkhakha ogxile olwazini olujwayelekile oluveza nemibuzo ngokuthembakala kwesizinda solwazi. Isizathu solwazi olujwayelekile siholela ekuvulelekeni okuhambiselana nokuntengantenga kolwazi kanye nokungakwazi ukuhlukanisa lomkhakha neminye.

Ezinye zezinto ezitholakele ukuthi noma ingxoxo nabafundisi ike yagxila olwazini, ulwazi akulona olunika indlela emqoka yokutholakala kwempumelelo kumkhakha we-Marketing. Ngale kobufakazi bolwazi obukhona ezifundweni ze-Marketing, bekunobufakazi obuncane obuveza ukuthi lolulwazi lutholakale kanjani, uhlobo lolwazi uqobo lwalo alucaciswanga, futhi akukho okutheni okuvunyelwane ngakho. Ulwazi olutholakele luveze ukuthi kunobufakazi obuncane obuveza ukuthi uhlobo lolwazi lungolugxile emkhakheni yobungcweti. Ulwazi belugxile ezinsolweni ezingafani kokunye eziphikisanayo lokho kwadala ukwehla kwamathuba angalekela ukwakhiwa kwezinhlaka zolwazi oluqinile kulomkhakha. Izinhlobo zolwazi ezikhona zivele zigxile kakhulu ezindaweni ezithize kunokuba zivumele ukusetshenziswa komqondo ngobuhlakani. Lokhu kudala ukuba kube nemithelela yobulungiswa uma abafundi bolwazi bezonikezwa ulwazi olugxile ezindaweni ezibiyelwe ezizodwa baphinde bathole ulwazi olusemazingeni aphansi. Uhlelo lwezifundo lwe-Marketing alunikezi abafundi igunya lokuthola ulwazi olunamandla oluzobaqeqesha ukuba bakulungele ukumelana nomhlaba ngazo zonke izindlela bacabange izinto ezintsha ezingakaze zibe khona. Ezimeni ezikanjalo, imfundo ayinikezani ngethuba lokuthi umuntu akwazi ukuzenzela izinto ngokwakhe akwazi nokucabanga ngobuhlakani. Lolucwaningo luphakamisa ukuthi kuqinisiswe uhlobo lolwazi olukhona ezifundweni ze-diploma ye-Marketing, lokho okuzodala ukuthi kube khona indlela yokufinyelela olwazini olujulile.

Ezinye zezinto ezitholwe ucwaningo ukuthi iningi lezimpendulo zabafundisi zigxile ekutheni kufanele ube namakhono okuzalwa ukuze uphumelele kwa-Marketing. Impumelelo kusifundo se-Marketing ibigxile kakhulu ezindleleni ezibandakanya indlela zokwenza, ukuzwana nabantu, ukwazisa izinto, ukugqoka, ukucabanga kanye nokukholelwa entweni. Uhlobo lomuntu obeluhlonishwa kwa-Marketing beluvezwa njengomuntu okumele aphile impilo ethile futhi abe nesiphiwo esingagxilile kulokhu umfundi akufunde esikoleni kodwa lezi zinto yena umfundi afika nazo uqobo. Okunye okuvelile ezimpendulweni ukuthi abafundi abaningi ababhalisela ukwenza izifundo ze-Marketing abanawo amakhono okuzalwa alindelekile omuntu owenza loluhlobo lomkhakha. Abafundi bebelindeleke ukuthi baqhamuke ezingeni lempilo elithize ikakhulukazi nemvelaphi yabo, izikole abafunda kuzo, ulwazi abanalo ngezobuchwepheshe kanye nezindawo abasuka kuzo. Abafundi babelindeleke ukuba babe sezingeni elithile lokukwazi ukusebenzisa ulimi ngendlela efanele. Izinga lempilo kanye nolimi ezinye zezinto ezazisetshenziswa ngokwemboziweyo ukuhlukanisa ngokobuhlanga.

Ezinye zezinto ezibonakele ukuthi abafundi abakwazi ukukhuluma nokuqonda isiNgisi ibona ababa izintandokazi. Ngisho nothisha baze bakugcizelela ukuthi abafundi abangasazi isiNgisi abanabuchwepheshe, kanti lokhu kuvele sengathi ulwazi angeke lube khona futhi lufundeke uma lungesona isiNgisi. Othisha babuye baveza ukuthi bayafisa ukuthi isifundo esimayelana nokukhangwa kwabathengi sisebenzise uhla lokukhethwa kwabafundi ngamakhono abo okuzalwa azoveza izimo ezithandwa yibo othisha.

Ukugcizelelwa kwesifiso sokukhethwa kwabafundi ngemvelaphi nangamakhono okuzalwa kuveza ngokusobala ukuthi uma ukhetha loluhlobo lomkhakha ulindeleke ukuthi ube namakhono athize endalo njengokuzethemba ngokwendalo kanye nokukwazi ukusebenzisana nabantu ngokwendalo noma uqhamuke eqoqweni elithize. Imiphumela yokungabi nakho konke lokhu ukuthi ayikho into ongayenza ngoba lokhu ulindeleke ukuba uzalwe nakho ukujwayele ngaphambi kokuthi uzofika wamukelwe ukufunda i-Marketing. Lokhu kuveza izinkinga ezininingi ezihlobene nobulungiswa mayelana nokungena kulomkhakha we-Marketing. Uma ingekho into engenziwa ukuthuthukisa umuntu ozalwe ngaphandle kwezinto ezithile ezilindeleke kulomkhakha, sekungaba kudlalwa ngaye uma kuthiwa uyamukelwa ukufunda kulomkhakha. Ngakolunye uhlangothi, ukuvimbela umuntu ithuba ngenxa yokuthi uzalelwe kuphi kanye nokuthi usuka ezindaweni ezinabantu abanjani kuveza inkathazo mayelana nobulungiswa ngokwemiphakathi esiphila kuyo.

Lolucwaningo lufaka inselelo yokuthi kuke kubhekisiswe izinsolo ezisekela impumelelo yomuntu kumkhakha we-Marketing. Noma kuvele kaningi ukuthi imvelaphi, amakhono okuzalwa nezilimi kubalulekile kulomkhakha nokugxila kwawo, ukusetshenziswa kwalezizinsolo njengezinto ezilindelekile ukuthi abafundi babenazo ukuze bamukelwe kumkhakha we-Marketing kungezinye zezinto ezingabuvezi ubulungiswa futhi kudala imibuzo eminingi engaphenduleki neletha ubuhlungu uma kubhekwa amazinga okuphumelela ngokwezinhlanga. Ucwaningo luphetha ngokuthi lubize bonke abafundisi ohlelweni lokufunda lwe-Marketing ukuba zonke lezizinto ezilindeleke kubafundi zibe ingxenye yohlaka olufundiswayo, lufundiswe ngendlela efanele nokuthi abafundi bayanikezwa ithuba lokuthi bafunde ubungcwethi ngamakhono amqoka.

Abstract

This study was undertaken in the South African higher education system in which the differentiation of institutions still reflects racial inequalities from the country's history of colonial apartheid. As an educator in an institutional type referred to as Universities of Technology, I had become increasingly concerned about who succeeds, how they succeed, who fails, and who drops out.

The South Africa education system broadly suffers from low student retention and high drop out with lower success rates mostly affecting Black students. By the end of apartheid in 1994, Black students had been entering Technikons en masse and were the dominant student group in these institutions which changed designation to Universities of Technology in 2005. Technikons offered programmes with a stronger technological and vocational orientation focusing on qualifications directly linked to the job market. They did not offer postgraduate programmes and today, Universities of Technology still produce little research. These institutions also battle with a far lower throughput rate than Traditional Universities and a higher graduate unemployment rate. This has led to a call for better theorised accounts of applied knowledge to replace unhelpful common-sense understandings. There was thus a call in the literature for studies, such as this one, that focused on the nature of knowledge in a diploma curriculum.

Furthermore, the field of Marketing is under-researched. The field of Marketing has been characterised as having a weak theoretical foundation and as appropriating knowledge from other fields without growth of the field per se. In Marketing, importance is placed on the possession of a broad spectrum of general knowledge, rather than specialised accounts of the field.

The study sought to examine the following research questions: 1) What kind of knowledge is privileged in the Marketing diploma? 2) How does the positioning of actors in the field of Marketing education impact on the choice and structure of knowledge privileged in the curriculum?

The study was undertaken mainly through the use of interviews to explore academics' perspectives on what is valued in the Marketing curriculum. Thirty-one academics from 11 institutions participated in the study. I also analysed course guides and other documentation

related to the curriculum. The study analysed the organising of knowledge in the Marketing curriculum. To do this, the study drew on Legitimation Code Theory and in particular the tools of Specialisation and Semantics. These tools allowed the analysis of data to establish the basis on which it is specialised from other fields and the extent to which the field is contextually or conceptually coherent.

The data demonstrated that academics who lecture in Marketing entered Marketing education from a diverse range of disciplines. The data also confirmed, in line with the literature, that the field of Marketing draws from multiple disciplines and fields for the purposes of serving the world of work. In Bernsteinian terms the nature of the Marketing curriculum is identified as a 'region'. However, the data also demonstrated that the field of Marketing serves a heterogenous world of work characterised by constant changes which do not seem to allow a stable development of the field. The field of Marketing was thus portrayed as a region tending towards a generic, raising questions about the reliability of its knowledge base. The nature of generics often leads to an openness which is associated with instability, a weaker autonomy, and an inability to differentiate the field from others with further implications that knowledge in the curriculum is likely to be unsettled.

One of the key findings was that while there was significant focus on knowledge, this was not the main basis on which success is achieved. Despite the ample evidence of knowledge in the Marketing curriculum, there was little agreement as to what constituted that knowledge, the actual nature of that knowledge was not settled, broadly agreed upon, nor particularly complex, drawing as it did on 'everyday' understandings of the world. The data revealed that there was little evidence that the knowledge was particularly specialised nor that it allowed for cumulative acquisition of 'powerful knowledge'. Rather, the knowledges in the field of Marketing were characterised by a horizontal knowledge structure consisting of a set of languages acquired separately. The knowledges were based on different and sometimes even contradictory assumptions and thus presented few opportunities to integrate previous theories to build a more powerful knowledge structure. The knowledges tended to be context specific as opposed to being abstract or conceptual. There are social justice implications for fields in which the acquirer is only afforded context specific knowledges and as such has to acquire an endless series of low-level knowledges. They are not given access to powerful knowledge characterised by induction into a system of meaning which enables a more meaningful engagement with the complex world and thinking the not yet thought. In such instances, the education arguably does not provide access to the kind of specialised knowledge which allows for powerful meaning making in the world. The study calls for a strengthening of the epistemic spine of the Marketing diploma to provide access to more abstract, principled knowledge.

A major finding was that most of the lecturers' responses focused on the need for being a particular kind of knower to be successful in Marketing. The kind of person valued in Marketing was portrayed as possessing a particular personality and natural talent which were rarely seen as dependent on the knowledge acquired during the diploma, but rather on the dispositions that students brought. The respondents also mostly raised concerns that most of the students enrolled in Marketing did not to have the requisite 'Marketing personalities'. Students were expected to be from a particular social class intimated through reference to their backgrounds, the schools they went to, their access to technologies, and the geographical regions they came from. They were expected to bring a particular language competency. Social class and language were arguably also used as coded reference to racial category, and this was more explicitly indicated by some respondents.

The dominance of the knower in the data revealed that in Marketing, "you either have it or you don't" indicating a strong view that Marketers are born with the necessary inherent characteristics of "confidence and people-skills" or belong to the social group that develops them. The implications were that if you do not have it, there is nothing one can do to get . This particular finding raises serious social justice issues on access and success in Marketing. If there is nothing that can be done to develop these characteristics, allowing such people into Marketing is setting them up for failure. On the other hand, denying access based on birth and social grouping raises concerns of the justice in the societies we live in.

The study calls for an explicit engagement with the assumptions about the knower's dispositions. While it was consistently evident that such dispositions were key to the specialisation of the field, the assumption that students either had these dispositions or lacked them is a social injustice and raises a number of unanswerable and painful questions given the racially differentiated success rates. The study concludes by calling for academics to explicitly curriculate for the target dispositions so that students are exposed to the value of these dispositions and given opportunities to engage with them.

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List of Acronyms

4Ps	– Product, Price, Place, Promotion
7Ps	– Product, Price, Place, Promotion, People, Process, Physical Evidence
AMA	– American Marketing Association
BCom	– Bachelor of Commerce
CIM	– Chartered Institute of Marketing
DHET	– Department of Higher Education and Training
DoE	– Department of Education
ER	– Epistemic Relations
HELTASA	– Higher Education Learning & Teaching Association of Southern Africa
IMC	– Integrated Marketing Communications
IR	– Interactional Relations
ISM	– Institute of Sales Management
LCT	– Legitimation Code Theory
MEDUNSA	– Medical University of South Africa
NPD	– New Product Development
NRF	– National Research Foundation
PESTEL	– Political, Economic, Sociological, Technological, Environmental, Legal
PR	– Public Relations
PRISA	– Public Relations Institute of Southern Africa
SD	– Semantic Density
SERTEC	– Sertifisering van Technikon or Certification Council for Technikon Education
SG	– Semantic Gravity
SP	– Sales Promotions
SR	– Social Relations
STP	– Segmentations, Targeting and Position
SubR	– Subjective Relations

SWOT – Strength, Weakness, Opportunity, Threat

TVET – Technical and Vocational Education and Training

UCT – University of Cape Town

UKZN – University of KwaZulu-Natal

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNISA – University of south Africa

UP – University of Pretoria

Chapter One: Introduction and Background

1.1 Overview

I am a Marketing lecturer. I have been lecturing in Marketing since 2009, mainly at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT). I have also had an opportunity to guest lecture in Germany and in Rwanda and have also visited Marketing departments in Zambia. Through these experiences I have become increasingly concerned as an educator in South Africa about who succeeds, how they succeed, who fails, and who drops out. I will discuss my positionality in more detail in the methodology chapter. However, I mention it now because this positionality was the main drive to taking up an opportunity to study the issues of curriculum, assessment, and success in Marketing.

This study looked at the Marketing diploma curriculum as understood by academics teaching on the programme, with the understanding that if we do not understand what gets legitimated and what gets valued in the curriculum, we cannot understand how and on what basis it is that some people fail while others pass. The understanding of what is valued is important, as it reveals what knowledge is made accessible. The study was undertaken mainly through the use of interviews to explore the perspectives of academics on what is valued in the Marketing curriculum.

The main research questions were:

1) What kind of knowledge is privileged in the Marketing curriculum?
2) How does the positioning of actors in the field of Marketing education impact on the choice and structure of knowledge privileged in the curriculum?

I interviewed 31 academics from 11 higher education institutions which covered all the public institutions which offer the Marketing diploma. The breadth of the study was partly a recognition of the need to contribute to studies that give a broader overview of issues in education, after an NRF report (Deacon, Osman, & Buchler, 2009) showed that in South Africa there is very little large-scale research to give insight into the national higher education system. The implications of the scale of the study are discussed in more detail in Chapter Four, the methodology chapter.

In this chapter, I briefly outline the rationale for this study by considering four issues. I provide an overview that the South Africa education system suffers from low student retention and high dropout rates. These statistics require strongly theorised educational research to bring about improvements in the system. The second issue I introduce is the problem that much education research has failed to look at the nature of the target knowledge itself; a matter which my methodology ensured I engaged with in detail. The third issue, serving as a rationale for this study, is the general lack of research focused on the diploma in the University of Technology sector (Winberg, 2006). This thesis aimed to provide a small contribution towards such research. The fourth issue discussed in this chapter which serves as a rationale in this study is that Marketing education has received little research attention, and that which exists has been criticised for being knowledge-blind (Arbee, 2012; Rotfeld, 2014; Wooliscroft, 2008).

1.2 System Characterised by Low Success Rates

This study takes place in a system which as a whole is characterised by a large number of students who drop out and a low success rate (Council on Higher Education, 2019; Cross & Carpentier, 2009). The inefficiencies are demonstrated by one measure of success, the throughput rate, which is the number of students who complete a higher education qualification within the minimum duration. The system as a whole experiences low throughput rates which are sometimes as low as 21 in every 100 students completing a three-year diploma in three years (Council on Higher Education, 2019).

In general, diploma students take longer than degree students. For example, the cohort of 2012 was followed from its first graduation in 2014 through to 2017 (Council on Higher Education, 2019). A comparison of the diploma and degree throughput rates is shown on the graphs below (see Figure 1.1 and Figure 1.2). Only 23% graduated in three years for diplomas, while 29% graduated for degrees. The gap was highest for graduations in the fourth year where a cumulative 40% of diploma students graduated compared to a cumulative 47% of degree students. After six years, the total graduates for both degrees and diplomas remained low at 58% and 55% respectively, reflecting a large number of students who had either dropped out or not yet graduated.

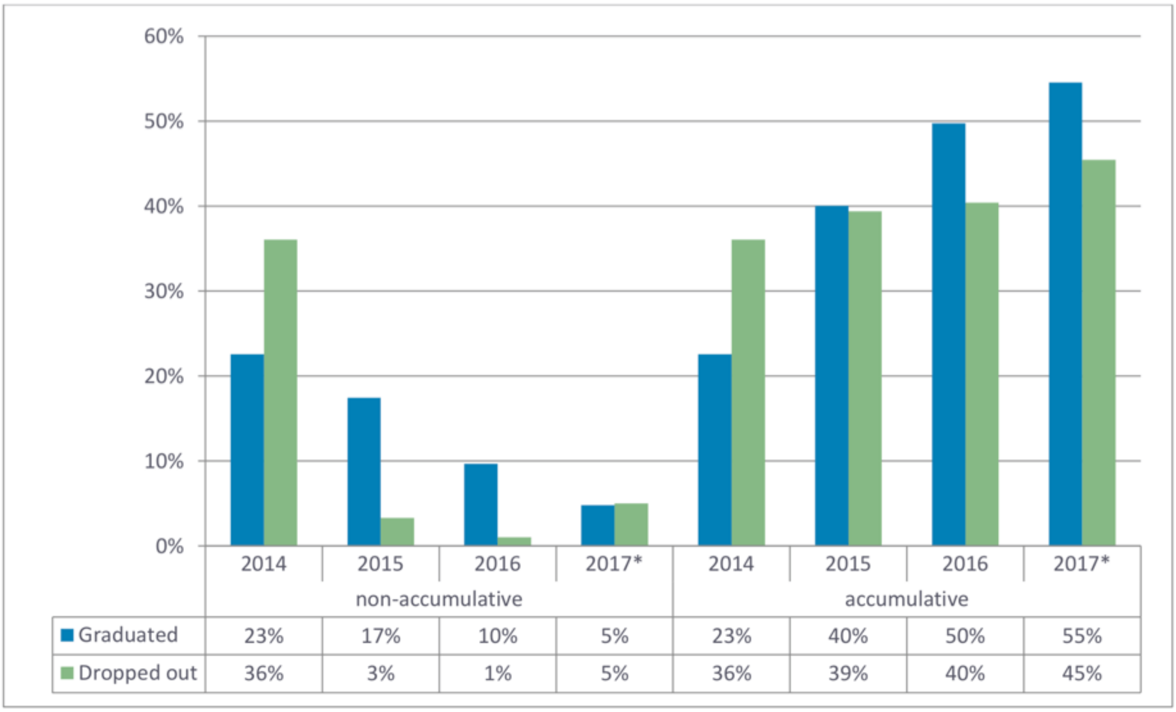

Figure 1.1: Throughput rates for diplomas with first year enrolments in 2012 (excluding UNISA) (Council on Higher Education, 2019 p. 61)

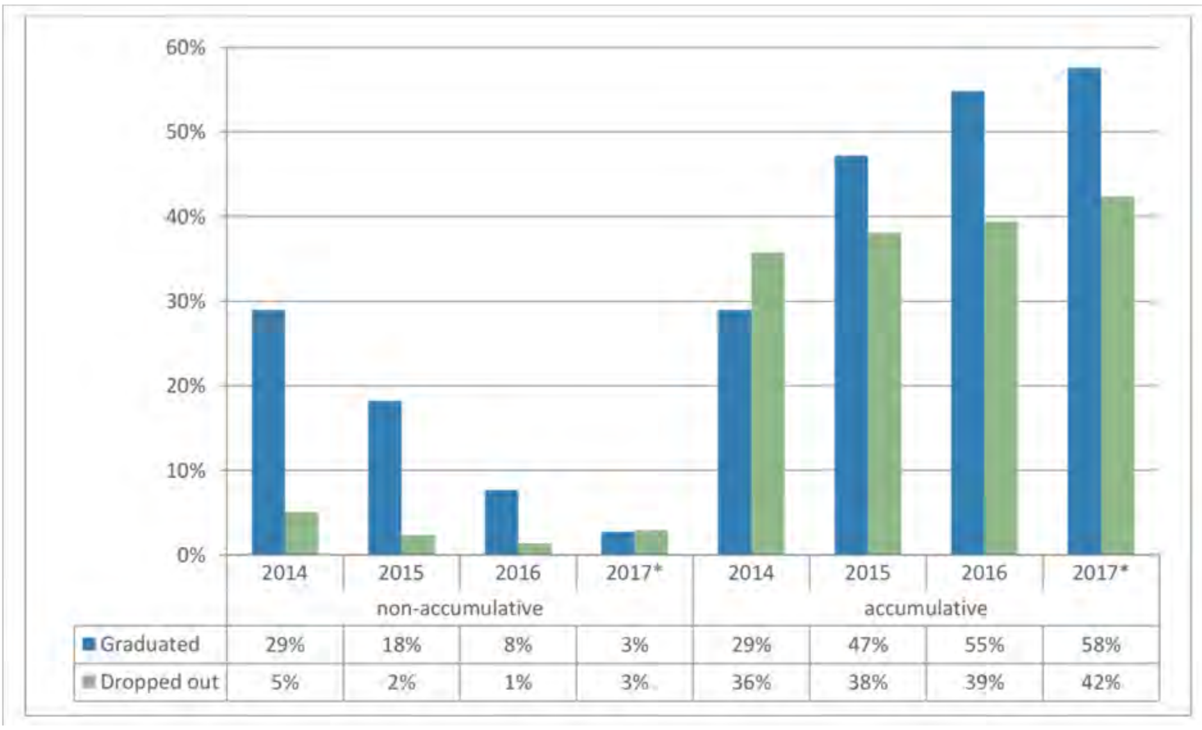

Figure 1.2: Throughput rates for degrees with first year enrolments in 2012 (excluding UNISA) (Council on Higher Education, 2019 p. 62)

Given the delays in completion and high dropout rates, there is a need for research studies to make sense of the impediments as students invest their personal time, family resources, and national taxes which subsidise education. Every student dropout is a human time loss with ethical implications. As a developing country there is a need for South African graduates to complete their studies and contribute to the development of the national economy through sustainable contributions to their communities. Each dropout is an individual student with their own hopes and dreams and these statistics need to be considered in terms of the effects on each of the thousands of students who drop out of the system every year.

The unjust history of South Africa is also reflected in throughput data which shows that both the participation rates and success rates still reflect racial divides, with low success rates mostly affecting Black students (Badsha & Cloete, 2011; Council on Higher Education, 2019). The throughput rates have remained racially skewed, lowest for Black (African) students with only 21% graduating in the fourth year for three year programmes (DHET, 2013c in Moyo, 2018). South African higher education institutions thus continue to reflect continued gross national inequalities which are an extension of the colonial apartheid system (Scott, Yeld, & Hendry, 2007).

Studies which investigate the constraints to success are necessary to reduce inefficiencies in the system and arrest the continuity of the injustices of the past. An efficient higher education system is required for the building of an inclusive national economy which allows social mobility for the majority who remain unjustly excluded from participation in the building of the economy.

1.3 Rationale for a Study that Focuses on Knowledge

Many studies in education have suffered from 'knowledge blindness' (Maton, 2014) in that they looked at the crucial issues of student experience and how the academy often reproduces the inequalities of society but failed to consider the nature of the knowledge being studied (Huang & Chen, 2017; Lizama, 2017; Luckett, 2018). Knowledge blindness means that knowledge is often obscured or overlooked in the study of curricula and thus not seen as an object that can be detailed, complex, ambiguous, or even difficult to be acquired by someone new to a field of study (Silverman, 2011). Knowledge blindness is partly traceable to the entry and subsequent overemphasis in education of ideas from the fields of psychology and sociology.

Approaches drawing from psychology often focus on the processes of learning, teaching, the learning environments, and sociocultural influences on how the mind learns (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000). Such approaches often understand knowledge as what goes into the head, and emphasise generic processes of learning. The main focus is the mind, memory, states of consciousness, and their influences on the process of learning (Lizama, 2017) . The significance is thus on knowing, in other words, how we get to know. In these psychology influenced approaches, the differences in the nature of the knowledge being learned is often obscured.

The discipline of sociology has influenced the attention given to people and power dynamics. By focusing on who is learning and who is teaching, what is being taught and what is being learned tends to be neglected. In these approaches, knowledge is understood as socially constructed and bearing the ideals of its producers who are often characterised as powerful and dominating. The knowledge is shown as entwined with power and therefore arbitrary (Maton, 2014). This view often slides into perpetuating an understanding of knowledge as nothing but socially constructed and thus knowledge is seen as only a reflection of the social positions and social powers of its producers. The sociologically informed approaches tend to neglect knowledge in favour of focusing on who is speaking. Knowledge is also seen as produced by actors and assumed to privilege their interests which are often seen as reducible to their subjective biases, for example social class, gender, ethnicity, religion, region, and sexuality (Maton, 2014). Knowledge as having its own properties and tendencies is often missing from the picture.

The contribution of psychology and sociology are indeed important in education. For example, studies drawing from sociology have highlighted challenges faced by students without a strong schooling background or without home discourses that prepare them for higher education (Gee, 2008; Mgqwashu, 2016). Studies drawing from psychology have also contributed an important understanding of how the mind learns. The contributions from both fields are indeed important in education, however, neither of them reveal knowledge and instead has led to knowledge itself being backgrounded and not seen as an object that is structured and can be a subject of analysis (Boughey, 2012; Maton, 2014).

The argument that there is knowledge blindness in education studies is not to say that there are no theories or models of knowledge. A number of theories and models in education have been developed following key scholarly work; for example, Biglan (1973) categorised knowledges into hard or soft and pure or applied; Kolb (1981) developed types of knowledge based on whether they are abstract or concrete, active or reflective; and Becher (1994) combined typologies to develop a legion of disciplinary tribes including classification by context dependence or context independence, conceptual or contextual, and declarative or procedural.

While these models began to consider knowledge as an object of study, they "embody a segmental form of theorizing" (Huang & Chen, 2017, p. 51) in which knowledge is often divided into either/or binaries and often reduced to the contexts in which it originates with very little potential to be used in newer contexts, thus losing its power (Maton, 2014). While Bernstein's (2000) models of knowledge also use typologies (as will be discussed in detail in Section 3.8) his approach suggested that going beyond the typologies to reveal the organising principles that underpin knowledge practices is very important. Bernstein's approach has inspired a sociology of education which foregrounds knowledge building (Huang & Chen, 2017). If we understand the ways in which organising principles act as mechanisms in the structuring of the curriculum, we are better placed to consider issues of social inclusion and exclusion. Seeing the structure of knowledge as having effects on how a curriculum is designed and implemented provides us with important lenses through which to call for a more just and inclusive education system. This study used a set of such frames (explained in Chapter Three) that enabled a consideration of the knowledge being studied, in this case Marketing.

This study focused on the organising principles of knowledge alongside many other studies in a growing body of work using Legitimation Code Theory (LCT). For example, knowledge structures in curricula have been studies in public management and public administration (Lück, 2014), in accounting (Mkhize, 2015), in courtroom argumentation (Toll & Shi, 2019), and in translanguaging (Karlsson, Larsson, & Jakobsson, 2018). LCT is discussed in detail in Chapter Three. This growing focus on knowledge as a structure addresses the concern about knowledge blindness. Another gap that has regularly been identified in research education in South African is the dearth of research within Universities of Technology. I engage with this gap in the next section.

1.4 Little Research from Universities of Technology

The public higher education system in South Africa is characterised by three main types of universities: the Traditional University, the University of Technology and the Comprehensive University (Department of Education, 2004). The Traditional University is characterised by a focus on theoretical knowledge and a higher enrolment of postgraduate students which enables an additional research focus. It highly values curiosity driven research and the production of new knowledge (Department of Education, 2004). The University of Technology mainly offers programmes with a stronger technological and vocational orientation. It focuses on preparing students for the world of work through offering qualifications directly linked to the job market (Boughey, 2011). Most of the qualifications offered in the Universities of Technology are diplomas. The Comprehensive University offers a combination of qualifications focused on the world of work in line with the Universities of Technology and also the qualifications which resemble those of Traditional Universities.

In South Africa most of the research comes out of Traditional Universities (Council on Higher Education, 2015, 2016) with only one out of 16 Traditional University with a research output below 0.5 per academic and the highest 1.68 per academic as shown in Figure 1.3 on the following page (Council on Higher Education, 2019). For Universities of Technology the current highest research output is 0.45 per academic (Council on Higher Education, 2019). It is therefore not surprising that most of the research that has looked at higher education focused on experiences within Traditional Universities and disciplines that are offered within such institutions. Given the distinct role that Universities of Technology are allocated in the sector, it is important that we have a detailed research-based understanding of the educational practices that occur within them.

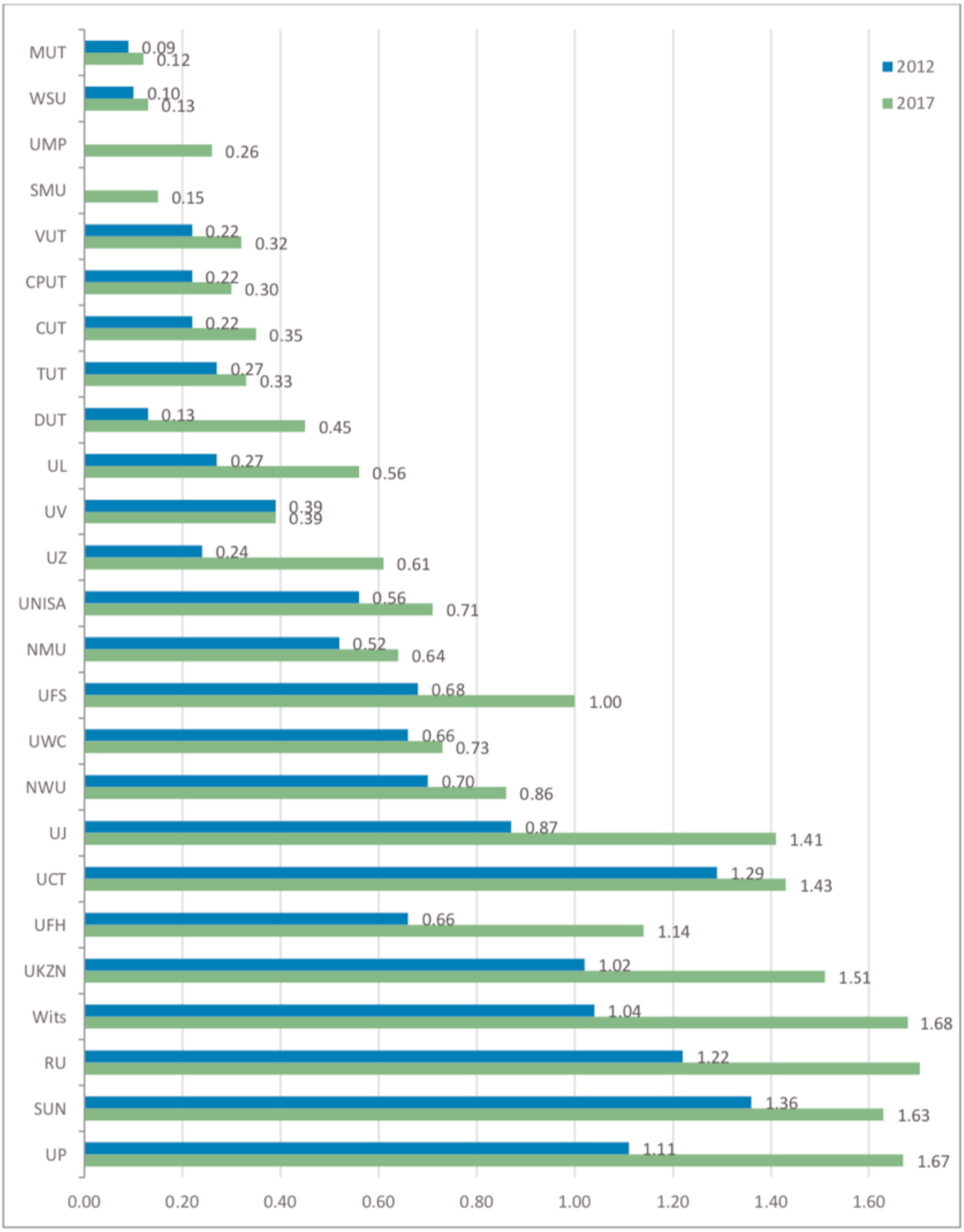

Figure 1.3: Research output units per academic by institution for 2012 and 2017 (Council on Higher Education, 2019 p. 98)

The role of Universities of Technology is articulated as "the application of scientific principles to practical problems, and the preparation of persons for the practice, promotion and transfer of technology within a particular occupation or industry" (Kraak, 2006, p. 137). The Universities of Technology were envisaged to develop excellence in teaching and learning for "the establishment of appropriate technological innovation and technological transfer strategies, systems, incentive schemes, support services and infrastructure" (du Pré, 2009, p. 44). The Universities of Technology are argued to be a distinct institutional type from Traditional Universities, as their focus is on providing the teaching of applied knowledge (Shay, 2016; Winberg, 2006). They are expected to be strongly oriented towards applied knowledge for a practical working environment and most suited to achieve "a particular mission to support regional development and regional innovation systems" (Department of Education, 2004, p. 12). The instructional programmes are envisaged to combine theoretical and practical education. Through a close collaboration with business and industry partners they are further expected to offer a curriculum focused on practice and project work (Department of Education, 2004). The greater part of the purpose of Universities of Technology is framed as to put into practice existing knowledge and technology. The positioning of Universities of Technology in terms of their identities and offerings is, however, still not settled as they have not met the envisaged strong orientation towards applied knowledges. Experts have warned that if they drift towards TUs and this mandate is not served, it would result in several undesirable educational and economic consequences (Kraak, 2006).

The Marketing diploma is offered over three years in the Universities of Technology and in Comprehensive Universities, yet most of the research in the higher education sector is produced in Traditional Universities. While the research has covered aspects of curriculum, teaching, and learning, it tends to be about the disciplines as they are in the Traditional Universities and about teaching and learning issues pertinent to them. There is need for research from diploma awarding institutions like Universities of Technology and Comprehensive Universities. While the Marketing diploma is mainly offered in public institutions, that is in six Universities of Technology and four Comprehensive Universities, this study also included a private higher education institution, the IMM[1], which also offers a Marketing diploma and trains a significant number of professionals in Marketing (Naidoo & Naidoo, 2011). The IMM is an open and distance private higher education institution and is one of many private higher education institutions which are smaller in student number enrolment and tend to offer courses in niche

[1] IMM is an institute formerly known as the Institute of Marketing Management; it still predominantly offers Marketing related qualifications.

areas, mostly in commerce. Private higher education is discussed in more detail in Chapter Two, Section 2.2.4.

The literature has a number of academics in South Africa calling for better theorised accounts of applied knowledge (Garraway, 2016; Winberg, Engel-hills, Garraway, & Jacobs, 2013). The current situation is that we do not have good theories of applied knowledge; most practices are based on unhelpful common sense understandings raising a need for more theoretically informed positions to develop the knowledges required to fulfil the role of Universities of Technology (Winberg et al., 2013). If we do not have a strong understanding of applied knowledge, then the Universities of Technology can never fulfil the mandate of providing economic growth which is dependent on better theorised accounts of applied knowledge.

The skewed research therefore means there is very little research on applied knowledge as it is offered in the University of Technology sector. While the data on the need for applied research is from South Africa, this is also true internationally where we do not have enough research on vocationally focused education (Wheelahan, 2007a). This study provides a small contribution towards this focus.

1.5 The Field of Marketing Education is Under-Researched

It is worthwhile looking at such a programme like Marketing as most research in education in South Africa is on degree programmes in Traditional Universities and there is not enough research on diploma programmes offered in the University of Technology and Comprehensive University sector (Shay, 2016; Winberg, 2006). The nature of Marketing as a relatively new field of practice has been researched to some extent, but the nature of Marketing as a field of study has been much less researched and such fields need our consideration (Muller, 2009).

The field of Marketing is relatively young and this is shown by the fact that journals dedicated to Marketing only emerged in the 1930s, for example the *American Marketing Journal* in 1934, *The National Marketing Review* in 1935 (Witkowski & Jones, 2008), and the *Journal of Marketing* in 1936 (Baumgartner & Pieters, 2003). However, issues relating to Marketing were published in other related journals earlier, for example in the *Harvard Business Review* which was established in 1920, the *Journal of Retailing* (1925), and the *Journal of Business* (1928) (Baumgartner & Pieters, 2003). These journals covered issues dedicated to Marketing more broadly.

Currently, Marketing also has journals which are more scholarly, dedicated more to Marketing education and less on Marketing practice. Issues more pertinent to education have been covered in, for example, the *Journal of Historical Research in Marketing* (JHRM) which has content which covers specific subareas of Marketing – for example in specific regions like Advertising in Russia (Zakharov, Leontyeva, & Leontyev, 2019), and Advertising in Germany (Hesse & Lurie, 2019).

Other journals more dedicated to education include the *Journal of Marketing Education* (JME) established in 1979, the *Marketing Education Review* (MER) which was founded in 1991 and *Journal for the Advancement of Marketing Education* (JAME) founded in 2001. These journals contribute important issues in the field of Marketing education, for example covering broad issues like students' perception of service quality as enhancing the perceived quality of higher education programmes (Darawong & Sandmaung, 2019), a review of the skills that graduates believe they acquire (Hartley, Routon, & Torres, 2019), and the performance of graduates in entry level positions (DeLong & Elbeck, 2018). Some articles have covered issues on pedagogy e.g. one article covered the flipped classroom, innovation teaching, and the use of technology (Green, 2015). Another article covered 'A Decade of Scholarship in Marketing Education' (Abernethy & Padgett, 2011) and used frequency of publication in two main Marketing journals as a measure of productive scholarship. The concepts covered are important, however, they do not focus on what it is that is being produced – Marketing knowledge as an object of study.

Internal critics of Marketing as a field of study have indicated that the curriculum is not strong, partly because there is no evidence of good use of the literature that exists in the research. The field of Marketing has been characterised as suffering from amnesia, with literature seen as reinventing words and not sufficiently building on existing knowledge cumulatively (Wooliscroft, 2008). The concerns in the growth of the field of Marketing will be discussed more in Chapter Two, Section 2.2.4. This study provides a contribution towards an understanding of Marketing as a field of education with a focus on knowledge.

My years of experience within Marketing education, coupled with my deep concerns for social justice in an unequal society, provided a personal driving force for this PhD. But a PhD thesis needs to be more than a personal project and the four issues briefly outlined above collectively provided the rationale for this study. I now conclude this first chapter by providing a brief overview of the structure of the thesis.

1.6 Overview of the Thesis

This thesis is presented in eight chapters. The first chapter gave the background and overview of the study. It started with my own experience of unequal success and failure rates of students. It also revealed the broad system inefficiencies shown through lower competition rates. The chapter acknowledged the increasing research in higher education but pointed out a number of issues which included the breadth, focus, origin, and type of research. Issues of breadth are that most of the research has been on a small scale and there is a lack of research that has looked at issues of education at a broader systemic level. A lot of research has covered many important issues in higher education but has rarely focused on knowledge. Most research originated from Traditional Universities and therefore served its own interest, thus causing an oversight of research on applied knowledges typical of Universities of Technology. Within Marketing, these challenges are coupled with a scarcity of research which builds up knowledge cumulatively in the field. This study makes a small contribution towards these issues and knowledge-focused research in the field of Marketing.

The second chapter positions the study in a University of Technology, a new type of university emerging from a history of vocational training. The chapter discusses the University of Technology as a part of the South African higher education system and the impact of the history of the Universities of Technology convenor system on curriculum development. Chapter Two also gives a review of literature on the field of Marketing.

The third chapter focuses on the philosophical and theoretical frameworks. It begins by arguing for the need for an explicit philosophical position and cautions against default implicit philosophical positions, which if not reflected on, may affect a researcher's awareness of their limitations. The chapter argues for critical realism as a more balanced philosophical underpinning for this study. It further introduces a theoretical framework, Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) and a number of its conceptual tools which will be enacted in the analysis of what is valued in the Marketing curriculum.

The fourth chapter is a discussion of the methodology. It describes the manner in which data was collected and analysed to allow the reader a critical scrutinisation of the inferences that I drew from the data. It discusses a face-to-face pilot interview, issues of validity, and reliability in qualitative research. The chapter also discusses the process of driving over 5,000 km to collect face-to-face interviews from 11 institutions across South African higher education institutions. The chapter also reveals the anxiety after collecting the data that it may not be of any value. However, the chapter also shows how following a systematic data analysis process of coding and enacting the theoretical framework, thanks to supervisor guidance, allowed the data to speak and inferences to be drawn. The chapter also discusses wrestling with parts of the conceptual tools, in particular the social plane.

The fifth chapter is the first of three data analysis chapters. It focuses on the organisation of knowledges in the Marketing curriculum. In order to fully analyse the Marketing curriculum, the chapter introduces Bernstein's modes of organising knowledges as an additional conceptual framework. This chapter reveals that Marketing is constituted, in Bernstein's terms, as a region which is characteristically two-faced. The regions' internal focus is to draw knowledges from a variety of disciplines and fields and organise these for the purposes of serving knowledge needs external to where Marketing is studied, often in the world of work. The chapter engages with the challenging nature of a region, and the difficulty of balancing its two demanding faces. It also reveals that this difficulty, combined with the expectation to teach knowledge for practice, which is not as well theorised, may lead to a region inclined towards genericism. The findings show that a field with a weaker epistemic spine may lead to a weakening theoretical base and therefore, a weaker ability to develop graduates with stable identities and an ability to contribute meaningfully as citizens.

The sixth chapter enacts LCT tools which are discussed in detail in chapter three like the specialisation plane to find out what is legitimated in Marketing. It particularly focuses on the epistemic relations and thus introduces the semantic plane as an additional conceptual framework to reveal the nature of knowledge and the degree to which it relates to specific contexts or the degree to which it relates to theoretical concepts. The chapter reveals that the field of Marketing has a stronger emphasis on the four Ps framework (product, price, place, and promotion) but it also has additional knowledges reflecting the broad nature of the field. It also shows that the field values knowing more knowledges relevant to specific contexts reflective of the polarised world of work it serves, and that there is very little engagement with theoretical density or abstraction. The chapter argues that the structure of knowledge shown in the data does not give students access to a stronger more powerful disciplinary lens which enables a more meaningful engagement with an increasingly complex world.

The seventh chapter has the most density of all the findings in this study. It reveals that who one is, or dispositions, are valued more in Marketing than what one knows. The chapter introduces the social plane as the conceptual framework for focusing on the social relations component of the specialisation plane. The chapter also discusses the need to make a temporary alteration on the social plane which was necessary to keep a coherent language with the data. The chapter also shows a somewhat bifurcation of the codes used for entry into the field and for learning in the field. To be enrolled for Marketing, the students are expected to already hold the privileged subjective relations like social class and language proficiency; they are also expected to have already interacted with appropriate people and structures to prepare them for Marketing. However, as seen in the data, once enrolled the students are seen as lacking in the prerequisite subjective relations and are also shown to not have had the requisite interaction with the appropriate persons and systems. There is very little demonstration that anything can be done for the students. The chapter thus concludes that in Marketing, you either have it or you don't.

The eighth chapter is the concluding chapter. It illustrates the cyclical nature or the interdependence of the findings in the three previous chapters. The eighth chapter demonstrates that a region inclined towards genericism is a result of a number of factors like the pressure of marketisation on the curriculum, the history of the diploma and the University of Technology, and the weaker focus on knowledge. These factors create graduates who are less grounded, and as they become academics are less likely themselves to resist pressure from marketisation especially as they also have a weaker epistemic spine. The region inclined to genericism, itself can be linked to valuing more context-based knowledges and lesser abstract knowledges or the developments of a strong disciplinary system of meaning. It thus makes possible a curriculum which contributes to a focus on disposition, and the development of a graduate with a weak identity – one who can plug into ever changing trends and fads and does not develop their own identity or a disciplinary grounding. The graduate thus has a disposable identity that allows neither growth nor a meaningful engagement with the world. The chapter shows that such an education raises social justice issues as graduates are unable to break out of social class confines. Generic fields are mostly taken up by the lower social classes and do not facilitate moving out and up from the ills of lower social classes.

Chapter Two: Institutional Differentiation and the Field of Marketing

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses institutional differentiation and the field of Marketing which are important issues for understanding the context of this study.

The first part of this chapter focuses on institutional differentiation with a particular look at the nature of the institutions, that is Universities of Technology and Comprehensive Universities (CUs), which offer the Marketing diploma programme. It includes a brief historical overview of institutional differentiation both globally and locally. This chapter engages with the concept of institutional differentiation for the purpose of understanding how the issues currently impacting the curriculum have emerged over time.

The second part discusses the field of Marketing broadly as a field of practice and more specifically as a field of study. The understanding of both institutional differentiation and the field of Marketing are key to understanding the issues that impact on the nature of the curriculum and to understanding issues surrounding who succeeds, how they succeed, who fails, who drops out, and why they do not succeed.

2.2 Institutional Differentiation and its Conceptualisations

Institutional differentiation is the categorisation of institutions to understand their differences (Triventi, 2014). It is sometimes referred to as institutional diversity (Reichert, 2009) and often portrays the current state of an institution but can be understood through reflecting on the institution’s historic development over time, for example the original construction, historical funding, programme qualification mix, and institutional processes (Croxford & Raffe, 2014; Teixeira, Rocha, Biscaia, & Cardoso, 2014; Triventi, 2014). Institutional differentiation can also be understood through institutional purpose which is usually reflected in the mission, vision, aims, and academic goals of institutions (Boughey, 2011). However, institutional purpose statements are usually futuristic i.e. reflecting the ambition of the institution and its projected development trajectory. While institutions may craft unique purpose statements at the time of construction, the institution’s characteristics emerge from interactions between itself and external stakeholders like the state, students and their families, the labour market, and the schooling system (Triventi, 2014).

Institutional differentiation is an international imperative which is often framed to be a 'good thing'. It is envisaged as desirable across the world and a necessary means of responding to both the increasing demand for higher education and to provide a variety of programmes to fulfil a new role for universities to produce knowledgeable graduates for economic growth. Institutional differentiation can partly be linked to a global shift which took place in the 1980s and 1990s. From this shift the notion of nation states as competing economies emerged (Howlett, 2015). The competition between nation states required universities to respond within the knowledge economy (Hüther & Krücken, 2016). Countries were understood as needing to be transformed into information societies to support a knowledge economy in which knowledge would be a competitive advantage for a nation state to prosper amongst competing post-industrial manufacturing economies (Bano & Taylor, 2015).

In knowledge economies, higher education qualifications were perceived to symbolise better opportunities, first for individuals and then for the nation state. The logic is that when individuals get an education they will get jobs and prosper and the individual prosperity is understood to feed into national prosperity through innovation which creates more jobs and subsequently more people paying taxes (Allais, 2014; Brown, Lauder, & Ashton, 2011).

To prosper in a knowledge society, individuals thus increase the demand for higher education spaces putting pressure on higher education systems to expand. Universities respond to the pressure by seeking to reposition themselves as relevant, taking complex roles to fulfil a diverse set of purposes of an education (Hüther & Krücken, 2016). The university has had to reposition itself including for example an emphasis on skills, interdisciplinarity, and a focus on an education "to produce a greater pool of qualified workers for the knowledge economy, business innovation, knowledge transfer and continuing professional development" (Reichert, 2009, p. 8).

A combination of the need to respond to an increasing demand for higher education and the variation in the nature of knowledge required, led to the emergence of different kinds and forms of both institutions and programmes. The differences within and between higher education institutions is envisaged as necessary as no one university can serve all the diverse purposes of higher education institutions (Codling & Meek, 2014). Institutional differentiation has been argued to be a tool which can "open up access to students from different educational backgrounds, allow for multiple entry and exit points, respond more effectively to labour markets, and permit the crucial combination of mass and elite higher education on which all countries depend" (Gamble, 2013, p. 210). A differentiated higher education system is thus expected to open up various access routes and have a good articulation structure allowing movement of both academics and students between institutions e.g. from university to college and from college to university (Jones & Skolnik, 2009; Muller, 2009). While institutions may benefit from being differentiated, Boughey (2011) argued that autonomy should allow institutions to identify their own purpose and mission which would then inform students' decisions about where to enroll. She further argued that teaching and learning should reflect institutional type and that this would lead to a more efficient higher education system (Boughey, 2011).

While differentiation is seen as desirable for the many reasons given above, there are contestations and hindrances to achieving the desired outcomes from institutional differentiation.

2.2.1 Distinction between Traditional and Applied institutions

In most regions across the world and also in South Africa, the higher education system is understood to take the form of a division constituting two main types of institutions, one which is older, more established, often referred to as traditional, focusing on formative education, and another with newer institutions focusing on practical knowledges (Coleman & Tuck, 2019; Muller, 2008).

The focus of programmes in the first type, the Traditional Universities is typically "on general formative education with a theoretical orientation" (DoE, 2004, p. 24). These institutions focus on the knowledge that is more explicitly conceptual than contextual. Traditional Universities have a stronger inclination towards disciplinarity and seek to induct students into a theoretical system of meaning which forms the basis of understanding the repository of knowledges in a field. Disciplines enable the new generation of scholars to learn from their intellectual ancestors (Freebody, Maton, & Martin, 2008). With a firm theoretical underpinning, Traditional Universities can also fulfil the mandate to undertake both basic blue-sky research and applied research (Kraak, 2006). Theoretical knowledge enables those steeped in it to understand the processes of knowledge creation and be able to contribute to the continuation of its revision and change.

On the other hand, newer institutions are leaning towards what is often referred to as practical knowledges, focusing on what needs to be done in the world of work. Such institutions, for example the Fachhochschulen (universities of applied sciences) in Germany, are characterised as more vocational and emphasise the applicability of knowledge (Schindler & Reimer, 2010). While the contextual focus could in theory bring with it a conceptual coherence allowing for an equally strong knowledge base, there are many concerns that the practical focus of knowledge in such institutions is at times at the cost of the kind of abstracted knowledge that can allow one to "think the unthinkable and the not-yet-thought" (Wheelahan, 2007a, p. 297), an issue to which I return later.

In most education systems these distinctions are legally governed by a series of policies that usually divide institutions into universities and universities of applied science (Lepori, Huisman, & Seeber, 2014). In the Portuguese education system, their version of new universities are called Polytechnics; a similar name was used in the UK but was abolished in 1992 (Lepori et al., 2014) although the informal nomenclature 'new' and 'old' universities in the UK maintains much of the divide. In South Africa, Technikons (discussed in Section 2.2.3.2) resembled the British Polytechnics. The Technikons were converted into universities, which can be characterised as new universities, in a restructuring of the higher education system which is discussed in Section 2.2.4 below.

The mandate of non-traditional universities vary around the world but can be seen to be somewhat different from that of Traditional Universities, and includes a focus on two areas which are applied 'research and development' and knowledge transfer (Lepori et al., 2014). Under a differentiated higher education system the mandate of most new universities is often framed as technical and concentrates on undergraduate studies, offering different types of learning experiences and different pathways into careers (Jones & Skolnik, 2009). Institutions designated to offer such undergraduate qualifications are expected to specialise in technology-based programmes with a focus on contributing towards industry through applied research activities. The lecturers in such institutions ideally develop expertise through interactions with industry, preparing students for industry and conducting research which offers contributions which are situational and contextual (Jones & Skolnik, 2009).

The mandate of new universities in most higher education systems thus requires that the institutions offer a wide variety of career-oriented education and training. Such new institutions are presumed to better prepare students for the world of work and to better meet the needs of industry; however, an irony arises as their graduates typically earn lower salaries than graduates from Traditional Universities (Freebody, 2006; Schindler & Reimer, 2010).

2.2.2 Hindrances to fruitful institutional differentiation

Institutional differentiation is complex which sometimes means that many aspects argued earlier to be desirable and good are not always realised. Differentiation can lead to hierarchies of status whereby some institutions are deemed superior to others. This plays out in multiple ways.

The new universities are often understood to be "'teaching universities' which focus more on teaching than research" (UNESCO, 2014, p. 32). However, in higher education, teaching is often regarded as having a lower status than research and conducting research is an important component of the development of academics towards both PhDs and becoming respected professors (Nyamapfene, 2018; Skelton, 2012); therefore, this teaching versus research distinction in institutional types has implications for both status and staffing.

The drift towards the mimicry of Traditional Universities often leads to 'mission stretch' in which the resources of an institution are stretched too thinly in an attempt to serve a wide range of missions (Reichert, 2009). Most new universities are often not well resourced to provide the type of programmes or the level of research offered by the more established universities. The mimicry often causes a drift from the original mission with many newer universities abandoning their focus on applied knowledge towards a conceptual curriculum and blue-sky research. However most new universities cannot achieve the target standards and thus the drift often ends up being detrimental to the intermediate and high level practical knowledges causing a skills shortage in the country (Muller, 2008).

Naidoo and Naidoo (2011) have argued that to achieve an effective institutional differentiation, higher education systems require both a strong coordination at system level and a differentiation of missions and programmes at institutional level. They further emphasised that the components of the higher education system need to be coordinated and mandated to be different from each other for an effective system to exist (Naidoo & Naidoo, 2011). The objectives of mission differentiation have been identified to include increasing "the legitimacy of the system, to reduce duplication and concentrate resources in programmatic areas of identified strength, and to provide more academic opportunities for high performing students" (Bastedo & Gumport, 2003, p. 354). The objectives, however, often do not address the competing demands of egalitarianism and competitive excellence. Instead they often reproduce inequalities when students from backgrounds that prepare them well for research universities end up with better opportunities than those whose backgrounds do not prepare them as well. Students from excluded backgrounds end up in colleges with a less comprehensive coverage of the disciplines which are necessary to enable social mobility (Wheelahan, 2009). Such unexamined consequences of the objectives of differentiation have often involved an unjust stratification of students.

While in principle a differentiated system is portrayed as opening access, in practice, students who begin their studies in Applied Universities have been found to be less likely to progress to Traditional Universities for further qualifications (Bastedo & Gumport, 2003). While also advocating for open articulation, academics have also acknowledged that more opportunities are needed for articulation between institutional types (Jones & Skolnik, 2009) as evidence that the envisaged outcomes of institutional differentiation remain largely not achieved.

Around the world, hierarchies of institutional status have curtailed the development of the kind of differentiation that genuinely addresses social stratification, and in South Africa, attaining a positive differentiation faces a particularly complex burden.

2.2.3 The elephant in the room and two forms of differentiation

At the global level institutional differentiation is often portrayed as desirable, yet in practice, its problematic outcomes are also visible. The problematic nature of institutional differentiation around the world is that it also leads to status hierarchies of higher education institutions.

In South Africa, the general repulsion on institutional differentiation is not only the same as the international repulsion caused by status hierarchy, it is exacerbated by differentiation being fundamental to apartheid higher education policy. Institutional differentiation thus carries the weight and burden of the proverbial elephant in the room. It is something huge and enormous yet there seems to be no engagement with issues surrounding it. Institutional differentiation is often ignored and many pretend it is not there due to the fact that it requires having to acknowledge that differentiation served the country's evil ends in the past (Department of Education, 2004).

The racial differentiation has left a legacy on which a lot of energies are spent in an attempt to undo the past (Cooper, 2015; Mzangwa, 2019; Ramohai, 2018)**.** Differentiation has thus remained particularly problematic and carries with it so much baggage, to the extent that to many South Africans differentiation means racism and selective privilege. Differentiation under apartheid was mainly by race, but also by the distinction between universities and Technikons (Bunting, 2006; Kraak, 2006; Naidoo & Naidoo, 2011). I now consider each form of differentiation in turn.

2.2.3.1 Racialised differentiation

In the first form of differentiation under apartheid, institutional differentiation was through racial domination which meant that particular universities in South African were designated to produce labour for the apartheid public administration, while others served as Traditional Universities providing access to knowledge and networks for the privileged.

Institutional differentiation included limitations on the kind of programmes that could be offered. The universities for Black people were designed to serve the apartheid state; they provided doctors, nurses, teachers, police, and public administrators to run Bantustans and various apartheid mechanisms like the 'dompass[2]' system.

> Historically the apartheid higher education system was differentiated and diversified along lines of 'ethnicity' and geographical location and language, resulting in benefiting in various ways the historically white institutions - mostly urban based, and disadvantaging the historically black institutions - mostly rural based. (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2014, p. 3)

A major influencing logic of a racialised institutional differentiation in South Africa was that of Verwoerd, the 'architect of apartheid' who engineered the systematic exclusion of Black Africans from meaningful engagement with knowledge and ideas:

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[2] The dompass (or dompas) was a passbook which was introduced in 1952 when the pass laws were modified. The dompass laws specified that all Black Africans had to carry the passbook everywhere and at all times. The passbook contained comprehensive information including permission from government to be in a particular part of the country, personal details of employment, employer reports on worker performance, and behaviour.

> When I have control of Native education, I will reform it so that Natives will be taught from childhood to realise that equality with Europeans is not for them. … People who believe in equality are not desirable teachers for Natives. … There is no place for [the Bantu] in the European community above the level of certain forms of labour. ... Education must train people in accordance with their opportunities in life, according to the sphere in which they live. (Verwoerd, 1954:1)

For the Black majority, the education system therefore reflects a history and ethos that served as a structural and cultural mechanism to constrain or at best only partially enable access to knowledge. Such an unjust education system could not prepare people for the type of critical thinking expected in higher education.

Institutional differentiation was also orchestrated through the funding system. Universities for Black people were grossly underfunded (Bunting, 2006). Most of the universities for Africans were geographically located in the rural areas as these institutions were built to serve particular segments of the population (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2014a). State intervention was rife. State control was enforced, and Black universities were often instructed to fire a member of staff who was seen to be causing trouble. The state also controlled who the vice chancellors were and who occupied key positions, in particular in the universities for Black people.

The injustices from the apartheid institutional differentiation are not just in the past, they are still evident today. This legacy of institutional differentiation continues to have an enormous effect, not only on the nature of the institutions but also on the general feeling about differentiation in South Africa. The South African history of apartheid thus exacerbates the general repulsion around institution differentiation.

2.2.3.2 Technikons within South Africa's binary divide

In the second form, institutional differentiation was based on a binary divide between Traditional Universities on one hand and Technikons and tertiary colleges on the other, which emerged after the Van Wyk de Vries Commission of Inquiry into Universities in 1974 (du Pré, 2009; Johnson, Louw, & Smit, 2010; Kraak, 2006). The two types of institutions did not offer nuanced multiple options and had no multiple niche areas that are expected in an ideal differentiation higher education system. The two institutional types were set up as a binary with no meeting points between them.

The Van Wyk de Vries Commission portrayed an understanding of science and technology as distinct (Kraak, 2006; Nupen, 1974). The commission designated universities to focus on research and teaching of fundamental principles of science for the purpose of providing high-level manpower. Universities were supposed to focus on the induction of "students into the canonical principles of disciplinary-based sciences via bachelor's, master's and doctor's degree programmes" (Kraak, 2006, p. 137). Science was thus framed as centred on research for the generation of new knowledges and was the reserve of universities under apartheid.

Technology was understood as the application of knowledge and was to be studied in Technikons. The Technikons were expected to focus less on knowledge itself and be less concerned "with abstract thinking and scientific or scholarly approaches to knowledge" (Bunting, 2006, p. 37). The type of education offered in Technikons was very instrumentalist, very limited, and designed to be limiting (Bunting, 2006). The mandate of Technikons was to focus on technology which was understood as "the application of scientific principles to practical problems, and the preparation of persons for the practice, promotion and transfer of technology within a particular occupation or industry" (Kraak, 2006, p. 37). Similarly, the tertiary colleges provided vocational training for semi-professional occupations like nurses, the police, farmers, and teachers. Universities for Black people equally faced a great limitation on the levels of programmes they could offer; they were allowed to offer very little postgraduate education, faced a restriction on research, and the censorship of certain books.

There were Technikons for Black (African, Coloured, and Indian) people and Technikons for White people. The Technikons can therefore also be differentiated into historically White and historically Black institutions.

During apartheid, the Technikons encountered similar state control to the historically Black universities, while the historically White universities had far more freedom. The historically White universities had freedom over staffing, governance, structure, and the nature of the curriculum, while the Technikon sector had government intervention in the hiring of key positions and through the selection of what programmes could be offered and how they were curriculated.

The development of the Technikons mostly occurred in the late 1970s through an upgrade of the Colleges for Advanced Technical Education. For example, Vaal Triangle College for Advanced Technical Education was renamed Vaal Triangle Technikon in 1979 (Council on

Higher Education, 2007). Technikons were classified as tertiary level institutions and their role was to develop person-power for promoting and practicing technology and to prepare people for particular occupations in industry and orientate them toward practice, promotion, and transfer of knowledge (SA DoE, 1997). Technikons were seen as institutions responsible for developing 'skilled personnel' by providing education for work in line with the economic view to the purpose of education (Kraak, 2006).

Institutions were circumscribed to perform under the rigid institutional divides of 'science' and 'technology' from the 1980s. However, the division seems to have been adopted and was evident in the position of the Committee of Technikon Principals (2002) which indicated that the purpose of Technikons was to offer a career focused and 'hands-on' education, based on knowledge immediately applicable in the workplaces. The education was employer centred and expected to support entrepreneurial activities and economic growth. Technikons thus trained people to acquire 'intermediate skills', and the institutions were not entitled to offer postgraduate qualifications (S. McKenna & Powell, 2009). Technikon graduates therefore did not have a ready academic path to facilitate moving beyond their functional role in industry.

While the apartheid policy provided for 'separate but equal' qualifications between universities and Technikons, the Technikons have historically been perceived to offer lower level qualifications on the status hierarchy of programmes and were thus not positioned to produce graduates who would perform at the level of those from Traditional Universities. Bunting (2006, p. 47) illustrated the position of the Technikons:

> The historically white technikons were highly instrumentalist as far as knowledge was concerned. These institutions had no intellectual agenda other than that of offering vocational training programmes to young white South Africans. They took themselves to be training the future 'middle managers' and 'technologists' for business and industry. They undertook little research and offered little by way of postgraduate training.

In essence, Technikons were seen as specialising in the provision of two-year certificates and three-year diplomas (S. McKenna & Powell, 2009). The Marketing diploma was one of these diplomas and the nature of the curriculum was influenced by the mandate of the technology policy.

The curricula of programmes in Technikons were developed under the convenor system in which industry specialists through advisory committees assisted in the selection and structuring of knowledges and skills (du Pré, 2009; Kraak, 2006). The convenor system was established by the Committee for Technikon Principals as a mechanism to reduce control and the lengthy process of programme accreditation from the South African Department of Education (Cooke, Naidoo, & Sattar, 2010) but it continued the oversight by the state of what was taught. A department in a single institution bore the responsibility to develop and distribute curriculum materials. The centralisation allowed for a national diploma which was scrutinised by the state prior to their approval. It was a means of state control over the curriculum to ensure it met the state ordained purpose of such institutions. The apartheid state also sought to ensure that the curriculum did not include controversial or provocative content that might result in the development of diplomates who would challenge the injustices in the country.

While the convenor system allowed all institutions to comment on the development of the curriculum in theory, the practice was that a single institution dominated the process which was generally bureaucratic and highly technicist (S. McKenna & Powell, 2009). In the Technikons, the development of the curriculum was understood as a duty and prerogative of the expert (Andreotti, 2013) and the Technikon lecturer seen to be reduced to deliver the 'immutable truths' developed by 'the expert'. The Technikon curriculum developed through the convenorship system, was seen as generic, context-free, non-problematic, and yet largely structured in a manner that lacked cultural sensitivity due to the dominant, albeit tacit, view that it was also value-free (Tabulawa, 2013a). The curriculum was presented as being beyond questioning and ignored the premise that "teaching is a moral and ethical activity that is context-dependent" and that it is "informed by knowledge, values, beliefs and justifications" (Tabulawa, 2013, p. 3). At the curriculum level there were therefore no efforts made to align the knowledges of the national diplomas with the needs of the communities the learners came from. The South African Technikon education was characterised by technicism.

> The iron cage of one-dimensional technicist insistence on one set of content selected, one sequence of moving though it elaborated, one pace of getting through its steps demanded, and one way of assessing it dictated. (Pinar, 2010, p. 61)

The role of the educator was barely considered in the convenorship system with the assumption that their industry experience prepared them for teaching. They were not trained to "negotiate the complex space between initial learner ignorance and a final outcome" (Pinar, 2010, p. 61). The technicist approach has also been described as narrow and a counter-productive view to education (Scott, Yeld, & Hendry, 2007). It is contrasted with views that acknowledge the complex interrelation between research, teaching, and social responsibility. Given the technicist approach to education in which curriculum development was confined to a single institution, most Technikon lecturers would not have had the opportunity to learn about curriculum development.

Over and above the centralised curriculum development process of the convenorship system, the Technikons also had the Certification Council for Technikon Education (SERTEC[3]) as another mechanism of state control (Cooke et al., 2010; du Pré, 2009). SERTEC was a mechanism for controlling what got taught and how it got taught; it also extended to programme accreditation meaning that it was also a mechanism to make sure that all new programmes were appropriate in the eyes of the state. While Technikons had quality assurance processes, Traditional Universities at the time were left to undertake their own quality assurance. The Traditional Universities were autonomous and thus crafted their own measures and standards of quality and had control over which programmes they should or should not offer.

In 1993, Technikons were for the first time allowed to offer postgraduate qualifications (S. McKenna & Powell, 2009). Lecturers were expected to improve their qualifications marking a change from valuing their industry experience to valuing academic qualifications. The offering of postgraduate programmes was expected to support the reconceptualised role of Technikons which included a new research role of conducting applied research. Applied research was understood as research that would be readily commercialised by industry partners. Even with the new research role after the new Technikons mandate included degree awarding status, the purpose of education remained narrowly defined for the benefit of industry (Cooke et al., 2010). The narrow framing of education is opposed to the broader role of education to equip graduates to think more broadly about life, including sometimes being critical of the role of industry in advancing the human condition.

Technikons, however, faced structural problems since they were not equipped to offer research-based programmes. The recruitment of lecturers at Technikons had historically not required master's and doctoral degrees which are the standard qualifications for academics (S. McKenna & Powell, 2009). These postgraduate qualifications prepare one for the task of conducting the

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[3] SERTEC, Sertifisering van Technikon or Certification Council for Technikon Education, was established by Act 88 of 1986.

type of research required in the university and also for teaching at postgraduate level where students are prepared to undertake such research. As the lecturers did not hold the relevant qualifications, the Technikons would have required much support to equip their lecturers to both develop the new curricula and acquire the qualifications themselves.

2.2.4 Unification of the higher education system

The unification of the South African higher education system occurred against the backdrop of two main types of differentiation; first the racial divide, and second being the binary divide between Traditional Universities and Technikons.

Mergers between institutions were conceptualised as mechanisms to improved access, student diversity, and facilitating mobility between institutional types; they were also envisaged to develop a more competitive higher education system to respond to the labour market (Bunting, 2013). A differentiated higher education system was also expected to widen participation, increase user choice, attain competitive excellence, and make targeted contributions to national or regional development in order to address the then continuing challenges of inequality and inefficiency in the system (Singh, 2008).

The outcome of the multiple mergers was a higher education system with three main types of universities – the Traditional University, University of Technology, and the Comprehensive University (Boughey, 2011). Before the mergers and amalgamations, there were 36 public universities and Technikons. After the process, there were 23 universities of which 11 were Traditional Universities, six were Universities of Technology, and the last six were called Comprehensive Universities (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2014b). Three more new universities were added more recently, Sol Plaatje University and the University of Mpumalanga both established in 2013, and Sefako Makgatho University in 2014. The latter previously existed as an independent medical university, the Medical University of South Africa (MEDUNSA), which was then merged with University of Limpopo and once again delinked to form a stand-alone medical university.

The Traditional University's focus is to provide a general formative education providing graduates with a theoretical grounding. The education seeks to "enable students and staff to inhabit critical spaces from which to reflect upon, analyse and understand the dynamics that shape social, cultural, economic and political worlds" (Department of Education, 2004, p. 22). The Traditional University is characterised by the extent to which the university undertakes to produce new knowledge through curiosity-driven research and a higher enrolment of postgraduate students (Boughey, 2011). At undergraduate level, the qualifications offered in Traditional Universities are predominantly bachelor's degrees. The University of Technology mainly offers diploma programmes with a stronger technical focus, preparing students for the world of work (Boughey, 2011), and the Comprehensive University offers a combination of qualifications focused on the world of work in line with the Universities of Technology and also the qualifications which resemble those of Traditional Universities.

In South Africa, the higher education system is predominantly public, however, there is a growing private higher education sector which "accounted for approximately 15.14% of the 1 222 030 headcount enrolments" in 2017 (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2019, p. 32). The private education sector consists of many smaller institutions on single campuses with small student numbers and a few larger institutions which have multiple campuses (Council on Higher Education, 2018). The number of institutions fluctuate between 110 and 120 with a few of the institutions being older than 20 years.

The growth of the private higher education sector is predominantly due to demand as only 50% of successful matriculants can be accommodated in the public post-school sector which includes universities and Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET[4]) colleges (Council on Higher Education, 2017). A further interest is thought to be due to the turbulence in higher education emanating from the #FeesMustFall protests and the uncertainty which is thought to affect the quality of education in the public sector; as a result, there is "a perception that there is a growing market among fee-paying students (and their parents) who are disaffected with the ongoing instability in public higher education and who will seek opportunities elsewhere" (Council on Higher Education, 2018, p. 6).

While private higher education has grown in student number enrolments, the sector has also been characterised by growth of institution sizes by acquisition as many international, private, and profit driven players have begun to enter the sector. The main concern raised by the entry of large profit-driven enterprises is the commodification of education where qualifications can be seen as products sold in a market of buyers.

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[4] Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is a type of post-secondary education institution in South Africa.

The IMM (see Chapter One, Section 1.4) is a significant player in private higher education; it also accredits other institutions to offer its courses and is one of only 12 private universities – out of 103 registered ones – that offer a master's degree in Marketing (Council on Higher Education, 2009).

The Marketing diploma is mainly offered in the Universities of Technology, which I now discuss in detail.

2.2.5 The University of Technology

Universities of Technology are characterised by a focus on offering programmes with a strong technological and vocational orientation for the purpose of preparing students for the world of work. The Universities of Technology are understood as necessary institutes if South Africa is to meet the challenges of modernity and move the country in line with the 21st century (du Pré, 2009). Universities of Technology are therefore expected to offer career focused programmes and specialise in making knowledge useful. They are expected to produce high quality graduates who can "hit the ground running" as they enter the workplace and the graduates are expected to be fully functional on commencement of their first jobs (du Pré, 2009, p. xi).

The Universities of Technology programmes are "directed towards occupations and they are intended to equip students with skills that are both marketable and immediately usable in their chosen field" (CHET, 2004, p. 9). They offer programmes directed at the contexts in which students are expected to work. They are expected to place more value on learning by doing and provide more extensive apprenticeship to give more opportunities for learning on the job. Due to the need for the curriculum of the Universities of Technology to focus on the occupations as they are at the moment, it has tended to be less sequential and more segmental or "modularisable" (Muller, 2008).

In contrast to the Traditional Universities which tend to have more stringent entry requirements (Muller, 2008), Universities of Technology are envisaged to increase inclusiveness opening access to higher education through more flexible, less stringent entry requirements. In a modern economy, higher education is understood as a primary determinant for both prosperity and social mobility. The Universities of Technology are thus expected to tap into the adult education market through creative mechanisms like recognition of prior learning[5] (RPL) as a means of enabling more people to access higher education (du Pré, 2009).

Since the qualifications are directly linked to the job market, the pedagogy often involves students spending some time in a real workplace to enable them to acquire relevant skills. This process in the Technikon era was known as Cooperative Learning and comprised up to a year spent in industry within a three-year qualification. This has been greatly reduced through pressure from new quality assurance processes and changes in funding, but work integrated learning, as it is now known, remains a characteristic of many diploma programmes.

While the Universities of Technology are still developing their research capacity, the research is expected to focus on "finding practical solutions to industry problems and developing new applications for existing knowledge" (SA DoE, 2004, p. 22). Students graduate with applied degrees in vocational programmes such as automotive technology. Most of the qualifications offered by Universities of Technology are diplomas.

Universities of Technology are also expected to provide a solution to a particular aspect of modernity – the knowledge economy in which the purpose of education is to prepare students for the world of work. The knowledge economy requires that the workforce be well trained with sophisticated education to maintain national competitiveness. The Universities of Technology are seen as the solution to the unemployment problem as they are envisaged to produce graduates with relevant skills applicable in the workplace as required by the employers. There is however a paradox as more diplomates remain unemployed in comparison to graduates.

> In 2015, the unemployment rate was 26% and 28% for individuals with a matric diploma and less than a matric diploma, respectively. This decreases to 15% for individuals with a tertiary diploma or certificate, and to 5% for those with a tertiary degree. (Bhorat, Lilenstein, Lilenstein, & Oosthuizen, 2017, p. 1)

Furthermore, Universities of Technology are expected to be a solution to the fast-paced changes in the workplace through provision of ongoing staff training as required by employers

[5] "Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL)" means the principles and processes through which the prior knowledge and skills of a person are made visible, mediated and assessed for the purposes of alternative access and admission, recognition and certification, or further learning and development (SAQA, 2014:9).

for new tasks. As the Universities of Technology are also earmarked for technology transfer, they are envisaged to enable greater innovation and international competitiveness.

For South African universities to contribute to the knowledge needs of the country, the higher education system needs to be cautious about what Kraak (2006) referred to as academic drift. Academic drift is the …

> unintended and often opportunistic movement of technikon-type institutions up the qualification hierarchy and across the academic/vocational divide in search of new learner markets, programme fields and income sources. In moving upwards in this way, institutions such as technikons begin to mimic key attributes of university-based institutions. (Kraak, 2006, p. 142)

In South Africa, a single unified higher education system was conceptualised to offer institutional diversity through mission and programme differentiation. However, the institutional mergers came with a 'flat' funding formula that rewards degrees more than diplomas and research more than teaching and so drives all three institutional types in the same direction. A funding mechanism which favours research is likely to result in academic drift, a trend in which newer universities mimic Traditional Universities. If the Universities of Technology are allowed to drift towards the programmes and mission of Traditional Universities, the system may move towards homogeneity and create a skills gap in an economy that needs such skills the most.

As the research analysed the knowledge and knower structures in the Marketing diploma, a variety of issues were discussed as they might have had an influence on how the purpose of the diploma is understood. The current state of the diploma is understood as emergent from an institutional history that is characterised by a complex interaction of numerous entities which operate as mechanisms.

Having looked at the history of institutions in South African and their potential to influence the Marketing diploma, I now discuss a review of the field of Marketing itself to understand issues internal to the field as they also have a bearing on the structuring of the curriculum.

2.3 Review of Literature on Marketing

There are several ways in which Marketing can be understood, however, a common recurring idea is that it focuses on the satisfaction of consumer needs by a variety of entities through the exchange of products. While "Marketing has been practiced since ancient times" (Shaw &

Jones, 2005, p. 239) and is "as old as human civilisation itself" (Ellis et al., 2011, p. 13) most of what is understood as Marketing today emerged following events at the turn of the 20th century which were paralleled by the development of Marketing as an academic discipline.

At its inception, Marketing was strongly associated with the flow of goods from the originators who were primarily farmers and manufacturers. Marketing was sometimes defined as "the process of transferring goods through commercial channels from producer to consumer" (Brown, 1925 in Brunswick, 2014, p. 106). In the first half of the 20th century Marketing was often framed as distribution or indistinguishable from it, as shown in the examples below.

> Marketing consists of those efforts which effect transfers in the ownership of goods and care for their physical distribution. (Clark, 1922, p. 1)

> Marketing is often referred to as "distribution." The term "physical distribution" is sometimes used to designate the activities involved in the movement and handling of goods from the point of production to the point of consumption or use. In general, however, "distribution" is used as a synonym of "marketing". (Alexander, Surface, & Alderson, 1949, p. 3)

Early definitions of Marketing demonstrated that Marketing involves "the complex group of services involved in the distribution of merchandise from producer to consumer" often with the involvement and or cooperation of the producer (Brunswick, 2014, p. 105). The activities and services commonly classified as Marketing when it was conceptualised as distribution included:

> the major marketing functions of selling, buying, traffic management, storage, financing, risk management, and standardization. (Barker & Anshen, 1939, p. 3)

As goods move from producer to consumer they also go through value adding processes like cooking and canning which require engineering and other skills and hence, earlier definitions also drew boundaries "excluding only those activities that involve the changing of form" (Maynard, Weilder, & Beckman, 1932 in Brunswick, 2014, p. 106). While the exclusion of the activities that changed the form of products may have excluded a number of players, Marketing still retained a large number of functions which left the field with a weak boundary.

Furthermore, while the exclusion of alterations to the product was cited as a boundary of the field, it has not always been agreed upon. Sheth and Parvatiyar (1995, p. 401) highlighted that most early Marketing thought focused on the "efficiency of marketing channels and the services performed by them in transporting and transforming the goods from the producers to the consumers". The transformation of goods as core to Marketing is also shown in an early definition of Marketing.

> Marketing, in a broad sense, covers those business activities which have to do with the creation of place and time utilities. Marketing, to the economist, is then a part of production. (Converse, 1921, p. 2)

The inclusion of production knowledges in Marketing opens up the field to an unlimited number of highly technical knowledges which may further affect the ability of the field to coordinate the knowledges.

The emergence of Marketing can also be understood in line with historical events, for example the industrial revolution, in particular the period from 1880 to 1900 which brought about inventions like electricity, the steam engine, rail-roads, and the telephone (Wilkie & Moore, 2003). These inventions led to unprecedented increases in productivity (Wilkie & Moore, 2007) and the emergence of capitalism (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995) which became strongly associated with the concept of choice. Choice itself was seen as an anchor of democracy. In capitalism and specifically in the emerging capitalist democracies, the economic focus concern became consumer goods and Marketing emerged from the need to balance the availability of consumer goods and improve the process of their movement from origin to the consumers.

The increase in productivity and technology coupled with "improvements in transport and storage were combining to change the state of the marketplace dramatically, and the growth and evolution of distribution systems" (Wilkie & Moore, 2003b, p. 118). These developments were coupled with an "increasing migration to cities, the emergence of national brands and chain stores, rural free mail and package delivery, and growing newspaper and magazine advertising" (Shaw & Jones, 2005, p. 242). Agents and brokers arose to connect farmers and urban consumers, "manufacturers with wholesalers" and "wholesalers with retailers" (Shaw & Jones, 2005, p. 242). The agents and brokers performed tasks increasingly associated with Marketing. The agents and brokers performed a middleman function which was seen as one of the "highly valuable services in that they stored goods, assuming an element of risk in doing so, because if conditions in the marketplace suddenly changed, they might be left with a stock of goods they could no longer sell" (Ellis et al., 2011, p. 17).

The knowledges in this new field of Marketing have been argued to have been developed initially as an extension of the field of Economics and is commonly understood as a form of applied economics (Ellis et al., 2011). While Economics is considered as a parent discipline to Marketing, Marketing is also influenced by Sociology and emerged together with the field of Management, which is also seen as having a significant influence and is sometimes referred to as its 'sister discipline' (Shaw & Jones, 2005). From Sociology, Marketing was understood to draw knowledges on "group behavior, expenditure patterns and habits, population and its shifts, group mores" (Bartels, 1951, p. 323).

From the 1960s onwards, Marketing is argued to have strongly drawn from Psychology (Sheth & Gross, 1988). However, others, such as Bartels (1951, p. 323), drew links in the 1950s between Marketing and Psychology (and a number of other fields) stating that Marketing knowledge "is also derived from psychology, accounting, law, production, engineering, and political science". Indeed, evidence of use of ideas from sociology and psychology in Marketing is evident as early as the 1930s, as the field was already associated with arousing desires and influencing decisions:

> Marketing, too, has often been limited, in definition, to selling by means of the distribution of such ideas about goods as will arouse desire for the goods and cultivate willingness on the part of the consumers to pay the price and to make the required effort to secure the goods. (Brunswick, 2014, p. 106)

While distribution seems to have been at the centre of early stages of the development of Marketing as a field of work, it coexisted with other elements that could not be classified under distribution. The most common elements were classified as the Marketing mix. The Marketing mix has been referred to as an "organising framework for integrating diverse marketing tasks" and is often used "to bring order to activities that formerly were loosely related" (Magrath, 1986, p. 45). The concept of the Marketing mix was popularised by McCarthy in 1960, who introduced "the four P's mnemonic for 'product', 'price', 'promotion', and 'place'[6]" in a textbook "Basic Marketing: A Managerial Approach" (Shaw & Jones, 2005, p. 257). The textbook and its four P's approach "swept the field and vanquished all marketing management

[6] Most definitions use the word "distribution" instead of "place". Place is a common substitution to create an alliteration of four Ps, where the occurrence of the same letter of sound at the beginning of words that commonly occur together closely connects the words also making a rhythm.

texts before it" (Shaw & Jones, 2005, p. 257). The fours Ps have been used in a number of definitions of Marketing in the 1970s and 1980s.

> The purposeful management of the products and services, the prices and the promotional and distribution activities of a business organization according to the preferences of some market or market segment and in a manner calculated to achieve the objectives of the business. (Gist, 1971, pp. 11-12)

> Marketing may be viewed as the product planning, pricing, promotion, distribution, and servicing of goods and services needed and desired by consumers. (Udell & Laczniak, 1981, p. 5)

> Marketing is a total system of business activities designed to plan, price, promote, and distribute want-satisfying goods and services to present and potential customers. (Stanton, 1984 in Brunswick, 2014, p. 111)

The Marketing mix remains a core of both Marketing as a field of practice and a field of study. Its importance was further elevated when the American Marketing Association (AMA), the world's largest and most influential Marketing organisation, put the 4Ps as a central part of their definition of Marketing as shown in the extract below.

> the process of planning and executing the conception, pricing, promotion, and distribution of ideas, goods and services to create exchanges that satisfy individual and organisational objectives. (Wilkie & Moore, 2007, p. 269)

As the four Ps became more broadly used as guidelines to thought and practice in Marketing, the world of business was also changing. Shostack (1977) noted that products had been the focus of the field of marketing but the changes in the business world saw more and more services emerging. The word 'product' was often used to refer to both tangible and intangible products, however, this was deemed insufficient to address services as Shostack (1977, p. 73) noted:

> Many marketing professionals who transfer to the services arena find their work fundamentally "different," but have a difficult time articulating how and why their priorities and concepts have changed.

Shostack criticised the then AMA definition for squeezing services into "intangible products" and further argued that "marketing offers no guidance, terminology, or practical rules that are clearly relevant to services" (Shostack, 1977, p. 73). Her critique of the non-responsiveness of Marketing to services was detailed, well-articulated, and expressed with clear examples and for this reason I give the long quotation below.

> It is wrong to imply that services are just like products "except" for intangibility. By such logic, apples are just like oranges, except for their "appleness." Intangibility is not a modifier; it is a state. Intangibles may come with tangible trappings, but no amount of money can buy physical ownership of such intangibles as "experience" (movies), "time" (consultants), or "process" (dry cleaning). A service is rendered. A service is experienced. A service cannot be stored on a shelf, touched, tasted or tried on for size. "Tangibles" means "palpable" and "material." "Intangible" is an antonym, meaning "impalpable," and "not corporeal." This distinction has profound implications. Yet marketing offers no way to treat intangibility as the core element it is, nor does marketing offer usable tools for managing, altering, or controlling this amorphous core. (Shostack, 1977, pp. 73-74)

This criticism has led the field of Marketing to recognise the limits of conceptualising 'services' as 'products' and resulted in the extension of the 4Ps marketing mix to include services. An additional three Ps now commonly referred to as people, physical evidence, and process were added to make the 7Ps, specifically to address the needs of services. The extension of the 4Ps to the 7Ps was developed by Magrath (1986, p. 47) who resounded Shostack's (1977) earlier argument.

> When service businesses try to develop marketing and tactical programs around the four Ps, one of the fundamental difficulty they encounter is making the four Ps fit the nature of their operations. The four Ps ignore important service marketing realities: namely personnel, physical facilities, and process management. These three Ps are interconnected and represent vital marketing elements in the management of service business.

More recently, Vargo and Lusch (2004, p. 1) argued that Marketing is "evolving to a new dominant logic", one which focuses on "intangible resources, the cocreation of value, and relationships" and "one in which service provision rather than goods is fundamental to economic exchange".

2.3.1 Marketing entering the academy

The first courses directly attributed to the field of Marketing included one taught in 1902 at the University of Michigan called "The Distributive and Regulative Industries of the US" (Bartels, 1951; Ellis et al., 2011; Wilkie & Moore, 2003). Another course involving Marketing was also taught in 1902 at the University of California, it was entitled "The Techniques of Trade and Commerce" (Ross & Richards, 2008, p. 7). The first course to use the word Marketing in its title was offered at Wharton in 1904, the course was called "The Marketing of Products" (Hileman & Ross, 1969 cited in Ross & Richards, 2008, p. 7). "The first course actually called simply 'Marketing' … was in 1911 delivered by Ralph Starr Butler at the University of Wisconsin" (Ellis et al., 2011, p. 15).

The teaching of Marketing in the university was gradual and happened alongside the emergence of business schools and other fields in the broad fields of social science related to commerce. Some of the first courses were on subject areas such as distribution, advertising, and salesmanship (Ellis et al., 2011) which are now understood as elements of Marketing.

The development of an independent Marketing curriculum arose from the need for a separate field of study from economics and the argument that "the greater part of the economic world has not yet been surveyed descriptively and realistically" (Ashley, 1908 in Ellis et al., 2011, p. 16). The field of marketing was therefore going to "help practitioners understand the marketplace and help investigate consumer needs and desires" (Ellis et al., 2011, p. 16).

While the study of Marketing is neither a homogenous nor a universally applicable concept, it is overwhelmingly influenced by the economic, social, political, and technological developments in the United States of America. Both literature and textbooks of Marketing largely report activities of American corporations which are sometimes tweaked for use in other regions (Ellis et al., 2011). "Some of the first courses in marketing appear to have been delivered in Germany" (Ellis et al., 2011, p. 15), however, there is very little literature on such courses. While the theory and practice of Marketing may bear developments in other regions, it is likely to remain largely conceptualised through an American lens.

2.3.2 Subareas in Marketing

The boundaries of what constitutes Marketing are not always clear as the discipline comprises of many, mostly new, different areas and thus has multiple subareas. To further understand Marketing, it is important to also understand its subareas and schools[7] of Marketing thought. Shaw and Jones (2005, p. 241) cautioned that "it is difficult, but useful, to distinguish schools of thought from subareas within marketing". They further clarified that:

[7] Examples of schools of Marketing thought include the schools of Marketing functions, Marketing commodities, Marketing institutions, Marketing management, Marketing systems, consumer behaviour, macro-marketing, exchange, and Marketing history (Shaw & Jones, 2005).

> schools represent a perspective on the whole or at least a large part of marketing, whereas sub-areas are elements within a school, usually within marketing management. (Shaw & Jones, 2005, p. 241)

The subareas in Marketing developed over time and thus exist independently of schools of thought. Examples of subareas include advertising, public relations, sales promotions, personal selling, direct mail, trade fairs and exhibitions, and sponsorship (Whalley, 2010). The examples are also classified under Promotions and are often referred to as elements of the Promotions mix.

Some of these subareas and schools of thought have grown extensively and some have developed their own importance, and some have even developed their own associations. For example, the American Association of Advertising Agencies has its own Institute of Advanced Advertising Studies (The Institute of Advanced Advertising Studies, 2018); the Institute of Sales Management (ISM) in the UK is independent of the Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM) (Institute of Sales Management, 2020); and the Public Relations Institute of Southern Africa (PRISA) is also independent of Marketing (Public Relations Institute of Southern Africa, 2020). These subareas influence the direction and stability of the field of Marketing. Below is a brief discussion of the two major subareas of Advertising and Public Relations and the one major school of Marketing thought, the school of Consumer Behaviour.

2.3.2.1 Advertising

In Marketing literature, Advertising is recognised as a component of marketing which falls under Promotion in the 4Ps (Rodgers & Thorson, 2012). Richards and Curran (2002, p. 64) identified five recurring elements of Advertising which they include in a definition of Advertising; the elements are that Advertising should be "(1) paid, (2) nonpersonal, (3) identified sponsor, (4) mass media, and (5) persuade or influence". They proposed that advertising be defined as follows: "Advertising is a paid nonpersonal communication from an identified sponsor, using mass media to persuade or influence an audience" (Richards & Curran, 2002, p. 64).

While Advertising is often accepted as falling within Marketing, some scholars have challenged this view and positioned it as separate and independent from Marketing.

> However, advertising has a long campus history as an academic discipline distinct from marketing, usually within schools or colleges of mass

> communication and journalism, and its strong relationship to public policy is an important one, if not a core concern, for both scholarship and educational programs within that discipline. (Rotfeld & Stafford, 2007, p. 67)

Other scholars have further raised "the question of whether advertising education is best taught within the context of journalism/communication or within business programs" or if it should be a field independent from public relations (Spring & Nesterenko, 2017, p. 16). Suggestions have been made that Advertising and Public Relations be taught as an integrated programme and not separate the way they are presented as two independent parts of the Promotional mix in Marketing.

In the academy, Advertising emerged between the fields of psychology and journalism. However, Advertising interest groups existed before Advertising was taught. Ross and Richards (2008, p. 12) stated that "one of the journalism courses at Wharton School of Business in 1893 did include Advertising as one topic" and the first research in Advertising was at the University of Minnesota in 1895. The first course "Dealing with advertising as its core" was offered in 1904 by Walter Dill Scott at the Northwestern University, it was called "Advanced experimental psychology" (Ross & Richards, 2008, p. 14). In the same year Advertising was also taught in Wharton in the first course with Marketing in its title, "The Marketing of Products" and in 1908 a book *Psychology of Advertising* was published (Coolsen, 1942). Other early texts include Claude Hopkins' *Scientific Advertising* (Hopkins, 1923). While Scott received a positive response from Advertising practitioners, his actions were not well received by colleagues in the field of psychology prompting Professor E. B. Titchener of Cornell University to write him a letter raising ethical concerns about the use of the term 'psychology' in commerce (Ross & Richards, 2008).

Scholarship in Marketing has portrayed Advertising as its own subfield, a component of the Promotional mix and also separate and independent from other elements of the Marketing mix. A criticism of this dominant view on the position of Advertising in Marketing is that the perspectives of Marketing scholars are influenced by their background and thus they cannot perceive Advertising differently, for example, as having a natural and important alliance in public policy (Rotfeld & Stafford, 2007). An example of another view of Advertising as outside of Marketing is shown below.

> In colleges of communications where advertising is an independent academic discipline, the advertising scholars and educators have had a

> different view of applied public policy research than those from a pure marketing background. (Rotfeld & Stafford, 2007, p. 67)

While Advertising is an integral part of Marketing, it seems to have its own legitimacy as a field of research and study with its own affiliations. Such contestations of key subfields may lead to a weaker harmony in the development of fields of study.

2.3.2.2 Public Relations

As with Advertising above, Public Relations is controversial in that for some, it is an integral aspect of Marketing as a field of research and study and for others, it is a discrete field in its own right. While there are several views and definitions to what Public Relations is, the definitive description often includes the 'effective use of communication' and 'mutual lines of communication', an example is shown below.

> These senior practitioners are responsible for protecting the company's public reputation by identifying issues, and by using effective communication to align the interests of organisations with those of the significant publics in their operating environment. (Hobbs & Mann, 2015, p. 2)

Public Relations is sometimes associated with moral controversies which can be tracked back to their founding fathers, for example when a New York publicist, Ivy Lee established a political publicity press agency and declared that he published stories from people who told him what to publish (Hobbs & Mann, 2015). This was at a time when publications were thought to be objective and reported stories as they were. Further moral dilemmas became associated with the field because of a more controversial figure in Public Relations, Edward Bernays the nephew of Sigmund Freud a famous psychologist (Ellis et al., 2011). Bernays "introduced ideas from psychology and sociology into the practice of public relations" (Hobbs & Mann, 2015, p. 5). Most of Edwards Bernays' work focused on controlling the opinions of people for the benefit of commercial entities as shown in some of his publications which included manipulating public opinion (Bernays, 1928a), propaganda (Bernays, 1928b), engineering of consent (Bernays, 1947), and crystalising public opinion (Bernays, 1923).

This study also explored the form taken by Public Relations and the extent to which it is considered within or outside the field of Marketing.

2.3.2.3 Consumer Behaviour

While some people claim that Advertising and Public Relations are part of the broader field of Marketing and others argue that they are fields in their own right, Consumer Behaviour is generally considered a school of thought and research within Marketing with very little, if any, contestations or attempts to position it as separate from Marketing. This could be because the main thrust of marketing goods and services entails an understanding of consumer behaviour. There are, however, developments in other fields which mirror consumer behaviour, for example, behavioural economics and neuroeconomics. These fields however retain stronger interdisciplinary approaches and therefore do not claim to be replicas of consumer behaviour as it is understood in Marketing.

The emergence of consumer behaviour as a school of thought within Marketing is said to have taken place from 1975 to 2000 (Shaw & Jones, 2005). Sheth (1992) noted that 'external forces' were involved in the development of consumer behaviour, referring in particular to researchers from the field of psychology entering the marketing discipline. Psychology, however, has always had a presence in Marketing as the field's other subareas like Advertising and Public Relations were conceived from it.

Consumer research has, however, been undertaken in several forms for example "by Paul Lazarsfelds at the Office of Economic-Psychological Research at the University of Vienna" between the years 1927 to 1934 (Ellis et al., 2011, p. 25). Similar research was done by the Society for Consumer Research which was affiliated to the Nurnberg University (Fullerton, 2009).

The field of consumer behaviour was conceptualised under the conviction that careful, detailed interviewing could reveal "the reasons that lay behind any given purchase" (Ellis et al., 2011, p. 25). It was influenced by theories from various schools including "social psychology, Marxism, Freud, behaviourism, introspection, statistics, and psycholinguistics" (Fullerton, 2009, p. 97). Most of the theoretical practices in what is now known as consumer behaviour developed under motivation research which was conceptualised in the 1950s. The focus of motivation research was on what motivated people to buy and the way they buy, for example, how frequently they buy. Most motivation research has often "disappeared from public sight" but "kept developing under the public surface" (Fullerton, 2013, p. 61) mainly due to ethical implications raised by scholars when psychology is applied to commerce (Ross & Richards, 2008).

The establishment of the Journal of Consumer Research (JCR) in 1974 "provided researchers cohesion and networking capability" and "spurred even more research in consumer behavior" (Shaw & Jones, 2005, p. 262). The JCR initially focused on the behaviour of consumers from a purchase, consumption, and usage perceptive but later broadened the boundaries to include "virtually any human behavior" and included "family planning behavior, occupational choices, mobility, determinants of fertility rates, among many other non-market related topics" (Frank, 1974 in Shaw & Jones, 2005, p. 262).

2.3.3 Is Marketing a science?

To further understand the nature of Marketing, it is important to take a step back to a period of rigorous debate when the field was at its early stages of growth, a debate that may be understood as to whether Marketing is a science or if it can be one. Taylor (1965, p. 49) argued that the debate was triggered by Lyndon O. Brown in 1948 when he urged for "the accumulation of a body of knowledge, the development of an analytical approach, and the sharpening of research as a basic tool for management" in Marketing.

The debate took various forms and engaged with the need to move towards a theory of marketing (Alderson & Cox, 1948) with some academics arguing that "a systematic theory of marketing can be developed" and that "marketing may become scientific and perhaps even [become] a science" (Vaile, 1949, p. 520).

Marketing, together with management which has been often referred to as its "sister discipline", were heavily influenced by the "scientific management" trends which focused on close scrutiny of "worker tasks and costs and time to produce efficiencies through the improvement of 'components' in assembly lines" (Shaw & Jones, 2005, p. 242). However, Bartels (1951, p. 325) pointed out that Marketing was not a "distinct field of investigation" as is a requisite in the definition of a science; marketing typically draws from several disciplines however, to merely "aggregate unrelated theories does not advance a science". The scientific elements of Marketing were characterised as an "integral part of the general science of economics" Bartels (1951, p. 325).

The debate on the science-ness of Marketing is largely on the extent to which it builds a unified set of theories. The building of Marketing as a scientific field of study is largely attributed to Wroe Alderson who is sometimes considered the "father of modern Marketing" (Shaw, Lazer, & Pirog, 2007) for bringing together concepts from several disciplines "while pursuing his goal of a general theory of marketing" (Wooliscroft, 2008, p. 371). However, while there are Marketing academics who have sought to advance the theoretical standing of Marketing, for example Hunt and Arnett's (2006) 'Towards a General Theory of Marketing', such work is not the defining characteristic of the field (Hunt & Arnett, 2006).

Marketing has also been described as "like engineering" which "is a multiphase activity of great complexity" (Vaile, 1949, p. 520). Other scholars also argued that "marketing is not a science" as it tends to resemble more of "engineering, medicine, and architecture than it does physics, chemistry, or biology" (Hutchinson, 1952 in Hunt, 2010, p. 17). Such descriptions of Marketing are akin to Bernstein's classification of fields of study into singulars, regions and generics which are discussed in detail in chapter 5 and are an important tool in the analysis of the data.

The issue of the nature of Marketing as a field of study was central to this research and will be engaged with throughout the thesis, in particular, I will discuss the notion of knowledge being structured in different ways in the chapter which follows.

2.3.4 Criticisms of Marketing as a field of study

Criticism of the field of Marketing has included its broad nature as it has been shown that "the study of marketing has been influenced by many different academic movements, fads and priorities" (Ellis et al., 2011, p. 15). Shaw and Jones (2005, p. 266) have also pointed out that "marketing's subject matter and disciplinary boundaries [are] ambiguous at best and incomprehensible at worst". Furthermore, Wooliscroft (2008, p. 368) turned the critic to the discipline stating that "the intellectual poverty of Marketing as a discipline which doesn't reflect sufficiently on past authors' writing becomes painfully obvious".

Wooliscroft (2008) also gave scathing criticism to an article by Vargo and Lusch (2004) arguing that, while the article was well received and had a high impact and also won an award for the greatest contribution to Marketing theory, it presented ideas from Wroe Alderson (1965) as new ideas by simply using 'different phraseology'. Wooliscroft (2008) extended the criticism to the American Marketing Association (AMA) as it oversees the journal which published the article in question. He also labelled the AMA as guilty of amnesia, especially given that they are a recognised leader in the field and that they have access to Alderson's work as he also served the AMA as president.

Other criticism has included the use of false dichotomies in practice, research, and teaching as Hunt (2010, p. 6) stated that:

> Almost all marketing practitioners, most marketing academicians, and, sadly, too many marketing researchers perceive theoretical and practical as being at the opposite ends of a continuum.

The tension between theory and practice is not an uncommon occurrence in Marketing literature as practitioners believe theory is unhelpful for practice, while some academics perpetrate this view as they also misuse and abuse theory (Rotfeld, 2014).

Scholars from within Marketing have raised questions on whether the field has sufficient theories and practices to be able to stand as an independent field. The field of Marketing has also been portrayed as guilty of "conceptual kleptomania" (Hackley, 2003, p. 1344), the practice of appropriation but without gain, and for this reason has also been described as a "theory mess" consisting of a "smorgasbord of dishes" (Gummesson, 2002, p. 325). Some scholars have found that "Marketing cannot be described as a domain with its own distinctive knowledge and methods" (Arbee, 2012, p. 108). Others have called it an "impoverished" field of study with miniscule distinct and specialist knowledges (Wellman, 2010). And Burton (2005 in Arbee, 2012, p. 108) referred to Marketing as "the least-theorised business school specialism" and pointed to a "theory crisis" in Marketing.

In a further analysis of the field of Marketing's disciplinary skills and knowledges, what are known as principles in the field are ideas based on common sense but offer few specific skills (Aggarwal, Vaidyanathan, & Rochford, 2007; Arbee, 2012). Some of the common theories attributed to Marketing include Maslow's hierarchy of needs which has been described as a 'zombie theory' i.e. a theory which retains its popularity despite being thoroughly refuted by research (Rotfeld, 2014). The value of Marketing qualifications in the field has also been undermined as shown in a study in the UK which revealed that "whilst almost half of posts demanded a degree, only a fifth required that it be in marketing" and furthermore, even "when qualifications are required, three-quarters of what may be perceived to be entry-level posts additionally required work experience" (Wellman, 2010, p. 919). In Marketing, "the possession of specialist knowledge and skills is not crucial to participation and achievement" (Arbee, 2012, p. 109), however, greater importance is placed on the possession of a broad spectrum of general knowledge (Walker et al., 2009).

The broad nature of Marketing is often argued to be the cause of theoretical anomalies in the field, it is also attributed to a paper written as early as 1969 arguing for broadening the concept of Marketing. In the article Kotler (in Dibb & Carrigan, 2013, p. 4) indicated that:

> Sidney Levy and I [Philip Kotler] argued that marketing can be applied to marketing places (cities, regions, nations), people (celebrities or creating celebrities) and causes (eat more nutritious food, exercise regularly).

This phenomenon has been referred to as the paradigm broadening and classified as the fourth school of Marketing thought.

> The paradigm broadening expanded the boundaries of marketing thought from its conventional focus on business activities to a broader perspective embracing all forms of human activity related to any generic or social exchange. (Shaw & Jones, 2005, p. 243)

While Kotler re-evaluated his position on the broadening of the concept of Marketing (Hunt, 1976) the effect of the debate continues to wrangle the field raising concern of an amnesia (Tadajewski, 2008) and identity crisis (El-Ansary, Shaw, & Lazer, 2017) in Marketing. The epitome of the weak boundaries and lack of focus in the field of Marketing has been highlighted by a thesis under the title "Everything is Marketing and Marketing is Everything" (McKenna, 1991). This thesis was further supported by other scholars who valorised the vagueness of the field as one scholar argued below.

> Whether you like numbers or hate numbers, like people or hate people, like doing the same thing every day or like constant change there are opportunities for you in marketing. (Burnett, 2011, p. 10)

However, Holbrook (1987, p. 128) warned that Marketing "has grown so encrusted with connotations arising from its association with other disciplines that, by now, it stands for everything, which in this case tantamounts to nothing". It has been argued that some of the problems of Marketing could be resolved through the building of a strong theoretical foundation (El-Ansary et al., 2017). In spite of the scathing criticism of the theoretical state of the field some scholars have sought to address these as shown by titles of journal papers which have included "Revisiting the Marketing Domain" (Levy, 2002), "Scholarly Research in

Marketing" (Wilkie & Moore, 2003), "The Quest for a General Theory of the Marketing System" (Shaw, 2014) and "Paradigm Debates and Marketing Theory" (Tadajewski, 2014).

2.4 Conclusion: Institutional Differentiation and Marketing

This chapter discussed issues surrounding institutional differentiation and Marketing broadly as a field of practice and more specifically as a field of study because these contextual issues are important in the understanding of the Marketing curriculum. The chapter revealed that at a global level, institutional differentiation is generally seen as a good thing and also discussed its complexities as it often does not deliver the benefits expected of it. In South Africa, issues of race made institutional differentiation more difficult to engage with and this made it the proverbial elephant in the room. It also covered the history of higher education with a particular interest in South Africa and more specifically a focus on the institutions in which the Marketing diploma is offered. Highlighting institutional differentiation in a thesis on Marketing is important because, as will be seen throughout the thesis, the history is very much in evidence in how the universities currently function. The second part of the chapter showed Marketing as an open field from its inception, drawing knowledges from many fields. It also discussed the rigorous debate in the 1940s on whether Marketing was a science or if it could be one. The debate revealed the unsettled nature of knowledges and a need for theory building in the field. In the next chapter, I discuss the philosophical and theoretical framework.

Chapter Three: Philosophical and Theoretical Frameworks

> If one has to philosophise, one has to philosophise; if one does not have to philosophise, one has to philosophise ... One always has to philosophise (Derrida, 1982, p. 191)

3.1 Need for Philosophy

This study looked at the knowledge and knowers in the Marketing curriculum with a particular interest in how the knowledge is structured and how knowers are constructed.

Every research project has a philosophical position, that is, it has some kind of notion of truth underpinning the way in which knowledge is constructed. A philosophical position is unavoidable and affects the value of research in all fields of study (Rutzou, 2015a). The way in which knowledge is constructed and the value of the research is greatly influenced by the discipline or field in which it occurs. Philosophical positions are equally important in all disciplinary research albeit to different degrees and taking different forms. While the world consists of people and is not carved out in disciplines, disciplines emerged and are generally categorised into two large categories which are the natural sciences and the social sciences. While there are a great many critiques of such a simple binary divide of all research fields into these two categories (Martin & Maton, 2017), the groupings are nonetheless useful as a heuristic.

The natural sciences, broadly speaking, deal with the study of more stable objects which are largely unchanging and thus allow for easier testability of the truth and comparatively less contestations of the philosophical underpinnings to their research (Harvey, 2002). In the natural sciences much research has been conducted in a laboratory where the interaction of entities can be controlled and manipulated (Rutzou, 2015b). The restriction of the number of entities allows the interactions between fewer and fewer entities to be observed. This abstraction of reality enables the natural sciences to study only a few elements in a closed system and has led to the growth of scientific knowledge.

This PhD study honed in on Marketing as a field of study. It is very unlike the natural sciences in its focus and intent, but interestingly, research in Marketing has been predominantly quantitative which some argue is an attempt to align Marketing research with the prized objectivity associated with the natural sciences (Witkowski & Jones, 2008). Such research has been criticised for not questioning the limits of the objectivity of science (Hunt, 1994), nor the applicability of such an approach for a field such as Marketing.

The social sciences seek to understand the different parts and processes of society. This is more complex as people "unlike natural entities, actively reproduce their social world" (Harvey, 2002, p. 163). Social sciences are characteristically undertaken in the natural world, in an open system where the ability to control is inconceivable. As people and social processes are being studied, they respond to the researcher's questions and observations creating new behaviours and new processes which make it impossible to study one-to-one relationships between entities. Due to this open nature of the social world (Gorski, 2013), research in the social sciences often does not have agreed assumptions about the underpinning philosophies and these have to be explicitly discussed by the researcher to enable the evaluation of trustworthiness and validity of the findings (Muthama, 2018).

This study focused on the knowledge and knower structures in the Marketing diploma curriculum. In this study the curriculum is understood to be both social in its construction and real in its effects. Articulating my philosophical position was important to guide me in the truth claims that could be made about the curriculum as "it is not possible to make claims about social reality without making some assumptions about the nature of reality" (Wheelahan, 2007b, p. 4).

Many studies in the social sciences, including studies of curriculum and Marketing, have often been conducted without an explicit philosophical position (Easton, 2010; Wheelahan, 2007a). The dangers of having an implicit philosophical position is that researchers may actually end up taking weak philosophical positions, unbeknownst to them (Easton, 2010). The lack of clear articulation of the philosophical positions in curriculum studies have been argued to downgrade the resulting knowledge leading to incoherent conclusions (Priestley, 2011). The use of findings drawn from research "ignorant of coherent theoretical underpinnings" has led to the development of "ill thought-out curriculum policy" which "has the potential to be highly detrimental to education" (Priestley, 2011, p. 227).

It is thus important for researchers to select and explain an appropriate philosophical position which allows the assumptions in the study to be made explicit thus enabling a deeper and more rigorous engagement with the concept under investigation and minimising the pitfalls of unclear assumptions. Philosophical positions are numerous, but many can also be understood to lie on a continuum with positivist philosophies on one extreme and relativist philosophies on the other. These philosophical positions, while presented here in extremes, contain logics that are either incomplete or not appropriately used. The discussion below starts with such positions, explores their underpinnings, and seeks to suggest a more complete philosophy for this research.

3.2 Positivism

The growth of the natural sciences underpinned by experimentation and measurement in a closed system allows generalisation between a limited number of variables. It is able to show a constant relationship between two variables, x and y, to the extent that they can make generalisations that x always leads to y. This approach is useful in a closed system where the number of variables can be limited. A significant part of science using this approach became known as empiricism, when knowledge acquisition was confined to "always and only employing the perceptual criterion (observability)" (Archer, 1995, p. 23). Empiricism fundamentally stands for an approach where descriptions and explanations are restricted to that which can be perceived and tested in a laboratory (Archer, 1995). Any accounts of the logic of the relationship between variables are backgrounded.

The hegemony of scientific knowledge has also led to the belief that validation of knowledge in closed environments produces immutable truths and the subsequent belief that other knowledges and methods of acquiring knowledge do not qualify for truth (de Sousa Santos, 2009). The view of truth acquired through the observable as immutable is a core belief in positivism. Furthermore, positivists believe that this knowledge directly acquired from the observable world is a full representation of an unchanging reality (Boateng, 2014). Positivists are inclined to portray knowledges acquired through sense perception as always and fully reliable. Where such knowledge is refuted and changed, it is because a variable is identified that had not previously been considered.

Positivism is considered by its critics to be a naïve realism (Easton, 1998) which conflates what is known about reality (epistemology) with reality itself (ontology). This presents knowledge as intransitive, that is, unaffected by human intervention and it thus commits the epistemic fallacy (Mkhize, 2015) whereby what we know of the world is conflated with what the world is really like. "The epistemic fallacy weakens the explanatory value of scientific enquiry" (Moyo, 2018, p. 22) as the "attribution of causality" is thus "restricted to the level of observable events" and therefore the aim of research becomes "the discovery of observed regularities (a typically Humean quest for constant conjunctions)" (Archer, 1995, p. 34).

The pervasive nature of positivism, the dominance of its naïve realism, coupled with the fact that only a few researchers spend time considering the philosophies that inform their research methodologies (Easton, 2010), has meant that many research projects are likely to take weak philosophical positions without even realising it. The inherent contradictions of positivist[8] positions, in particular the notion of immutable truths about an unchanging world and its shortcomings in building understandings of social systems where it is impossible to delimit the number of variables, has led to the development of rival philosophical positions, such as those characterised by relativism.

3.3 Relativism

Relativism is premised on the idea that all knowledge is relative to its context and to those who experience it. It presents knowledge as divided into discrete, monolithic, and mutually unintelligible or contradictory systems of thought (Sayer, 1992) and emerged in opposition to positivism's naïve objectivism. It posits that "there are many truths" and "the veracity of each" truth is "only ascertainable relative to the knower" (White, 2011, p. 3). In relativist positions, truth is largely understood from "the social circumstances of knowers" (Maton, 2014, p. 5). It is therefore shifting and multiple – such that even two people experiencing the same event may experience it differently and thus may describe it differently; therefore, people are understood to have different versions of the truth about the same thing. This gives rise to standpoint theories which foreground the knower and their constructed social categories like nationality, social class, gender, ethnicity, sexuality, geographic region, or other historical factors, arguing that they "shape actors' way of viewing, being and acting in the world" (Maton, 2014, p. 5).

In education research, relativist influences are evident in constructivist positions. Constructivism emphasises individual differences in learning where meaning is constructed individually through experiences and reflection. The stronger versions of constructivism fall in line with the relativist notion of truth as being entirely flexible through emphasising how

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[8] It is a mistake to collapse 'natural sciences' with 'positivism', as many researchers in the natural sciences work from a post-positivist approach.

learning is attached to particular contexts. Constructivism has influenced much research in teaching and learning (Clarence, 2013) and when applied to education it principally concerns pedagogy (Pinar, 2010). In emphasising the personal construction of knowledge by the individual, it neglects anything external to the learner.

This philosophical position is unhelpful as it backgrounds knowledge, creating "a binary between learner-centred pedagogy and teacher-centred pedagogy" which are perceived as two incompatible paradigms based on "diametrically opposed epistemologies" (Tabulawa, 2013, p. 8). On the one hand, learner-centredness is based on an overfocus on the social environment in which students learn and the psychology behind learning is valorised over the knowledges that they learn (Clarence, 2013). Constructivism can be shown to focus on "the concept of the individual, not the concept of knowledge" and that "the selection of knowledge content" is "subsidiary and subordinate to" the learner (Tabulawa, 2013, p. 61). Because of "the tentative, uncertain and problematic nature of knowledge, educational planning cannot take a knowledge-centred stance; it has to be learner-centred." (Tabulawa, 2013, p. 61). On the other hand, teacher-centredness is also reduced to pedagogy and ignores disciplinary knowledge (Pinar, 2010), associating any focus on knowledge with a dominating teacher pouring knowledges onto students who are characterised as blank slates (Tabulawa, 2013b).

Critics have indicated that in education research "constructivism acts as a mystifier rather than a constructor of social relations and divisions" (Muller, 2002, p. 98) as it nullifies the need to collect data, do research, or read research and describes data only if that data is relevant for those particular persons, at that particular time, and in that particular context. It makes the entire research endeavour futile, as it suggests that we can never learn from the findings beyond the very specific constructions of truth by the particular participants within their specific context at that specific time.

Extreme philosophical positions such as positivism and relativism (and constructivism) while starting off with a compelling logic are often incomplete. Scholars whose work is informed by such philosophical orientations acknowledge the importance of knowledge, (and often proclaim to be pursuing an education for a knowledge society) and yet they practice relativising of knowledge in the curriculum (Wheelahan, 2007b). For example, Barnett (2004) argued that the high pace of change has increased uncertainty and "the world is not just radically unknowable but is now indescribable". Having argued in this particular publication that disciplinary knowledge is still important but less so in a radically unknowable world, he also argued for a focus on how students learn (Barnett, 2004). Wheelahan (2007b) argued that the backgrounding of knowledge has the potential to sway many into an extreme relativist position in which there is no basis for choosing one explanation from another, resulting in curricula which are weak in knowledge.

3.4 Why Critical Realism?

Critical realism allowed me to attend to the limitations of both positivist and relativist philosophical positions. Critical realism acknowledges that there is not a simple cause and effect relationship in the social world as suggested by positivism. It also allows moving beyond describing things as ephemeral, short term, and multiple, as indicated by relativist approaches.

Critical realism attends to the limitations of positivist and relativist positions (and their attendant approaches of scientism, constructivism, and post-modernism) by recognising that there are things worth knowing, that it is possible to do research which allows us to understand these deeper mechanisms while not simplifying their complexity. By enabling the development of understanding how these mechanisms play out, that which leads to these events and what makes these events more likely begins to emerge, therefore making it possible to bring about change in the world.

Critical realism is a series of philosophical positions which seek to reconstitute the notion of "philosophy as a science of ontology" (Bhaskar, 1975, p. 100). Ontology is the study of being and is concerned with the components of the world we can know about. Based on the premise that "all philosophies and social theories are realist about something" (Wheelahan, 2007a, p. 91), critical realism begins with the claim that there is a real world out there which exists independently of human knowledge of it. Critical realism therefore argues for ontological realism which is based on the argument that there is "an objective ordered reality" in which "things are not human constructs all the way" (Rutzou, 2015a, p. 20). Ontological realism can thus be understood through the intransitive dimension, in which the objects of knowledge are conceived of as existing and acting independently of people (Bhaskar, 1975). The intransitive dimension also means that the objects of our knowledge do not change in cases where our senses deceive, or when our senses do not give a complete account of the objects.

Critical realism further acknowledges that due to the "structured, differentiated and uneven nature of the world," (Sayer, 1992, p. 78), knowledge may be unevenly developed and yet could be adequate. However the "categories of scientific knowledge must conform to the obdurate structure of the world" (Harvey, 2002, p. 165). Critical realism maintains that people can develop an understanding or create knowledge about the independently existing physical reality, but it is important that the knowledge of reality (epistemology) is not conflated with reality itself (ontology). A two-way conflation could curtail the development of knowledge as researchers slide into either epistemological fallacy or ontological fallacy.

For our knowledge of the world to be possible and reliable it is important to engage with the argument of how people get to know the world. Philosophers like Kant have indicated "the structures of the mind and the capacity of our minds to impose the categories on phenomena we experience" (in Wheelahan, 2007a, p. 94). Kant also argued that "the structures of the mind are universal and knowledge that is derived from these structures is infallible because it has been deduced through the use of pure reason" (in Wheelahan, 2007a, p. 94).

However, sometimes what is seen bears no resemblance to reality, as senses are a relay of nerve impulses sent and interpreted in the brain (Deutsch, 2009). Critical realism acknowledges that such interpretation is socially constructed. Therefore, realists cannot be naïve about the conditions under which social reality is produced. Archer et al. (2016, p. 6) expressed it well when she stated that, "there is no way of knowing the world except under particular, more or less historically transient descriptions".

Critical realists consider the structures of the world to be relatively stable in line with ontological realism, despite the relativism of our knowledge thereof, as Archer et al. (2016, p. 6) argued that:

> This does not imply that knowledge is hopeless or the possibility of realism is a futile quest; it simply means that our representations of the world are always historical, perspectival, and fallible, entailing, among other things, the necessity of methodological pluralism.

A key feature of critical realism is thus that it differentiates between epistemology and ontology.

Epistemology is the study of our knowledge of the world, that which we may hold as truth but which is limited by its achievement through our senses. Our truth is relative because our knowledge of the world emerges from our senses. Wheelahan (2007a, p. 91) stated that, "something is objectively true regardless of whether we know of its existence and may be true without appearing directly in events or in our experiences".

While the world and the objects therein are intransitive, that is they exist beyond our experiences thereof, our knowledge of the world is transitive and can change as we improve our methods of studying the world. The “transitive dimension” in critical realism refers to the knowledge of objects of the world which is “produced in the social activity of science” (Bhaskar, 1975, p. 101). This means our knowledges are drawn through the senses and shaped by “the particular social practices societies use to develop” it (Wheelahan, 2007a, p. 94). The conditions of possibility of knowledge are based on the premise that our knowledge of the world is fallible (Bhaskar, 1975). To acknowledge the relative nature of knowledge, which is perspectival and can be improved, critical realists therefore take the position of epistemological relativism. Epistemological relativism does not mean that ‘any knowledge goes’. To balance ontological realism and epistemological relativism, critical realists use a third anchoring concept, judgmental rationality.

3.5 Judgmental Rationality

Given the relativity of knowledge posited by epistemic relativism, critical realism requires a third anchoring concept, judgmental rationality, which requires the researcher to evaluate and decide on the various accounts of knowledge available. It is based on the understanding that disciplinary knowledge or truth in general is a result of investigations which seek to create, stabilise, describe, or explain phenomena or develop an account of something real (Rutzou, 2015b). Critical realism acknowledges that there are numerous ways in various disciplines of getting to such truths and consequently that not all accounts of truth are equal.

The relativity of knowledge requires that a good account is understood as the best truth that is currently known and therefore a more modest position is to consider it as an acceptable account (Easton, 2010). Acceptable accounts can be discussed publicly in a discipline and the community of researchers can debate such theories thoroughly and can “adjudicate between rival or competing accounts” (Archer et al., 2016, p. 6). Judgmental rationality is based on the claim that there are objective evaluations of truth which enable the choosing of some theories over others and the ability to defend such truth through recourse to evidence (Wheelahan, 2007a). The anchoring of judgmental rationality thus enables critical realism to not only argue that good explanations are fallible but that there are ways to challenge, dispute, improve, and even change disciplinary truth that can be more or less objective.

3.6 Mechanisms and Causation in Depth Ontology

Given that what is observed is not the whole world but only a part of it, a quest arises to understand why objects of the world are the way they are. Critical realism posits a deep nature of reality in which the world can be understood through three levels or domains, the real, the actual, and the empirical (Bhaskar, 1975). It argues that while the obdurate world can be experienced and observed, the world would be better understood through an exploration of the underlying causal mechanisms (Wheelahan, 2007a).

The three levels thus constitute a layered ontology which is based on the premise that the parts of the world that are experienced and observed by us are the outcome of the interplay of certain objects and entities in the different domains. The *empirical domain* is where experiences and observations take place. It is the starting point for all enquiry. For example, in the Marketing diploma, the empirical is represented by the enacted curriculum i.e. what is experienced at the pedagogic level through teaching sessions, self-study and assessments.

Events occur in the *domain of the actual*, however they may be experienced differently at the empirical domain dependent on who the persons are observing and experiencing such events. Furthermore, events in the actual domain occur regardless of whether or not people are aware of them or are present to experience them. Events are the outcomes of the interplay between objects and entities with causal powers (Easton, 2010). In essence, the domain of the actual consists of all objects and entities that have been activated (Gorski, 2013). The planned curriculum sits at the level of the actual as in it are the ideas that underpin the selection of knowledge, its pacing and sequencing. Students may or may not get to experience the curriculum. The planned curriculum is not experienced the same way as the enacted curriculum.

The activation of causal powers and liabilities of objects and entities at the *domain of the real* gives rise to what can take place and ultimately what can be seen. “The domain of the real consists of all the ‘mechanisms’ that exist in the world, which is to say, of all the various levels and types of entities with their various powers and tendencies” (Gorski, 2013, p. 665). However, entities and their activity at the domains of the actual and the real may not always be observed (Easton, 2010). Institutional and national policies may or may not be observed at the other levels but may impact on the nature of assessments and pedagogic practices for example through mechanisms like funding policies which may encourage more time and resource to be invested in a particular type of research at the expense of curriculum development and improving pedagogic practices.

Critical realism is concerned with causal explanations. Its three levels, or depth ontology, affords the ability to explain experiences, observations, and events as outcomes from structures and mechanisms which have causal and generative powers. "A causal explanation is one that identifies entities and the mechanisms that connect them and combine to cause events to occur" (Easton, 2010, p. 122). The importance of critical realism is not only that it generates explanations for the not readily observable deep nature of reality (transphenomenality), but that it also seeks plausible accounts for when the causal mechanisms seem to contradict what they cause (counterphenomenality).

When seeking causal explanations, critical realism takes a cautious position and acknowledges, especially in the social sciences, the fact that entities with causal powers interact in an open system in which the number of entities and conditions of interaction are largely uncontrollable. The open system is typical of the social sciences such as in the case of this research where the curriculum emerged from a myriad set of mechanisms working in a complex interplay.

To understand causal explanation, it is important to briefly explore what a mechanism is and to note that the basis of causation is provided by "the generative mechanisms of nature" (Bhaskar, 2008, p. 3). While Bhaskar (1975, p. 193) gave a summary of mechanisms as "nothing other than the powers or ways of acting of things," Easton (2010, p. 122) added that mechanisms "are ways in which structured entities by means of their powers and liabilities act and cause particular events".

Causation does not necessarily constitute a constant pattern. This is a common "erroneous view of causation" which arises as "much that has been written on methods of explanation assumes that causation is a matter of regularities in relationships between events, and that without models of regularities" the social sciences "are left with allegedly inferior, 'ad hoc' narratives" (Sayer, 1992, p. 2). Critical realism posits that everyday experiences are generated through the interaction of the powers embedded in several autonomous material entities and generative mechanisms with embedded powers (Harvey, 2002). These are reciprocally interactive. Furthermore, the interaction takes place in the three domains generally "out of phase" (Gorski, 2013, p. 665), in a non-linear manner, generating staggered rhythms. The outcomes of the interaction are not independent of historical constitution and yet are changing or, in other words, producing a world of historically constituted, evolving constellations (Harvey, 2002).

When a mechanism is activated, some entities may or may not be activated. The activated entities may enact their powers in varying proportions based on timing. Therefore, even if mechanisms are consistently activated, "any mechanism, could be mediated by other mechanisms and variations in conditions" and depending on "conditions, the same mechanism may sometimes produce different events, and conversely the same type of event may have different causes" (Sayer, 1992, p. 106). The causal powers of entities can be activated under certain conditions albeit variably. The presence of entities with causal powers does not mean the powers will always be activated or that it will be activated in full, indeed it could be realised without interacting with other forces. Therefore, the presence of an entity with causal powers when a mechanism is activated does not mean that that particular entity will be activated and enact its full power without opposition or interference from other entities. Furthermore, given the open nature of the world, unexpected entities may enact their own powers and thus cause new, unexpected outcomes.

A key tenet of critical realism is that it uses causal language (Sayer, 2000) to give a better explanation of reality. Whether outcomes are new or expected, in critical realist terms they are understood as emergent from entities and conditions that made them possible. As entities with causal powers are activated, their powers interact and create new entities with new properties, characteristics, and even new powers. The new entities and their new powers are not reducible to their originating components; that is to say, they cannot be broken down to their originating entities. A causal explanation seeks to account for "the relationship between causal laws and observable events" (Gorski, 2013, p. 665), yet causal laws must be analysed as the *tendencies* of entities with causal powers (Bhaskar, 2008). Tendencies may be regarded as powers or liabilities of a thing or entity which may be exercised without being manifest in any particular outcome (Bhaskar, 2008). A better explanation is achieved though turning the focus from the event to the entities that make them possible based on the argument (understanding) that entities, and not events, are governed by laws (Bhaskar, 1975).

Causal language constitutes transfactual statements to acknowledge the tendentiality of propositions as causal "laws govern entities, not events, they describe tendencies, not regularities" (Gorski, 2013, p. 665). To reflect the causal powers of entities and social relations, explanations are made independent of regularities but tendentially (Sayer, 1992) and the nature of outcomes is explained probabilistically (Harvey, 2002). Critical realism therefore seeks to generate explanations based on the understanding that "the world has always been unpredictable", however, it also acknowledges that there are acceptable explanations as the world is not radically unknowable (Wheelahan, 2007b).

The consequences of this ontological position for this study was that I had to move beyond the analytical description of data to begin to establish what mechanisms might be at play in the emergence of the Marketing curriculum. Critical realism served as the "underlabourer" in this study, that is, it made explicit the nature of truth in this study and it cleared the ground of various ontological and epistemological deliberations. However, it did not provide the tools I used to analyse the data in order to answer my research question. For that, I turned to a realist theory that offered a toolbox for data analysis – Legitimation Code Theory.

3.7 Background to Legitimation Code Theory (LCT)

While critical realism provided the depth ontology which enabled the understanding of events and experiences beyond what was observable, this study used Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) which provided the "language and tools" (Mkhize, 2015) to describe and analyse issues in the Marketing curriculum beyond the limits of everyday experiences. Legitimation Code Theory is based on the understanding that our social practices are made up of ideas and knowledges, and in a field like Marketing some ideas are considered valid and worthy while others are not. Furthermore, a lot of our values and expectations are coded, i.e. presented in compressed forms which are not always made explicit. As a theory, LCT provided a set of lenses that enabled the coded practices to be demystified and made explicit so that their effects could be considered.

LCT is a realist theory developed by Maton (2005, 2010, 2014). "LCT views knowledge as both socially produced and real" (Maton & Chen, 2017, p. 2). Thus, knowledge emerges from its historical context and is never neutral. In critical realist terms, knowledge is understood to be in the realm of the empirical. However, it should not be left there as relativist. LCT demonstrates that knowledge is also a structure with real effects in the world. Fundamental to LCT, and in line with its realist base, knowledge is seen to act as a mechanism in how teaching and learning of that knowledge takes place.

LCT integrates a wide range of approaches but "its principal foundations reside in Basil Bernstein's code theory" (Maton & Chen, 2014, p. 2). It also draws on Pierre Bourdieu's field theory and his notion of autonomy (Maton, 2005). To account for the real, LCT's knowledge structures draw from Bernstein to focus on "the nature of that context itself" (Maton & Chen, 2017, p. 2). However, knowledge structures do not exist independently of knowers to whom knowledge is unevenly accessible based on the group one belongs to. LCT therefore draws from Bourdieu and highlights that knowers can be valued and organised into a hierarchy based on the dispositions of the knowers i.e. their ways of acting, thinking, and being (Maton & Chen, 2017). Dispositions mean that in some fields one needs to be a particular kind of person to be considered legitimate, whereas in others, this might be less significant.

Legitimation Code Theory was selected as an analytical tool for this study as it allowed a more thorough understanding of the Marketing curriculum. This is because LCT is premised on the understanding that both knowledge structures and knower structures influence the nature of the curriculum. Bringing together knowledge and knower structures is important, as much research on students has "focused on the student alone" attributing challenges faced by students to "cultural attributes or language barriers of those students" (Maton & Chen, 2017b, p. 1). The resulting findings concluded with a "deficit view" of students who were portrayed as lacking the "attitudes or qualities required for success" in education (Maton & Chen, 2017, p. 1). Such approaches have often been coupled with "knowledge blindness" (Maton, 2014) which is a tendency to ignore that knowledges have a structure which affect the nature of the curriculum and may also affect pedagogy and assessment. To further understand the knowledge and knower structures in LCT, it is necessary to briefly explore how LCT draws from Bernstein's knowledge structures and then from Bourdieu's field approach.

3.8 Bernstein and Knowledge Structures

Bernstein described different knowledges as constructed and cumulatively built in different ways. He differentiated between horizontal discourse and vertical discourse. Horizontal discourse is understood as "everyday common sense knowledge" and vertical discourse "as scholarly, professional or official knowledge" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 157). The vertical discourse of the academy takes different forms and, according to Bernstein, is representative of the two main disciplinary divides. In the natural sciences, it consists of "a coherent, explicit, and systematically principled structure" and is "hierarchically organised" and in the humanities and social sciences "it takes the form of a series of specialised languages with specialised modes of interrogation and specialised criteria for the production and circulation of texts" (Bernstein, 1999, p. 159). Bernstein (2000) also highlighted that these broad categorisations are only for analytical purposes and that in practice, the distinctions would not be so clear cut and that these knowledge structures may overlap.

The vertical discourse was further developed to reveal the structures of knowledges culminating in two modalities, hierarchical knowledge structures and horizontal knowledge structures (Bernstein, 2000). These knowledges structures are helpful in understanding the systematic manner in which different fields are organised.

Hierarchical knowledge structures use the integrating principle to bring together knowledge at lower levels, creating more general propositions and theories across an expanding range of apparently different phenomena (Bernstein, 2000). It is aimed at achieving greater and greater integrating propositions, building knowledges cumulatively, and developing more and more abstract ideas (Bernstein, 2000) as shown in the illustration in Figure 3.1 below.

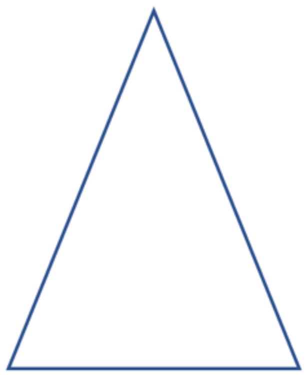

Figure 3.1: Hierarchical Knowledge Structure (Maton, 2014, p. 92)

Horizontal knowledge structures, on the other hand, comprise "a series of segmented strongly bounded languages" (Maton, 2007, p. 91). They are mostly context specific and usually consist of a long series of independent, unconnected knowledges where knowing one set of ideas does not help in knowing the other. For example, to learn how "to tie up one's shoes bears no relation to how to use the lavatory correctly" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 159). An illustration of the horizontal knowledge structure is shown in Figure 3.2 below.

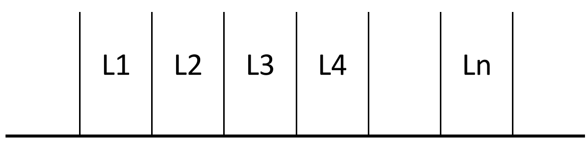

Figure 3.2: Horizontal Knowledge Structure (Maton, 2014, p. 92)

Horizontal knowledge structures are typically made up of subject areas or specialisations that are based on different ideas and therefore allow the knower to perceive the world differently. Each segment would typically develop a preferred speaker or knower thus creating an independent criteria for deciding "what counts as evidence and what counts as legitimate questions or a legitimate problematic" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 163). A horizontal knowledge structure is a "series of specialised languages, each with its own specialised modes of interrogation and specialised criteria with non-comparable principles of description based on different, often opposed, assumptions" (Bernstein, 1996, pp. 172-173). They are based on different assumptions and therefore the segmental set of languages are not translatable. The untranslatability of segmental languages means that the integrating principle does not apply as explicitly in the building of knowledges (Bernstein, 2000) as it does on the hierarchical knowledge structure.

Bernstein thus offered us the idea that knowledge is not structured in the same way in all contexts and fields. He showed that coming to understand the structure of the knowledge assists in understanding how that knowledge can be produced and reproduced. Having explored Bernstein's concept of knowledge structures, I now explore some of Bourdieu's sociology in which he focused more on the role of education as a mechanism for reinforcing social structures.

3.9 Bourdieu

LCT draws explicitly on Bourdieu's focus on the person, the knowers. Bourdieu's theory was centred on the premise that "actors' practices are the outcomes of their dispositions relating to their contexts" (Maton & Doran, 2017, p. 2). LCT draws particularly on the components of Bourdieu's framework of field, habitus, autonomy, and capital.

Fields of practice are understood as constituted by actors or people with shared interests and norms, in other words shared dispositions. The dispositions can be both explicit and implicit and govern the knowledges valued in the field and how the knowledges are produced and communicated (Arbee, 2012). Maton (2005, p. 689) also argued that the field can be understood as “a configuration of positions comprising agents (individuals, groups of actors or institutions) struggling to maximize their position”.

The disposition of actors is more closely associated with habitus, which Ashwin (2008, p. 152) referred to as “the notion of the cognitive unconscious, in which individuals’ perceptions of social fields are structured in ways that are largely invisible to the agents who operate within them”. The habitus is a set of values and discourses which constitute a person’s semi-conscious disposition and are articulated as necessarily and inherently true. They are particularly developed either in a person’s early life and or in their part in a social field (Arbee, 2012). Habitus is thus also described as a structured and structuring structure (Maton, 2005). It is structured because it is the result of past conditioning and it is structuring because it plays a role in shaping current practices.

Dispositions affect players in a field, as the “agents are defined by their relational position within the field’s distribution of capital (resources conferring power or status) and from which they derive properties irreducible to intrinsic characteristics of the agents themselves” (Maton, 2005, p. 689). However, the dispositions taken by agents within the field also have influences on those outside the field and in particular, those who wish to enter the field (Arbee, 2012). This raises social justice implications about access to knowledges, especially when those dispositions legitimated in a field are implicit. When dispositions are implicit, the outsider trying to get in may not be able to figure out how they ought to behave and are denied access into the field because they fail to act in ways deemed appropriate in the field.

Bourdieu’s framework allows for analysis of how agents are differentially positioned in relation to knowledge. This has the potential to illuminate the social aspects of education as Maton (2005, p. 688) argued, that it “enables the irreducible social structure of higher education to be seen as an object of study in its own right”. LCT draws on this potential, builds on it, and together with Bernstein’s epistemic relations developed a number of tools.

3.10 Introducing Legitimation Code Theory (LCT)

Legitimation Code Theory tools enable researchers to see how it is that certain behaviours, practices, or people get legitimated in different fields. The tools therefore enable knowledge practices to be seen, their organisation principles to be conceptualised, and their effects to be explored (Maton, 2014). Thus far, LCT’s conceptual toolkit consists of five dimensions which are Autonomy, Specialisation, Semantics, Temporality, and Density, with each of the dimensions having concepts for analysing organising principles across a range of fields (Maton, 2014).

LCT has been used to ask questions similar to those of this study in areas as diverse as music (Maton, 2014), engineering (Case, 2013), history (Macnaught, Maton, Martin, & Matruglio, 2013) and public management (Lück, 2014); in courtroom argumentation (Toll & Shi, 2019), in engineering (Wolff, 2018), in justice (Martin & Zappavigna, 2019), in anthropology (McCartney, 2018), and in translanguaging (Karlsson et al., 2018).

This study predominantly drew on Legitimation Code Theory's dimension of Specialisation. However, the tools are not mutually exclusive and therefore the study also makes some reference to other tools like Autonomy although they were not extensively used. The enactment of these dimensions was focused on making the implicit explicit; they helped understand how the Marketing curriculum is structured and thereby explicated its effects on enabling or constraining epistemological access. Making the implicit explicit is central to addressing issues of social justice in education. I will now discuss the LCT tools that I drew on in the analysis of my data starting with Specialisation.

3.11 Specialisation

Specialisation is based on the "premise that every practice is about or oriented towards something and by someone" (Huang & Chen, 2017, p. 3). It distinguishes between two empirically inseparable but analytically distinguishable relations of knowledge (Maton, 2014). In other words, every practice always has both knowledge, that which it is about, and a knower, the person behind the knowledge. Specialisation enables the legitimation bases for membership, authority, achievement, and status to be observed (Arbee, Hugo, & Thomson, 2014). The knowledge component is referred to as the epistemic relations and the focus on the knower constitutes the social relations. Specialisation therefore requires an initial understanding of how epistemic relations and social relations are distinguishable and how they are brought together to reveal the underlying principles which determine that which is legitimated. I therefore start with a brief discussion of epistemic relations as distinguishable from social relations and then show how they can be brought together, making up four codes with the potential to reveal some tacit practices.

3.11.1 Epistemic relations

Epistemic relations (ER) refers to the degree to which emphasis is placed on the possession of specialist disciplinary knowledge, skills, procedures, and techniques. In other words, the extent to which knowledge is a focus in a field or curriculum (Maton, 2014). Epistemic relations are between practices and their object and often the nature of the field determines the acceptable methods of getting to the knowledges which can be considered credible. These relations highlight questions of what can be legitimately described as knowledge. Epistemic relations are typically strongly evident in cases where focusing on what can be known and how it can be known is important, where knowledge is strongly privileged and legitimacy relates to proficiency in the discipline's specialist knowledges and techniques (Maton, 2014).

Epistemic relations may be more strongly (+) or weakly (-) emphasised. Stronger epistemic relations (ER+) means that emphasis is placed on the possession of specialist Marketing disciplinary knowledge, skills, procedures, and techniques, in other words, on what one knows and how. Weak epistemic relations (ER-) means that the knowledge, skills, procedures, and techniques are downplayed (Arbee, 2012).

3.11.2 Social Relations

Social Relations (SR) focuses on the relations between knowledge and who may claim to know that knowledge. Social relations refers to the degree to which being a particular kind of person is privileged in a field. The kind of a person may or may not be strongly significant in who has a voice and the extent to which some may or may not be seen to embody credible ideas of the discipline. SR thus refers to the extent to which legitimacy i.e. one's voice and credibility, is based on the personal attributes and dispositions of its actors.

As with ER, social relations can be traced on a continuum of relative strengths and can be stronger (SR+) or weaker (SR-) with infinite capacity for gradation. Where social relations are strongly emphasised, an actor is legitimated by virtue of who the speaker is. In such instances, the speaker is valued because of their unique and privileged disposition, also understood as a *gaze* (Maton, 2010), as will be discussed in Section 3.12. Where social relations are weakly emphasised, the speaker's unique characteristics and dispositions are not valued as a key means to legitimacy and so to be a legitimate knower, you do not have to take a particular gaze on the world.

3.11.3 Specialisation codes

It is important to note that all fields and disciplines have both epistemic relations and social relations. Specialisation allows the strengths and weaknesses of these two relations, ER and SR, to be identified across multiple data sets, and thus enables the specific dominant forms of the knowledge and knower structures to be identified and analysed. In this study, Specialisation was enacted to identify the extent to which both specialist knowledge (ER) and being a particular kind of knower (SR) form the basis on which success is accorded in the Marketing diploma.

The Specialisation dimension of epistemic relations and social relations can be brought together and thus generate four main codes shown in Figure 3.3 below where legitimacy is primarily determined by:

- The possession of explicit principles and procedures (knowledge code);
- Attitudes, aptitudes, or dispositions (knower code);
- Both specialist knowledge and knower attributes (elite code) or
- Neither (relativist code) (Maton, 2014).

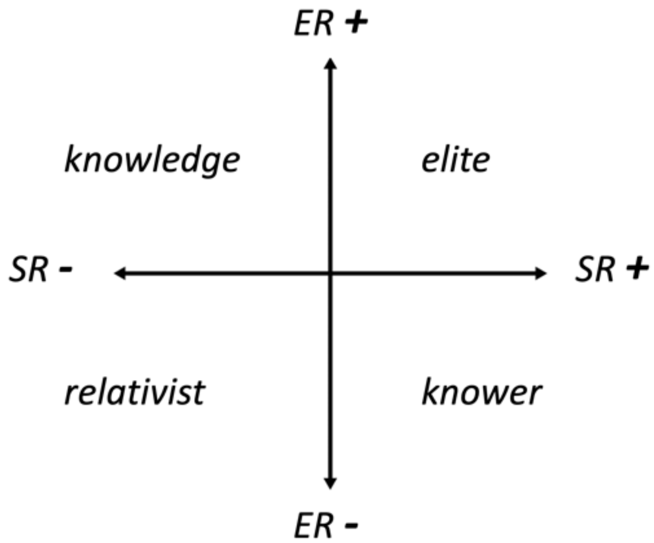

Figure 3.3: Specialisation codes (Maton 2014, p. 30)

This study analysed data from the Marketing diploma using the four Specialisation codes and identified the ones that are dominant, going on to discuss the implications of the dominance of some codes for epistemological access. It did this to address the research goal of understanding the nature of the knowledge and knower structures in the Marketing diploma.

It should be noted that data from a single source might be coded as any of the four Specialisation codes, and so what is often sought is to identify which is dominant. Furthermore, the codes are topological rather than typological and there are numerous positions that could be plotted within any code.

3.12 The Social Plane

While the Specialisation tool was used to analyse the extent to which having a particular set of knowledge, skills, and practices is necessary for legitimate participation in the Marketing curriculum and the extent to which having a particular disposition is necessary for legitimate participation in the Marketing curriculum, this did not give sufficient breadth of view into the structure and power of knowledge or the structure and power of knowers. For this I have looked into the social plane as a further tool which enabled an in-depth analysis of the nature of the social relations (Maton, 2014).

In this study, the social plane was used to analyse the focus on knowers and their dispositions in the data. It is typically useful in horizontal knowledge structures especially those in which knowledge is understood as embodied in the person who knows, the knower. Knowers are valued due to their dispositions, and dispositions are a unique way of experiencing the world (Bernstein, 2000). The social plane theorises forms of knowing based on who the actors are and how the actors get to know. Such actors constitute a knower in which the ideal knower possesses a privileged gaze (Maton, 2014). A gaze can be understood as the ear, taste, touch or feel embodied by knowers or their actions (Bernstein, 2000). It is that particular mode of recognising and realising what counts as authentic. Gazes can also be illustrated on a continuum of social relations as shown in Figure 3.4.

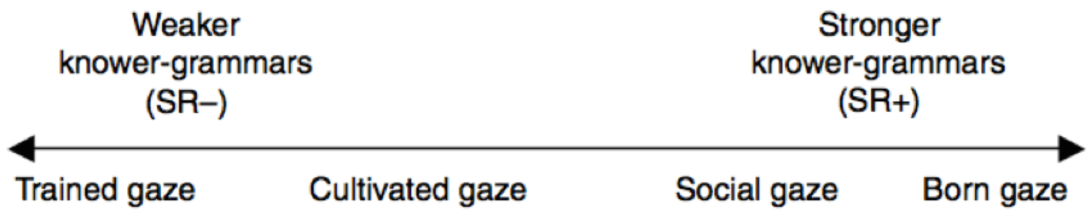

Figure 3.4: Knower-grammars[9] and gazes (Maton & Moore 2010, p. 166)

The continuum illustrates the different strengths of social relations (SR) from stronger social relations (SR++) to weaker social relations (SR--) with implications for ease of entry for new knowers. The strength of the social relations also determines conditions of entry, trajectory of development, and ultimately the positions of knowers within a field's hierarchy (Maton, 2014).

The born gaze is characterised by stronger social relations (SR++), where how good someone is, is mostly attributed to natural talent and genius (Maton, 2014). For example, we say someone has an ear for music or a green thumb for gardening, both of which suggest that the kind of knower being legitimated is assumed to emerge from characteristics naturally inherent in the legitimate knower. The inability to gain such legitimacy would then be assumed to be because you lack such an inherent attribute, that is, you were not 'born' with it.

The social gaze is characterised by relatively strong social relations (SR+) where how legitimate one is, is determined by social categories like social class, race, gender, and sexuality (Maton, 2014). Much of the literature on leadership served to illustrate the social gaze, as they mainly indicate that strong leadership is about assertiveness and confidence and go on to indicate assumptions that such traits are 'masculine' in nature (Berdahl, Cooper, Glick, Livingston, & Williams, 2018; Kelan, 2009; Kunchynka, Bosson, Vandello, & Puryear, 2018).

The cultivated gaze has relatively weak social relations (SR-) where the legitimacy of the knower arises from dispositions which can be inculcated. This is mostly achieved through prolonged exposure to that which is considered legitimate knowledge (Maton, 2014). While such a gaze is *relatively* weaker, there is still always a knower and, in this case, one can say

[9] The term grammar/s is sometimes used to refer to the strength of social relations where stronger grammars refer to stronger social relations and weaker grammars refer to weaker social relations.

that becoming a knower is understood to be a process relatively open to anyone provided they are given ample opportunities to understand and take on the legitimated disposition.

The trained gaze is characterised by the weakest social relations (SR--) (Maton, 2014). However, there is still a knower, in this case though, the demonstration of the kind of knower one must be is really open to all. One can be fairly easily trained into the legitimated disposition or 'way of being'.

The kind of gaze that is deemed to underpin the legitimate knower has extensive pedagogical implications. For example, if the legitimacy of the 'knower' is understood to be a matter of being born with certain dispositions, then there is little the curriculum can do beyond honing pre-existing ways of being. On the other hand, as another example, if the 'knower' is understood to comprise a simple set of ways of being that anyone can fairly readily acquire, as in the trained gaze, then these can be explicitly included in the curriculum. The implications for curriculum are discussed in more detail in the findings chapters, Chapter Five, Six and Seven, where the gazes in the data are discussed.

In this study, the social plane was enacted to analyse the parts of the data which focused on people and dispositions. In the social plane, we can trace how practices are specialised by actors based on who they are and how the actors get to know. This brings about an empirically inseparable but analytically distinct categorisation of subjective relations (SubR) and interactional relations (IR).

Subjective relations refer to when actors get to know based on who they are, where the identity of the actors is acknowledged to be subjective. How actors get to know is often through numerous subjective ways which include socially constructed categories like "social class, sex, gender, race, ethnicity, sexuality, religion, region etc" (Maton, 2014, p. 185). The subjective relations (SubR) can be traced on a continuum of relative strengths and can thus be stronger (SubR+) or weaker (SubR-) "with infinite capacity for gradation" (Maton, 2014, p. 30). The continua allow infinite or multiple tracking of ways of knowing.

Interactional Relations (IR) refers to how actors get to know through interactions with more established actors, for example, when a child learns from interacting with a parent or when an apprentice learns from interacting with a master. How actors get to know can be understood by the level of interaction with the significant others who are legitimate knowers, the masters in the field. In contemporary high technology society, the significant others can be subjects or objects or forms of interaction other than human, for example, apprentices may also learn from interaction with mechanical simulators of real-life events. The Interactional Relations (IR) can be traced on a continuum of relative strengths where they can be stronger (IR+) or weaker (IR-) with an infinite capacity for gradation.

The social plane brings together the subjective relations and the interactional relations to produce four codes known as gazes, which are the born gaze, the social gaze, the cultivated gaze, and the trained gaze shown in Figure 3.5 on the following page.

The gazes are made up of subjective relations and interactional relations in the following ways:

- Born gaze – characterised by both stronger subjective relations (SubR+) and stronger interactional relations (IR+). To be the kind of knower specialised in this case, you would need to have the legitimate identity (SubR+) and this is honed through extensive interaction with appropriate objects and others (IR+).
- Social gaze – characterised by stronger subjective relations (SubR+) and weaker interactive relations (IR-). This kind of knower is legitimated based on their socially constructed identity, for example, when a woman is expected to know better about pregnancy just because of their gender (SubR+). Interaction relations with significant others is downplayed (IR-).
- Cultivated gaze – characterised by weaker subjective relations (SubR-) and stronger interactional relations (IR+). To hold a cultivated gaze one's socially constructed identity does not matter but their interactional relations are seen as more important, for example, when it does not matter that a gynaecologist is a woman (SubR-) but that they have a lot of experience dealing with issues of pregnancy (IR+).
- Trained gaze – characterised by both weaker subjective relations (SubR-) and weaker interactional relations (IR-). In the trained gaze it is what one knows, for example, a mathematician is often accredited on the basis of their competences in mathematics and not who they are (SubR-) or who taught them (IR-).

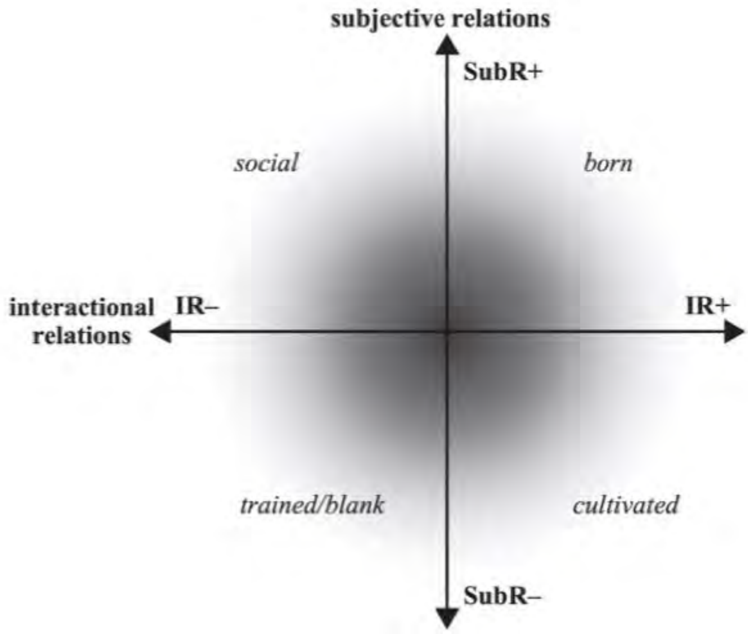

Figure 3.5: The social plane (Maton, 2014, p. 186)

While there are four types of gazes, LCT acknowledges that a specific gaze may dominate but may not be universal and transparent. When reflecting on different practices actors in a field may be explicit about a single gaze, switch gazes, or describe experiences between gazes. Actors with a privileged gaze are identified as legitimate knowers in the field.

3.13 Semantics and the Semantic Plane

Having enacted the social plane to further analyse the social relations, the LCT dimension of Semantics afforded me a further analytical tool to analyse the internal structuring and cumulative building of knowledge. Semantics articulates the context dependence and condensation of meaning in a field of practice. It offers the concepts of semantic gravity (SG) and semantic density (SD) which give insight into the organising principles of knowledge practices in a field (Maton 2013).

Semantic gravity deals with the degree to which meaning relates to its social or symbolic context. It can be traced on a continuum from one end in which meaning is more closely related to its context (SG+) to the other end where weaker meaning is more generalised, more abstract, and less dependent on context (SG-).

Semantic density refers to the degree to which meaning is condensed within sociocultural practices like cultural artefacts, symbols, expressions, and gestures. Semantic density can be traced on a continuum from one end where more meanings are condensed within practices in which semantic density is said to be stronger (SD+), to the other end where less meanings are condensed within a socio-cultural practice thus characterising weaker semantic density (SD-) (Maton, 2005).

In the semantic plane, the semantic density and the semantic gravity are brought together to yield four principal codes shown in Figure 3.6 on the following page. The codes are made up in the following ways.

- Worldly code – characterised by both stronger semantic gravity (SG+) and stronger semantic density (SD+).
- Rhizomatic code – characterised by weaker semantic gravity (SG-) and stronger semantic density (SD+).
- Rarefied code – characterised by both weaker semantic gravity (SG-) and weaker semantic density (SD-).
- Prosaic code – characterised by stronger semantic gravity (SG+) and weaker semantic density (SD-).

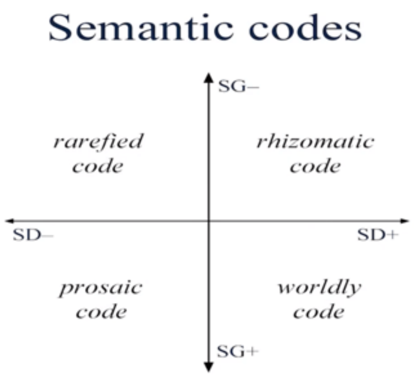

Figure 3.6: The semantic plane (Maton & Chen, 2020, p. 64)

While the above codes appear in four quadrants, it is important to note that, as with the use of planes in other LCT tools, the variation in strengths of both semantic density and semantic gravity allow an infinite gradation and a tracking of changes with a code and movement across codes and thus have the power to illuminate the structure of knowledge practices.

3.14 Semantic Profile

The concepts of semantic density and semantic gravity can be used to chart changes in a practice over time in what is called a profile. Profiling can involve charting semantic density from stronger to weaker or similarly semantic gravity from stronger to weaker (Maton, 2014). In other words, semantics can be traced from complex to simple, abstract to contextual. An analysis over time can show how there is change for semantic gravity or for semantic density. Or if moving in opposite directions they can be traced together at the same time to reveal the more complex relation between several ideas or knowledges represented by the codes.

Figure 3.7 shows three simplified semantics profiles, the simple scale of strengths is shown on the y-axis and time on the x-axis. The profiles trace the changes of strength over time e.g. explanation of a theory, narration of possible pedagogic practice. Semantic profiles which can be characteristically flat lines showing that they do not move up and down much or they could be classified as semantic waves to signify a more observable movement up and down. Semantic flatlines can be further classified by their position on the semantic profile. In teaching a high semantic flat line often reflects constant complex theorizing and using dense technical language. A low semantic flatline often shows a constant practice of describing without engaging theory.

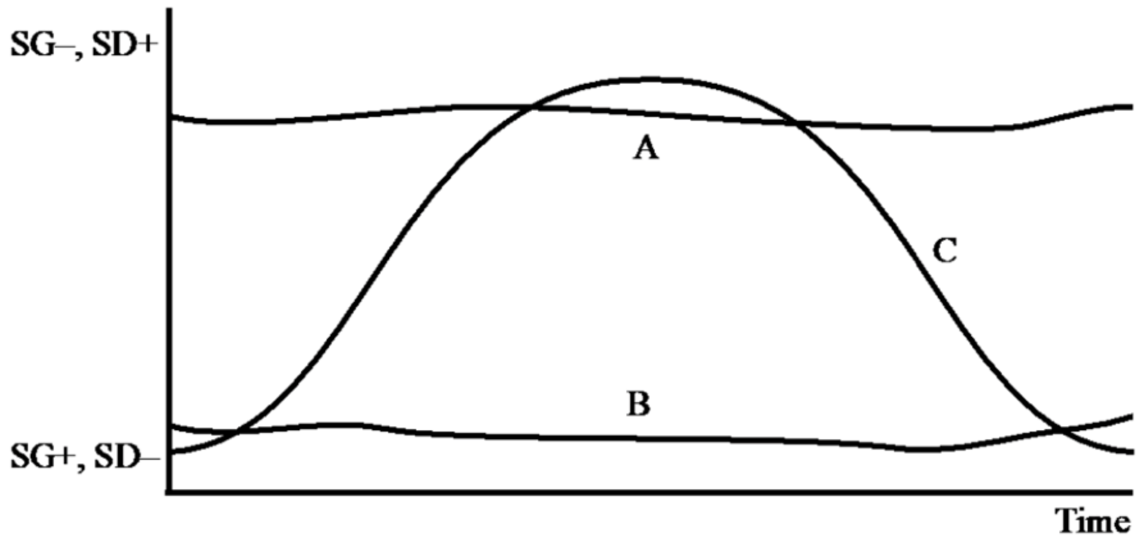

Figure 3.7: Semantic profile (Maton 2013, p. 13)

Semantic profiles have been used in research in a wide range of research areas including tracing writer performance in academic literacy tests (Msusa, 2019); to unpack pedagogy in political science and to teach students to make meaningful connections between their personal experiences and theory when writing (Wilmot, 2019). Use of semantic profiles have often revealed the challenges of segmentalism and in education pedagogy semantic profiles have been used to give students access to the codes of practice in a field of study. In classroom practice, Maton (2014) describes an uncommon wave which is characterized as a downward shift, in which explanations were characterized by movements from complex, decontextualized ideas to simple and concrete meanings but didn't move back up. While a wave can start from anywhere in the profile, when it doesn't complete the wave cycle it often characterizes an incomplete or weaker practice or explanation in the case of pedagogic practice.

3.15 Conclusion

This chapter discussed how I took a critical realist position as the philosophical underpinning of the study and enacted Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) in the analysis of the data. Prior to proposing the study and collecting the data, I was exposed to several other philosophical frameworks which could have been used to conceptualise the study, for example cultural historical activity theory or Critical Discourse Analysis, but these did not enable adequate addressing of the research questions. I found Legitimation Code Theory compelling as it focuses on knowledge and the dynamics behind its legitimation. I therefore used both critical realism and LCT to conceptualise my study, with LCT as the theoretical framework.

Critical realism is a selection of philosophies which underpinned the conceptualisation of this study. As a conceptual framework it brought "together a number of related concepts to explain" and "give a broader understanding" of issues in the Marketing curriculum (Imenda, 2014, p. 189). Critical realism is based on the premise that reality may not resemble what can be seen and requires the ability of the researcher to constantly check and often suspend their preconceptions.

This chapter also introduced LCT and its tools. LCT is a theoretical framework based on the understanding that our social practices are made up of ideas and knowledges and in a field of practice some ideas are considered valid and worthy while others are not. It also shows that a lot of our values and expectations are coded, i.e. not made explicit. In the next chapter I discuss the methodology which was informed by both LCT and critical realism.

Chapter Four: Methodology

4.1 Introduction and Research Design

This study sought to understand the knowledge and knower structures in a Marketing curriculum. Research which is a “systematic, controlled, empirical, and critical investigation of phenomena” (De Vos et al., 2005, p. 41) is guided by theory to ensure that it does not lack direction. The theory contributes to a better understanding of the issues in curriculum (Imenda, 2014). Theories may be contained in paradigms or conceptual and theoretical frameworks which serve the purpose of indicating the perspective taken by a researcher to frame the study.

The purpose of this chapter is to show the problems I faced dealing with the rather complex intersections between conceptual framing and theoretical framing of the study in relation to the design of the research and its philosophical underpinning. The research design is a structure that is necessary to facilitate the collection and analysis of data to ensure that a meaningful outcome is achieved. It is argued “the central role of research design is to minimize the chance of drawing incorrect causal inferences from data” (de Vaus, 2005, p. 16). The purpose of this chapter is to describe the process of implementing the data collection and analysis in ways that allow the reader to scrutinise the strength of the inferences I provide in subsequent chapters.

This study sought to understand the curriculum as seen through the eyes of academics and was thus underpinned by a qualitative research design which is compatible with the social sciences which requires a loose structuring of research as “a characteristic connected to its flexibility and that can lead both to potentially better … results” (Aspers & Corte, 2019, p. 147). Qualitative research further allows a focus on the perspectives of participants “and provides them with opportunities to articulate their thoughts about issues they consider important, allowing them to reflect on these issues of concern to gain understanding and acquire new insights” (Holton, 2008, p. 45). This study was informed by an understanding that academics have great influence over that which goes into a curriculum. They do this as they hold much of the power to select the knowledge and decide how it is sequenced, paced, and accessed (Bernstein, 2009).

While this chapter and the rest of the thesis may have a chronological order, this chapter also reveals that the research process occurred in a non-linear trajectory. The conceptual framework was iterative to achieve a more informed way of asking questions. The iterative research design involved a continuous movement to and from the philosophical underpinning, the theory, the conceptualisation of the question, and the logistical constrains of data collection in an attempt to achieve a better understand of the Marketing curriculum.

4.2 Research Questions

In order to understand the issues in the Marketing curriculum the study started with the goal to establish how the positioning of actors in the field of Marketing impacts on the choice and structure of knowledge privileged in the curricula of the Marketing diploma. It sought to ask the following research questions:

1. What kind of knowledge is privileged in the Marketing curriculum?
2. How does the positioning of actors in the field of Marketing education impact on the choice and structure of knowledge privileged in the curriculum?

Actors refer to people or knowers in a field, whose actions or lack thereof can be understood based on their access to power and status. The positions may be hierarchically arranged related to authority and based on achievement and status (Maton & Chen, 2014). In the university, the positions of teaching assistant, junior lecturer, lecturer, senior lecturer, professor, and head of department may be indicators of the power an individual holds and such power may further influence their access to different types of ideas and their ability to bring such ideas into the curriculum.

4.3 Pilot Interview

At the time of the development of the proposal, as I had become confident with the philosophical framework and Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) as a possible theoretical framework, I undertook a pilot study. One of the purposes of a pilot study is “the development of an appropriate research design” (White, 2011, p. 244).

The pilot interview was conducted with a senior lecturer who taught a diploma course in a department similar to Marketing but who was not part of this study. The pilot interview helped to not only test the interview schedule for flaws, limitations, and other weaknesses in terms of the quality of data provided, but also allowed me to test the recording equipment and to refine my ability to make the respondent feel at ease; it allowed me to practice against the leading of respondents to give the interviewer desired responses (Muposhi, 2015). The pilot interview therefore assisted me to refine the research instruments leading to the development of an interview schedule with fewer main questions, more open in nature, and supported by prompts (Muposhi, 2015).

The pilot interview was 47 minutes long, the recording equipment worked well, and the sound quality was good enough to assure me that I could use the same equipment. The respondent was very keen to talk about his experience; I, however, had to interject a few times to ask for clarification of acronyms and technical terms the respondent assumed I knew. This was a little uncomfortable, but the respondent assured me that they[10] were happy to explain. I learned that allowing the respondent to be an expert and seeking clarification from their expertise encourages respondents to speak more freely. The pilot interview also quelled my anxiety about respondents giving short answers which would not give sufficient detail. This gave me confidence as I undertook the interviews and helped me get longer interviews with rich data.

I then also tested my analysis of this interview to see whether I could make sense of the LCT tools, whether I could apply them sensibly, and whether the findings were significant and assisted in answering the research questions. Though this was just a single interview and my discussion thereof was very preliminary, I was convinced that the analytical tools were powerful. I presented my analysis of the pilot interview at the International Legitimation Code Theory Colloquium (July, 2015) and received useful feedback from the Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) theorists present. For example, a couple of comments helped me to track the interview changes over time as the respondents changed topics from focusing on students to focusing on curriculum; they assisted me to refrain from an earlier tendency to classify a respondent as inclined to a particular code. This assisted me to hold back on assigning an overall code prematurely and understanding that in some cases, different codes which may be

[10] I use “they” in place of gendered pronouns he or she, his or hers. Gender neutrality also aids with both anonymity and confidentiality.

seemingly contradictory can have an equal presence in an interview. However, while some respondents cannot be classified by dominant codes but rather a multiplicity of codes, others may indeed be inclined to a dominant code with minimal association to other codes. The feedback confirmed the theoretical framework as necessary tools for my proposed study and encouraged me to continue with the study.

4.4 Research Sites

The research sought to understand issues affecting the Marketing curriculum at a national level. This was in response to the call in an NRF report (Deacon et al., 2009) for educational studies that give a broader overview of what is happening across the South African higher education sector. This report showed that most research in South African higher education is rich and informative but is restricted to specific environments and institutions (Deacon et al., 2009). They further stated that 94% of education research has been small scale, frequently eclectic, and dominated by case study research, with less than 1% of research constituting large scale research (Deacon et al., 2009). There is therefore a need for research to be conducted at a larger scale to give insight into the state of higher education at national level.

This PhD study was undertaken as part of an NRF funded project on institutional differentiation (Grant number 87646, led by Professor Sioux McKenna) which brought together seven PhD scholars to undertake larger-scale higher education research on a variety of aspects of teaching and learning across the sector.

This study included all 11 institutions that offer the three-year Marketing diploma, nine of which are former Technikons. All the Technikons either merged or changed designations into Universities of Technology or Comprehensive Universities (CUs), in the last decade.

A further advantage of the study is that it adds to research done in and on CUs and Universities of Technology, which as Ashwin and Case (2018) stated, are under-researched. Most research in South Africa has been done in Traditional Universities and little in the other public universities. Universities of Technology are characterised by a focus on preparing students for the world of work through offering of qualifications directly linked to the job market, while CUs offer a combination of qualifications focused on the world of work like the Universities of Technology and production of new knowledge through research. Both types of institutions are discussed in detail in Section 2.2.4 on the outcomes of mergers on institutional differentiation.

The study included the University of South Africa (UNISA) which is predominantly a distance learning institution and is now classified as a CU after the mergers, also discussed in detail in Section 2.2.4. The study also included a private higher education institution, the IMM which specialises in Marketing. The IMM is introduced in Chapter One, Section 1.4 and the private higher education is discussed in Chapter Two, Section 2.2.4. The institutions included in the study and their institutional type classifications are shown in Table 4.1 on the following page.

Table 4.1: Marketing diploma student enrolments by institution type in 2017

Institution Name **Institutional Type and date of formation**	**Previous name(s)**	**Student Enrolment in the Marketing diploma (2017)**
Cape Peninsula University of Technology **University of Technology (2005)**	Cape Technikon Peninsula Technikon	599
http://www.cput.ac.za/about/history		
Central University of Technology **University of Technology (2004)**	No Merger Technikon Free State	550
https://www.cut.ac.za/cut-at-a-glance		
Durban University of Technology **University of Technology (2002)**	ML Sultan Technikon Technikon Natal	166
https://www.dut.ac.za/wp-content/uploads/menu/DUT_100.pdf		
Mangosuthu University of Technology **University of Technology (2007)**	No Merger Mangosuthu Technikon	982
https://www.mut.ac.za/historical-background/		
Nelson Mandela University **Comprehensive University (2005)**	PE Technikon University of Port Elizabeth Port Elizabeth campus of Vista University	406
https://www.mandela.ac.za/About-us/Our-impact/History		
Tshwane University of Technology **University of Technology (2004)**	Technikon Northern Gauteng Technikon North-West Technikon Pretoria	1165
https://www.studentroom.co.za/tshwane-university-of-technology-tut/		
University of Johannesburg **Comprehensive University (2005)**	Rand Afrikaans University Technikon Witwatersrand	326
https://www.uj.ac.za/corporateservices/quality-promotion/Documents/quality%20docs/uj/UJ_@_a_Glance%2013%20May%202009.pdf		

Institution Name Institutional Type and date of formation	Previous name(s)	Student Enrolment in the Marketing diploma (2017)
University of South Africa **Comprehensive University (2000-2004)**	University of South Africa Technikon SA Vista University's distance education branch.	688
https://www.sahistory.org.za/dated-event/university-south-africa-officially-opened-replacing-university-cape-good-hope		
Vaal University of Technology **University of Technology (2004)**	No merger Vaal Triangle Technikon (1979)	610
https://www.vut.ac.za/VUT-History/		
Walter Sisulu University **Comprehensive University (2005)**	University of Transkei Border Technikon Eastern Cape Technikon.	338
http://www.wsu.ac.za/waltersisulu/index.php/about-wsu/		
IMM Graduate School (1960) **Private Higher Education Institution**	Institute of Marketing Management (1948)	
https://www.imm.ac.za/about-us/		
Total Marketing diploma enrolments in public institutions (2017)		**5830 (excl IMM)**

4.5 Interviews

The bulk of the data collected was through interviews. All the interviews were conducted face-to-face. Below is a discussion of issues related to the interviews and the process of collecting interview data.

4.5.1 Sample size, validity, and reliability of interviews

After identifying the 11 institutions from which to collect data I sought to get as much representation in the interviews from each institution as possible. I ambitiously aimed to achieve at least one face-to-face interview from each of the institutions augmented with other online interviews. I did not set an upper limit on the number of academics who could be interviewed in each university, as there were no guarantees that interviews would be obtained from any of the institutions owing to the voluntary nature of participation in the research.

I was aware of the major criticism of qualitative research that the sample sizes are small and that the results are not easy to generalise or replicate (Harris, Brown, & Hong, 2010). However, the purpose of qualitative research is to understand an issue as it emerges and compare similar issues in a different situation. Or as White (2011, p. 237) stated: "Qualitative studies tend to be rooted in phenomena that are worth knowing for their own sake rather than as a necessary step towards generalization".

In critical realism, generalisations of experiences and events are not sought but the focus is to identify the mechanisms at play for the purpose of informing our understandings of other events and experiences. Such generalisations are cautiously made, given that we are in an open system and as discussed in Section 3.6, mechanisms have different effects in different contexts given other mechanisms at play.

In qualitative research, the actual number of respondents to be interviewed is unimportant, what is important is whether the respondents or the data can aid the researcher in developing theoretical insights into the issue under scrutiny (White, 2011). The validity is therefore not dependent on the number of respondents but the insights from the study. Having said all this, the study is a critical realist study underpinned by the understanding that the fluid and multiple explanations emerging from the data are at the level of the empirical; the interpretation/analysis does not end there, but begins to figure out what the world must be like for this data to be evident and what mechanisms are at play for these to emerge. Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) as a realist theory provides tools for this excavation.

As the research sought to understand what is valued in the Marketing diploma curriculum across the 11 institutions, the initial approach was to attempt to interview the academic in each of the marketing departments who had taught many of the core subjects in the diploma or the head of department. In the end, I was far more successful than anticipated.

A total of 31 academics from the 11 institutions were interviewed face-to-face, an average of three academics per department. The institution with the highest number of respondents had four respondents and at two institutions I interviewed just one respondent. The two single respondents at these two institutions had much experience in the teaching and learning of the diploma and demonstrated a good understanding of the department. This reassured me that I could collect sufficient data across the sector.

After undertaking interviews at the first two institutions it became clear to me that the departments had a low staff turnover and therefore lecturers had on average several years of experience. In general, the sample provided insights from highly experienced individuals. While the lecturing experience of respondents varied, a third of the academics (11) had 16 years of experience or more. The sample also contained a few young lecturers who were new in the departments. Seven of the 31 academics I interviewed had less than five years' experience. Many the academics had taught across many of the subjects in the Marketing diploma, including at least two respondents who had taught all the subjects in the diploma in their institution.

The respondents included an academic who taught in Marketing but was from a "service department" i.e. they taught their subject to Marketing students but did not sit in the Marketing department as they taught subjects which were seen as outside Marketing. The respondent had been servicing the Marketing department for over 16 years. The respondent reflected a comparative view of the identity formation of students in Marketing with those from another faculty. This was a slightly different view yet one that balanced their insider-outsider positionality and added to the variety of views of what the Marketing curriculum is, and why it should be structured the way it is.

The academics interviewed demonstrated an in-depth understanding of their departments and on how several subjects come together and provided comprehensive data. The balance of experienced and newer academics provided a broad spread of issues in the field and increased the authenticity of the findings.

4.5.2 Getting into the car

I set out from Cape Town and drove across the country to collect the data in person, intending to do so in face-to-face interviews. I was open to telephone interviews if that was the only option available, but I knew the benefit of meeting someone and sitting with them in person, showing a genuine interest in their story.

Face-to-face interviews were selected because of two main reasons: that they increase the response rate, and that they have the potential of improving the quality of data. People are more likely to respond to a request when you are there in person, because it is socially expected to help a person especially when they are physically present (Harris et al., 2010).

While the face-to-face data collection method can be justified through literature, and indeed many research methods books sing the benefits of such an approach, in my case this method was influenced by my past work experience. I had about three years of experience working for the Office of National Statistics in the United Kingdom where I was involved in undertaking interview research, with most of it being face-to-face interviews. I therefore had real experience on the advantages of face-to-face interviews, in particular, increasing participation and the chances of better quality.

Furthermore, the rich data I obtained from the pilot interview had given me confidence that face-to-face interviews were an ideal way of getting such data. There were indeed clear, knowable cost implications to conducting face-to-face interviews across 11 institutions, but in my mind the quality of data could not be compromised for cheaper alternatives of data collection.

My previous experience also showed that in general when people refuse, they are not refusing to assist in the advancement of science, but for a variety of reasons which usually include time and availability. Arrival in person also seemed to indicate the importance I placed on their input into my research and colleagues participated in a spirit of honouring my commitment to the advancement of the field of Marketing education. The advantages of face-to-face interviews were that some colleagues could mark the interview period as "in a meeting" which is generally given more priority, and some of the interviews were out of the office in a meeting room which reduced interruptions.

One of the critiques of interviews is that they are interpersonal in nature and sometimes respondents tend to give responses they think are socially desirable (Harris et al., 2010). However, voice can be used to ask questions as naturally as possible thus enabling the interviewee to "freely express their views about an issue" (Marvasti, 2004, p. 22). Furthermore, qualitative research is based on in-depth interviewing in which the "questions are designed to go beyond the presumed surface level of respondents' feelings and into the deeper layers of their consciousness" (Marvasti, 2004, p. 22). For most of the interviews, the face-to-face interviews allowed the building of trust and from here I could access other issues that affected colleagues which may not have been revealed in a telephone conversation. In a telephone interview, my positionality could have been bordering on an outsider or a faraway insider which may have reduced the quality of the data. Face-to-face interviews remain an "important means of obtaining direct responses from participants about their understandings, conceptions, beliefs, and attitudes" (Harris et al., 2010, p. 2) towards an issue, in this case towards the Marketing curriculum.

In my case however, the 11 institutions were scattered across the country. I left Cape Town with a "proposed data collection schedule" (see Appendix E). A colleague in Port Elizabeth was going to introduce me to her colleagues in the Marketing department at the then Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU[11]). On departure, I did not have an appointment, but I had the "hope" of an appointment. I was able to interview three colleagues at the Nelson Mandela University (NMU) on the same day. The colleagues were happy to meet and the interviews took place in their offices. Then I headed to East London where a student whom I had taught in the Bachelor of Technology in Marketing course at CPUT referred me to one of their lecturers. The student had completed a diploma in Marketing at Walter Sisulu University (WSU). Before heading for East London, I also found information on the head of department and emailed her a letter to request appointments. I had pre-drafted letters for the head of department (see Appendix F) and for the lecturer (see Appendix G). Having draft letters was very helpful as it reduced the time I spent on administration while on the road and still created a systematic manner of contact which increased the response rate.

The interviews in East London were also done in one day and so the next day I drove to Central University of Technology in Bloemfontein where I was able to get interviews on the third day. As I drove to Bloemfontein, a diploma graduate student from Bloemfontein was on the phone from Cape Town assisting me to get affordable accommodation. The bed and breakfast in Mangaung was not only affordable, it was also comfortable. The entire process took the form of a road trip where I was able to set up interviews and make arrangements as I went through a wonderfully collegial set of networks.

I would send emails a day or two before visiting a department to request an appointment. Most heads of department acknowledged they had received emails from me, some responded with

[11] The Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) changed its name by dropping the word metropolitan in July 2017 and became the Nelson Mandela University.

preferred times and others acknowledged the emails when I arrived and were supportive, referring me to colleagues who were available to be interviewed. The value of being able to say that I would be on campus shortly if they were willing to be interviewed was enormous. Many of my fellow students in the Institutional Differentiation PhD project indicated that they had great difficulties in setting up appointments and often had them re-scheduled by potential participants. While there is a risk in undertaking interviews on the go as I did – a risk that potential participants might be unavailable or unwilling – the benefits were great.

From Bloemfontein, I drove to Durban where I undertook interviews with colleagues at Durban University of Technology (DUT) and Mangosuthu University of Technology (MUT). From Durban I drove to Gauteng where I interviewed colleagues at the University of Johannesburg, Vaal University of Technology, the Institute of Marketing Management, Tshwane University of Technology, and at the University of South Africa.

It is important to note that this was an intense period as I did not know how long I needed to stay in each city to get an interview. This had implications on finding affordable accommodation in a short space of time and all on a shoestring budget. However, the support I got from most colleagues when I arrived and requested interviews was overwhelming. Even as I drove through the country, I could feel the surrealist way in which each and every detail came together. In total, the drive was just over 5 000 km. In retrospect, I can describe the experience as magical.

As the researcher, I had some insider knowledge on the diploma, the subjects therein, and the institutions that offered it. While I had a strong existing knowledge of the curriculum structure from teaching on the diploma for five years (see Section 4.9 on my positionality), I could not rely on such anecdotal knowledge given my critical realist understanding of the relativity of experience; therefore, I sought to confirm the basic structure of the curriculum through an analysis of the prospectuses which were available online on the websites of the institutions that offer the Marketing Diplomas.

All 11 institutions had information on their websites which gave an overview of the Marketing diploma, the names of the subjects or modules that made up the diploma and, in some cases, detailed descriptions of the subjects. The URLs of the websites are shown in Table 4.1 in Section 4.4. Most of the websites had downloadable documents in the form of prospectuses which mostly served the purpose of giving information to prospective students. The documents available online showed some commonality of Marketing subjects across institutions. The high similarity of subjects can be understood in part to have emerged from the history of the diploma which was initially offered at the Technikons. The Technikons operated a convenor system in which the curricula of all the public institutions were centrally developed (as discussed in Section 2.2).

4.5.3 Question guide and interviewing

Interviews were the main method of data collection in line with the research design. The research sought to uncover issues in the curriculum which may not be readily observable. The aim was to understand what is valued in the curriculum from the perspective of the academics who decide what knowledges go into the curriculum. Interviews were thus an appropriate method as "interviews provide contexts where participants can ask for clarification, elaborate on ideas, and explain perspectives in their own words" (Harris & Brown, 2010, p. 2).

In line with the qualitative research design, a question schedule or "interview guide" which contained open ended questions was planned (Boateng, 2014). The interview guide (see Appendix H) contained key issues the researcher wanted to establish like the knowledges valued in the curriculum. In addition to the key category questions, the interview guide also contained subquestions which were asked to seek clarification. A fundamental concept in qualitative research is probing, and a structured approach for seeking clarification through use of for example subquestions. Probing uses "follow-up questions or prompts" to ensure that as much detail is obtained at the point of collecting data (Turner, 2010, p. 758).

During the interviews, the use of the question schedule varied. For most respondents, just giving them a brief overview of the purpose of the study and asking them how they got into lecturing in Marketing was sufficient for the conversation to continue naturally in ways that covered most of the items on the question schedule. The interviews varied, the shortest lasting 17 minutes and the longest being over an hour. Most of the interviews were between 30 and 45 minutes long.

4.5.4 The nature of the probing questions

The probing sought to get more information about what happens in the department, in classrooms, and in the curriculum to balance the multiple needs and deliver them through a marketing curriculum, and to clarify my understanding of responses. The questions on how the academics got to their positions in academia sought to understand what is valued in departments and how they are constituted and how such constituting affects the nature of the field. Questions on respondents' involvement outside the department were to figure out other factors that mediate their position in the field. A further question was to find out what other subjects the respondents had taught and the subjects they currently teach; this was to find out their position in the subfields as this also affects the understanding of Marketing education.

There was also a question on where the students come from. The purpose of the question was to establish the nature of engagement with students and the responsiveness of the curriculum and pedagogy. This question was followed by another on where the students end up, go to, do, or become after graduating. Similarly, the purpose of the question was to enquire on how the marketing curriculum is understood and how the end points, narrow or broad, impact on what happens in the curriculum.

The question on whether Marketing needed a professional regulating board sought to find out the influence of external parties. It may be necessary to declare my initial skepticism on the existence of professional bodies given my then view of other similar structures used to unjustly exclude. After the first few interviews in a conversation with my supervisor, I indicated my disappointment that respondents were in favour of professional bodies to regulate the discipline. My supervisor however helped me to understand the nuance of their positions and pointed me to the philosophical underpinning that showed what they were doing at the different levels using depth ontology. For example, while my initial instinct was that advocating for a professional body was akin to giving up one's autonomy, in some instances it may be a sign of seeking way of stabilizing a field e.g. through sharing resources, expertise and as a means for creating platforms for advancing a discipline. Regulatory bodies can be understood as mechanism with causal powers however what emerges is often a product of the interplay with agency, other structures and mechanism and not a predetermined, predictable outcome. I am grateful for the open relationship I had with my supervisor which allowed this conversation to take place, and thus I was less tense in subsequent interviews when asking about professional bodies. I was confident that even if what my respondents initially said sounded like a contradiction, my probing should not attempt to sway their positions but to allow them to emerge. The analysis would thus use various tools to show the "real" position and the theoretical framework (Legitimation Code Theory) to account for the position. I believe this conversation also made me more conscious when asking all other interview questions and further reduced the effect of my biases inadvertently directing the respondents.

4.5.5 Initial anxiety on the nature and value of the data

The colleagues interviewed were friendly and gave their time and views in the good spirit of supporting a colleague and to advance our understanding of the field of Marketing education. In developing my findings chapters, I initially struggled to be true to the data and the critiques that were emerging and to simultaneously reflect the generosity of the colleagues. I believe I have made every effort to ensure that the focus is on the issues that affect the field and not on pointing fingers at colleagues. There were clearly times where the data was concerning as will be shown in subsequent chapters, but the issues faced by colleagues also affect me; I share in the successes and failure of the work we do as a collective. The research has led to some uncomfortable findings and these should be taken in the spirit of introspective reflection and not as condemnation of any of the individuals who anonymously provided me with rich data (see Section 4.8). Most of these concerns are systematic and can be linked to the history of the institutions that offer diploma courses and should be seen as issues to be addressed in the transition of newly formed universities into fully fledged universities.

The research design I used was iterative; it required that as I collected data I reflected on my conceptual and theoretical frameworks to inform a comprehensive collection of data. It is important to note the iterative nature of the research design as most tables, sections in the thesis and even the thesis itself is presented in linear manner yet in reality these issues are intertwined and may sometimes appear inseparable. Both the data collection and analysis stages involved moving to and from the data and the theories several times and discussions with the supervisor. The discussion did not result in the settlement of issues in a single meeting or discussion but rather some of the issues were contentious and involved a someone tug of war in which the final interpretation was settled after several engagements. This movement to and from allowed a high degree of confidence in the interpretation of data in a simultaneous attempt to reduce the margin of error, given the philosophical position which acknowledges that while our knowledges are fallible, good science seeks to establish the best of explanations which the lenses allow.

In my proposal I expected knowledge to be the key discussion, however, it was clear with each interview that the “knowledge structures” were not going to be the only focus of my study.

This caused some anxiety as I began to wonder if I was doing something wrong. If I needed to ask the questions differently. If my study was researchable. I continued to explicitly ask what was important for students to know in the subjects they were being taught but the answers in most cases seemed to shift the questions to the nature of the student and their perceived (in)capability. The respondents collectively acknowledged that there is knowledge in the curriculum but what is important is the knower, as I will indicate in the chapters that follow. It was clear that for most participants there is a discomfort related to the perceived difficulty of developing these students to this ideal knower.

4.6 Coding

After the audio recordings were transcribed, the documents were uploaded on NVivo, a software that aids the management of qualitative data analysis. This software allowed me to code the data into more meaningful patterns. The technical coding of data involves "categorising the data, creating labels, coding it, reflecting on the data, and developing interpretations and meanings" (Hlatshwayo, 2018, p. 67). However, in my case this was not as neat an endeavour but involved much iterative moving between these activities which in some cases were more like inseparable nodes.

The analysis began with what Chen referred to as a "soft eyes" analysis (Chen & Maton, 2014) where I looked through all the data in an attempt to establish the key issues and themes. This meant that I had to do a broad writing of the key findings from the data. Having personally done the interviews and having done so face-to-face meant I had a strong connection with the data, and I found that I could remember most of the interviews almost verbatim. I also listened and re-listened to the interview recordings to retain a constant memory of the data before I even began the coding process.

The interview data had also been collected in a relatively short space of time, three weeks to be precise and this stage involved attempts to report quite broadly what I understood to be salient issues from the interviews.

The "soft eyes" analysis of the data showed that most of the students enrolled for the diploma are understood to be 'not appropriate' and that they are deemed ill-prepared for the university. This stage of analysis alerted me to issues of identity conflict between the current students and those students that the Marketing departments expected to enroll. It was clear that the social elements are more prevalent for the academics than the knowledge part, which I had thought was going to be the focal point of the study. The data was powerful, and I had to allow it to "speak". I continued the analysis, reading and re-reading sections of the data, and as I did, the identity conflict issues surfaced more and more. There seemed to be a conflict between those students deemed to be 'better prepared' and welcome in the academy, who are mainly suburban ex-model C students[12], and those who come from township or rural homes and schools. As I bore both identities, the suburbanised and the township-rural identities, the classification by many of the participants of a strong part of my identity as not belonging, left me numb. I had been a lecturer for several years so in many ways, the views of the academics I interviewed were not unexpected. But the explicit articulation of these views, increasingly seen through my theoretical lenses, had an immensely unsettling effect on me. For some time, I felt barely able to do anything. It was a crippling and agonising pain. While I had six colleagues who could support me as I worked through this, I seemed to not have the language to tell any of my colleagues. Their presence was important and helped me keep my sanity.

I do not know how I got out of this stage. As I was getting out of it, I seemed to be seeking temporary solace in theory, in the realist philosophical underpinning and Legitimation Code Theory, the main theoretical framework in my study. Only then was I able to continue the effort to try and understand the issues in the data beyond the empirical, beyond what the respondents had said.

4.6.1 Level one coding: open coding

Having undertaken a broad more general overview of the data through "soft eyes" analysis, I began the more formal process to engage with specific texts. To interpret the data and make sense of it I began by a method similar to "open coding" which requires that the researcher brings in the "minimum of preconceptions" (Holton, 2009, p. 55) as they compile "the data into sections or groups of information, also known as themes or codes" (Turner, 2010, p. 759). The process started with "line by line coding" (Holton, 2009, p. 56) in which I sought to read through each line of the data transcribed from the interviews to establish categories. Such categories arose from the identification of themes or codes which were expressions, phrases,

[12] In 1991, certain whites-only government schools were open to learners of other race groups. These were classified as model C schools. Shortly thereafter, all schools were open to learners of all race groups but the term model C has remained in common parlance to mean formerly white schools.

or ideas which consistently appeared in the data, allowing the organising of data through identifying commonalities and key issues (Kvale, 2007) (see Table 4.2 on the following page).

Table 4.2: Examples of codes (Social)

Code	**Data example**	**Notes**
Student (curtailed positive)	So, ja you get those students and then you get these bright students who are really going for it and excel in class but that's a very few number of students.	"very few" means "bright" students who "excel" is not the average student, it is the exception.
	Ja, some of them can learn a lot of things and absorb a lot of things. The others can't do that.	A different respondent also uses "some" to mean a few. Listening to the rest of the interview shows more concerns about students.
Student (let down by system)	I feel someone from Matric is from a disadvantaged background. They are very brilliant, but you can tell that this background hit them.	One of the most positive statements but still referred to students as defined by the past.
Student (negative)	They're number [illiterate], totally illiterate.	These quotes were part of longer texts from different respondents, which portrayed students as deficit, underprepared, entitled, lacking motivation, or dropping out. Respondents typically showed sorrow for their social circumstances and very little for their knowledge situation.
	So, they have a fear of Maths anyway.	
	Our average reading level at our university is on Grade 8.	
	We have students comes to [name of university] who might have not eaten for maybe, a day and a half or whatever, because I know this because of what the Vice Chancellor had once said to us.	

The NVivo software enabled the generation of electronic folders into which sections of information could be grouped based on similarity. In essence, the folders were given the names of the codes or themes. I used the coding to identify patterns in the data, initially allowing "as many categories as fit" to emerge and new data to "fit into existing categories" and thus allowing codes to conceptually transcend the detailed description of these incidents (Holton, 2009, p. 56).

The NVivo software also allowed a single extract of the data to be allocated to several folders if it contained several themes and thus enabled "the researcher to verify and saturate categories, minimises omission of an important category and ensures the grounding of categories in the data" (Holton, 2009, p. 56).

A further advantage of the software was the ease of searchability of all transcribed data. The searches were for words, phrases, and terms in the data. Being a qualitative study, I was not focused on counting words from such searches, but rather on establishing the meaning and perspectives of the respondents. I had to carefully check the context and meaning before allocating codes.

4.6.2 Level two coding: selective coding

As the coding moved to the next level similar to "open coding", I revisited the data in the codes and followed patterns and core themes (Holton, 2009, p. 58). Having kept a 'fresh' memory of the interviews meant I could benefit from the software's enablement to search for words and terms used in the interviews by the various respondents and thus be able to saturate those ideas that seemed to have greater explanatory power (Holton, 2009). The second level coding allows the analysis to begin upward movement finding relationships between initial codes and themes. Themes may begin to condense into concepts that could constitute substantial findings with broad applicability, the kind of issues that could add to the development of the discipline.

4.6.3 Level three coding: Legitimation Code Theory

The coding of data was, like most of my research journey, iterative in nature. Movement took place between the coding of data using the NVivo software and listening to the interview audios and re-reading the theoretical framework and some of the pertinent literature. As key themes emerged, different parts of the theoretical framework were first scanned through to identify the tools that would best make sense of the emerging themes.

The very first part was particularly challenging. I was quite familiar with the theoretical framework and I had come a long way towards mastering what I had expected would be the main tools I would use to analyse the data. I had expected the Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) tool of Specialisation to be the main tool because I understood the curriculum to be about knowledge; therefore, I expected knowledge to be the centre of the discussion as has been indicated by my research questions as well. Indeed, the data contained discussion of knowledge, but something else dominated the data and needed to be interrogated before I could deal with the knowledge section which seemed heavily trapped in this dominant part.

With the help of my supervisor and consultations with Karl Maton, I gained the confidence to explore an LCT tool which I had not expected to use in the data, the social plane. The social plane became appropriate once I realised that the data was overwhelmingly inclined towards issues of the students' identities, their social being. A translation device was developed for each of the LCT tools as is shown in the tables below with examples from the data.

Table 4.3: Translation device for Specialisation (Adapted from Wilmot, 2019)

Translation Device: Specialisation			
Concept	**Description**	**Manifestation in study**	**Example from Data**
ER+	Emphasises specialist knowledge, skills and procedures in research process	When candidates foreground the nature of their object of study or any theoretical or methodological procedures for generating knowledge	"I'd like them to be able to understand some terminology and some procedures and the goal of marketing."
ER-	Downplays specialist knowledge, skills and procedures in research process	When candidates downplay specialist knowledge about their object of study or any specific theoretical or methodological approach for generating knowledge	"You know it [success] doesn't even have to do with so much Marketing."
SR+	Emphasises personal attributes of knowers (e.g. personal experience, social categories such as gender)	When candidates foreground aspects to do with knowers (in terms of themselves and/or other scholars in field)	"If you do not have that personality type, you will never be successful in Marketing."
SR-	Downplays personal attributes of knowers	When candidates downplay personal attributes to do with them as a knower/author of the research and attributes of other knowers in the field	Not explicit in the data

Table 4.4: Translation device for Specialisation (Adapted from Wilmot, 2019)

Translation Device: Social Relations (gazes)			
Concept	**Description**	**Manifestation in study**	**Example from Data**
SubR+	Practices that strongly bound and control legitimate knowers	When candidates foreground qualities to do with knowers	"I'm not shy. So, I learned I'm charismatic in that sense. I'm a Pisces. I'm a people person so I didn't find it difficult to step into that role."
SubR-	Practices that weakly bound and control legitimate knowers	When candidates downplay personal attributes of knowers (either themselves or other knowers in field)	Not explicit in the data
IR+	Practices that strongly bound and control practices of knowing	When candidates foreground legitimate ways of knowing – of themselves and/or the ways of knowing of other knowers in the field	***IR+ emphasised but as deficit:*** "But ja, it's hard to understand these concepts if you come from a rural population, if you have a language barrier, if you didn't go to a commercial school, yes, it is hard."
IR-	Practices that weakly bound and control practices of knowing	When candidates downplay legitimate ways of knowing – of themselves and/or the ways of knowing of other knowers in the field	Absent or silent in the data

Table 4.5: Translation device for Specialisation (Adapted from Arbee, 2012)

Translation Device: Semantics			
Concept	**Description**	**Manifestation in study**	**Example from Data**
SG+	Meaning is closely bound to its context.	Emphasis is placed on application, practicality, relevance and the usefulness of knowledge in specific contexts or cases.	"I picked the New Life Company, which is a natural, spring bottled water company."
SG-	Meaning is less dependent on its context.	Application, practicality, relevance and specific contexts are downplayed in favour of more abstract meanings or 'theory'.	Not explicit in the data
SD+	Greater condensation of meaning in symbols.	Meaning is not directly or easily accessible.	And then we ask them, what is … positioning strategy, can you describe it to us? They struggle with that. So that's that high-level thinking.
SD-	Less condensation of meaning in symbols.	Meaning is more direct and thus more easily accessible. Or use of acronyms, symbols and words which may sound complex but do not have condensation of meaning.	Use of acronyms like "SWOT Analyses", and words like "strategy" which when interrogated do not have complex additional meanings beyond everyday use.

I also had to revisit a lot of literature on identity formation. In particular, the work of Postma and Postma (2011) was helpful as most of the issues raised by the respondents resembled or were rooted in ontological tensions between the students and the lecturers who often bore markedly different identities. This unexpected part of the data which was analysed using the social plane constituted a rather elongated wrestle that kept me awake many nights.

4.7 Wrestling the Social Plane

The social plane, like all theoretical tools, was not made for my particular study and therefore would not automatically point out the issues to be addressed. I therefore spent months, which seemed to be to no end, in what also seemed to be a fight with both theory and data. The theory had a degree of certainty and to crack it I had to go back to mother tongues, my home languages. I translated the theory to isiZulu and isiXhosa to be able to make sense of what I was going through and how the theory might pertain to my study data and questions. It was only then that I realised that some of the challenges were very small linguistic glitches rather than insurmountable intellectual challenges. The natural development of the social plane from the semantic plane meant that the elite code which had the strongest epistemic relations and the strongest social relations – in the top right corner of the Cartesian plane – and could be considered in some ways similar to the born gaze which is the strongest social code, was placed in the similar box, top right. However, as my data indicated in the born gaze, you either had it or you didn't, therefore who you interacted with did not matter as much, if it did at all. This therefore made explicit the need to move the born gaze to the quadrant that emphasises subjective relations without any interaction, as such interactions largely were not recognised in my data. However, to be born is also to be born into a family with its socialisation tools. Therefore, this change of language while necessary to make sense of my study, may not be necessary in other studies. The theory in this case may have to remain as is for the next person to also engage with, and perhaps only when enough people continue to face similar challenges can the theory be reviewed. In most cases, separation of concepts in theory is for analytical purposes; as I have already indicated, one is born where they are also socialised, hence, the value of the theory remained in the description of what is named and not in the name. The Legitimation Code Theory social framework remains a very useful tool, albeit in my case the naming issue added a few months to my data analysis. This anecdote serves as a reflection on the complexity of bringing theory to data and data to theory, and in particular, the challenges I faced with some of the English terminology of the social plane.

4.8 Autonomy

As is no doubt to be expected at PhD level, a lot of wrangling with theory took place over the course of my doctoral journey. Something similar to the wrestle with the social plane happened with another of Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) lenses, the Autonomy tool. LCT and its tools are discussed in Section 3.10 in the theoretical framework chapter. I presented a paper at the LCT2 Conference in Sydney, Australia in 2017 using Autonomy. This was just before I came across Karl Maton's presentation on Autonomy tours (Maton & Howard, 2018). Autonomy tours are a hugely useful concept in pedagogy and I now use them in my own teaching each time I have to explain a complex concept. The use of examples to illuminate a concept or issue is always good but often in explanations the explainer gets lost in the example. The Autonomy tool is good for conscientising anyone using an example to locate the example relative to the concept being discussed, and to help the listener to also use the example to understand the concept. This can be done, for example, when the speaker points out “Now I am talking about a movie, I want you to listen closely because it is an example of something in Marketing and I will link it back to the concept in Marketing”.

Such use of Autonomy tours constitutes what is called a language of enactment in which concepts are developed to be enacted for practice as opposed to the language of description in which concepts are enacted for research. In the language of description, the autonomy tool would retain most of its philosophical power which would be more relevant to my study. Due to the fact that it would not be easy for many people to understand that a tool can be used as both a language of description and also a language of enactment. The philosophical power of the theory would be harder to be enacted to unveil how actors cooperate and struggle to maximise their power in the field, by competing to achieve those things that yield success and positioning themselves to define what is valued in the field (Maton, 2014). It is for this reason that I took the decision to focus on other tools more that the autonomy tool.

In my study I had delineated pedagogic practice as something to exclude, as something I would not analyse. I did not interview students or observe classroom behaviour. It was recommended to me that this was beyond the scope of the study for practical reasons, given that I wanted to include all 11 institutions. I was not concerned about delineating the study to Bernstein’s field of recontextualisation with a concern for how it is that knowledge from the fields of production are navigated to produce the curriculum, because this process of recontextualisation has been shown to be a contested space with significant implications for social justice. However, it was not always possible to exclude issues of pedagogy as indeed in some of the interviews, colleagues “took me to their class” through telling me what happens in class and taking me on a series of illustrations of their pedagogic practices. In discussing their understanding of the field of Marketing education and the decisions underpinning the curriculum, the participants inevitably discussed pedagogy. Their conceptions of the student body, for example, were seen to have a significant impact on their decisions regarding selection, sequencing, and pacing.

Some of these pedagogic insights could be analysed using the new use of the Autonomy tool. In most of the illustrations by one of the respondents for example, they started as if they were discussing an important concept in the field but ended up discussing something outside the field – for example the production process for an alcoholic beverage without a clear connection to the Marketing concept. In this illustration, the respondent took an "Autonomy tour" which loosely refers to when a speaker steps out of the topic of discussion, and introduces a new topic for the purposes of explaining something more complex in the initial topic of discussion. An effective Autonomy tour requires that the speaker returns to the initial discussion and shows how the detour is related to the initial topic of discussion. However, in this case, the "Autonomy tour" never got back to the initial discussion and thus left the key concept not fully explained.

My presentation at the Legitimation Code Theory (LCT2) Conference was not on Autonomy tours but more of who was legitimating what knowledges in the curriculum. Now, this would have been a way of identifying which concepts are most important and by whom. However, it was the case that my research had much more data on the identities of students that required the social plane and in part, the fact that there was already a moving away from the Autonomy tool, I hoped temporarily, from its philosophical roots towards a more practical pedagogical tool. A tool for analysing the power dynamics in curricula, disciplines, and/or regions will always be important if education research, and in particular LCT, have any hope or intention to be or to remain a transformative and emancipatory philosophical framework.

4.9 Positionality, Power and Ethics

Undertaking qualitative research is a deeply reflexive process which requires careful consideration of ethical behaviour. I engaged in the research taking particular note of issues of my positionality in the field of Marketing. Literature on positionality could characterise me as an insider researcher, as I am both a current lecturer in the field of Marketing and researching teaching and learning in the field of Marketing. Positionality, which is associated with how a researcher identifies themselves in relation to the field, has implications for power dynamics which have further implications for research ethics (Kessi, 2017). Chavez (2008) characterised insider scholarship into three categories which are partial insider, total insider, and indigenous insider. Partial insiders are thought to be those who maintain a degree of detachment from the field. Total insider implies that a researcher may bear the multiple identities associated with a field, however, such a scholar is unlikely to exist as fields commonly contain within themselves continuously unresolved positions. The indigenous insiders are those scholars who have "been socialized in the community" and have the greatest closeness to the values of a community (Chavez, 2008, p. 475). It could be argued that I am a total-indigenous insider and may therefore be biased towards or against subfields in my field. I acknowledged this view of insider positionality, however, the implied biases are contested. Naples (1996) challenged this view, arguing that insiderness or outsiderness are neither fixed nor static positions, they continually shift and are permeable social positions.

Furthermore, the findings in a research emerge from the interactive process in which meaning is created by both the interviewer and the respondent as the qualitative research process involves direct interaction. The position of the interviewer thus cannot be totally separated as "the viewer then is part of what is viewed" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 524). Similarly, Hlatshwayo (2018) highlighted that part of his data were collected in what is known as "acquaintance interviews", a type of interview in which as he stated, his respondents continuously asked him to help them remember shared experiences making him a co-constructor of the issues under investigation. While my interviews were friendly and some quite collegial, I was more cautious of my insider positionality and sought to understand the issues from the respondents' perspectives with minimal input from myself. The relationship between positionality, power, and ethics was raised by Kessi (2017) who emphasised the importance of a researcher having to ask if they themselves should be doing the research as the power dynamics in the research could have implications on ethics. Holmes (2014) also argued for the importance of consciousness of a researcher's own positionality and reflexivity paying attention to the power dynamics in knowledge production for the purposes of producing ethical research. However, Hlatshwayo (2018, p. 63) showed that:

> Scholars … have argued for the need to be aware of these dichotomies but not necessarily to choose which position from the dichotomy one needs to belong to, but to critically consider the implications that these positions have for the research process itself and the production of ethical and credible research.

A critical position for a researcher would be to seek to understand things as they are from whatever position they can take. However, being critical may not always be a given. For example, at the beginning of this study, I remember a slight discomfort when the value of Marketing as a field was questioned, or more precisely it was the extent to which Marketing is a "discipline" which was under scrutiny, using Bernstein's concepts of singulars and regions (as discussed in Section 5.1). Presenting Marketing as more of a region and certainly not a "singular" was a little discomforting, as this meant that it was not a discipline that could produce its own knowledges within its own rules and principles for its own growth. At the time, the lens I wore was one of constantly placing any comparison into hierarchies e.g.

singulars eternally better than regions, yet a comparison can have merit in simply showing differences or even incomparability and not hierarchy.

The insider positionality implied that I was investigating perspectives in a community I am a part of and have an understanding of the nuances of issues in the field akin to that of an indigenous insider (Chavez, 2008). However, my research sought to understand the Marketing curriculum and was therefore somewhat looking at the intersection of two fields, Marketing which is a field in the world of business and the Marketing curriculum which is in the broader field of education. While to be an academic should entail or is based on the assumption that a lecturer possesses some expertise in the two i.e. knowledge of the field of Marketing and knowledge of curriculum and pedagogy, the history of the University of Technology in general did not prepare the majority of academics for the development of the curricula (see section 2.2.3.2). At the time of conducting the interviews, I had already acquired an additional identity or a position in the field of education and particularly in curriculum structure. Therefore, the questions on knowledge and curriculum positioned me as some kind of an outsider to most of my colleagues or made it more difficult to have a shared language about issues that prior to my studies in education, I together with my colleagues did not have a language to talk about. Hlatshwayo (2018, p. 64) pointed out the following about positionality.

> I … found myself nervous and felt awkward about asking questions on aspects of their course which I already knew and had had prior experience with.

Like Hlatshwayo (2018), I also found myself in an awkward position when having to ask questions about issues I knew were problematic in our departments like the pressure to publish and to acquire a doctoral degree. For example, it was particularly difficult to ask if colleagues had published in the field yet I knew from my own experience that at my own university the pressure to publish was not supported by a corresponding set of enabling structures. I also knew that getting a doctoral supervisor was not easy for many colleagues. I was particularly cautious to not position myself differently from my colleagues as being a doctoral scholar, itself may have been seen as bearing some sort of status.

My endeavours were to keep the relationship on a par and I had to find other ways of establishing if someone had also published, mostly by asking if there were any new pressures on their role. The alternative of using google to find publications to figure out who had published or not would have felt like spying and profiling colleagues. This was because I personally understood the large class sizes and the subsequent heavy workloads faced by diploma lecturers. The heavy workloads make it difficult for such academics to open up space to develop a new reading and research culture which would enable both completion of doctoral studies and subsequent research for publications.

My proposal sought to demonstrate that I had carefully considered all ethical issues and would continue to do so throughout the study. On review of the proposal Rhodes University granted ethical clearance. Thereafter, I collected contact details online and from a network of colleagues and contacted the heads of department through emails or telephone calls. For most colleagues, participating in the research was not a problem especially after giving them the assurance that this was not a comparative study, that it was not concerned with evaluating or ranking institutions or departments, and that no data of theirs would be attached to a particular institution. The participants were fully informed that the purpose of the study was to contribute to the building of the field of Marketing education through finding out the collective understanding and practices in Marketing education. In some cases, some colleagues felt clearance had to be obtained through their own institutional systems and this was done accordingly.

Prior to the commencement of each interview, I informed the respondents that their participation was voluntary, that they did not have to answer questions they did not wish to and that they had the right to withdraw at any time during the course of the interview. In line with the informed consent clause in the ethical clearance, I also requested that all respondents sign an informed consent form (a sample is shown in Appendix C).

Respondents were also assured of institutional anonymity; where differences were highlighted these are not to be comparable or hierarchical but differences which mostly reflect the responsiveness of institutions to their environments. The list of institutions simply indicates that the research was done in real institutions and it identifies the institutions that offer the diploma in Marketing. Where institution names are used it is based on the data available in the public domain. Where public domain documents are cited it would be disingenuous to anonymise such data as a simple google search would reveal the originating institution.

With the permission of participants, the data was collected through the recording of interviews into an audio format. My mobile phone had sufficient capacity and produced high quality and clearly audible recordings. Colleagues were also assured of individual anonymity and names of the respondents were replaced by numbers.

The transcribing was done with the help of a professional transcriber who did it in a very short space of time. I requested the transcriber to sign a confidentiality agreement to keep all the information confidential (a sample copy is shown in Appendix D). The transcribing was to a very high standard and very few corrections were necessary in only some interview scripts and no corrections in most cases. The transcriptions had in a few areas in the text been marked "unclear" and in most cases this turned out to be very mild interference sounds like creaking doors or even very soft breathing; it was thus more of a pointer of the precision and attention of the transcriber than an issue of clarity. The transcribed documents were in Microsoft Word format and were numbered 1 to 31; the numbers became the respondent identifiers to assure the respondents' anonymity.

4.10 The Doctoral Research Journey: My Reflections

This study was part of a larger study with the aim of understanding issues affecting higher education at system level. There were seven scholars under the institutional differentiation umbrella with each scholar studying a unique component of issues that face the public higher education sector group. For example, while my study focused on the Marketing curriculum, another colleague focused on plagiarism across the South African higher education system (Mphahlele, 2020), another on the use of the teaching development grant (Moyo, 2018) and another on the nature of research in historically black institutions (Muthama, 2018). In total the studies came together to give an overview of issues that affect different institutions in different ways.

A key feature of the study was the collaborative support which underpinned the design of the study. While each of the seven members was fully in charge of their own thesis and selection of their own theories and methodologies, the journey was characterised by collegial support where we took turns to present our progress, challenges, and seek guidance from the team. The group had several online seminars, some stretching to about four hours. Online technologies like the online classroom platforms allowed us to raise our hands through clicking buttons and taking turns to speak. We could also make comments as someone was speaking. There were more than 50 such seminars and the count still continues, as even those who have since graduated remain a part of the support structure. The highlights of the support structures were doctoral weeks and writing retreats. During doctoral weeks we all travelled to Rhodes University and were physically together. At these doctoral weeks we mostly lived in a shared space where we could hold regular meetings at breakfast and dinner times.

The doctoral weeks were well structured programmes which had a variety of international and our own local professoriate addressing a broader doctoral cohort on philosophical issues pertinent to doctoral study. The intellectual rigour was very high and equally high was the support to ensure that we could all access the complexities of the world from a disciplinary vantage point. Presentations were also made in the presence of more than just the students' own supervisors but also to other supervisors; this was a really great opportunity especially given the frequency we could do this, at least three times a year. The diversity of the audience allowed for the development of the thesis as the students were conscious of the fact that the thesis itself is written for a broader audience and not just for the people who have embraced a theoretical framework or philosophical position or those who already subscribe to the very esoteric perspective in a field. I would like to commend the professoriate team I engaged with for their patience and ability to handle the nuances of supporting scholars to master a framework, when the complexity of the frameworks sometimes led to some form of falling in love with it and yet the professoriate brought us to the understanding that the frameworks were fallible. This was a rather difficult threshold for me to cross, as at some point I thought in critical realism I had found a single philosophical position from which all the problems of the world could be solved. I still believe it is indeed a good philosophical position but like all others, can be more useful in some cases and less so in others.

The writing retreats were typically more focused on writing, but we also came together to do some presentations. It was also characterised by a collegial collaborative method. In particular, the use of group pomodoros, a method of structuring the day and a structured approach that involved writing for 25 minutes with five-minute stretch-breaks. This created an energising environment for writing and allowed a lot of the work in the thesis to be developed in this way.

One of the team projects we completed was a collaborative poster on the collaborative doctoral model which I presented at the 2016 HELTASA conference on behalf of the institutional differentiation group. The theme of the poster was to highlight the difference between the then traditional doctoral supervision culture which was characterised by one-on-one supervision and a lot of loneliness on the side of the student. The doctoral study has many phases and the poster alluded to research findings that scholars needed another scholar, someone going through the same experience for the first time and thus someone who could understand the complexity of the experiences which words cannot usually express. The poster highlighted key features of the collegial doctoral model which included emotional support. In the poster we shared our own experiences – as scholars, we could get into each other's spaces in ways that supervisors could not. We were able to check on each other quite regularly and enquire about issues beyond our theses but which would still affect the development of them. The collegial model remains an invaluable part of the thesis development journey and in it I was supported by colleagues and also shared in the success of colleagues, even when my own progress seemed to be a little low. The success of others seemed to be an uplifting process most of the time.

4.11 Conclusion

In the first part of this chapter I outlined the philosophical underpinning of the study and how it influenced the selection of a theoretical framework that was compatible and would make it possible to achieve the objectives of the study. The first part of the chapter also demonstrated how the research questions fit into a cohesive research design and assured a high dependency of the findings as it also showed that the qualitative research methods and the analytical tools used were compatible with both the conceptual and theoretical framing of the study.

Thereafter I went on to show how a pilot study was undertaken and how it further gave confidence in the selected methods. The pilot study also gave an indication of the type of data that could be expected and how such data could be analysed and contribute to the understanding of issues in the nature of curricula in higher education.

The section on the research sites also showed how the selected institutions cover the nation in as far as the provision of the diploma in Marketing is concerned i.e. all the former Technikons in the country were covered in the study and thus the study gives an unusually broad coverage of issues that affect curricula at national level.

The chapter also engaged with issues of insider positionality, how as an insider I could access information on the history of the diploma and the institutions that offered it. It also discussed how technology, like the internet, already made it possible for me to have access to an abundance of information on the structure of the diploma through the outlining of the subjects and how they are taught at different levels of the diploma. This insider positionality also gave me the confidence to go out and collect the data, driving across the country and also using the face-to-face interview method which I argued allowed for the amount of data received and the quality thereof.

In this chapter I also engaged with ethical issues and how these were handled; in my case these were quite minimal and I argued that the insider positionality also allowed me a collegial atmosphere that allowed for the easy collection of the data. I also discussed issues of sample sizes and validity of the data and the use of research instruments like the question schedule. I argued that I had already become quite confident in education research and this, backed up by a fair amount of experience working for a national research company, I was able to conduct research with little anxiety in the interviewing itself and thus allowing a better set of data to be collected. In the last part of the chapter I discussed the transcribing of the recorded interviews and the process of coding. I also discussed how it was not all smooth sailing as I also had to wrestle with some of the framework tools to make sense of the data. In the very last part of the chapter I reflected on the structure of the doctorate and how working with six other colleagues under one main supervisor with several other co-supervisors made the journey more bearable.

It is now time to begin discussing the findings that emerged from the mass of data collected and consider the implications of these findings in the light of the research questions. I begin in the next chapter with a consideration of the nature of the field of Marketing education, drawing largely on the Bernsteinian concepts of singulars, regions, and generics, which I discuss in detail at the beginning of the chapter in Section 5.1.

Chapter Five: The Organising of Knowledge in the Field of Marketing: Region or Generic?

5.1 Introduction

The next three chapters analyse the nature of the Marketing curriculum with a particular interest in what is valued in Marketing, and how the knowledge and knowers are structured. The data is predominantly from interviewing academics across all 11 institutions that offer the programme but also includes relevant information from websites.

In line with the critical realist/social realist philosophical underpinnings of this study, the Marketing curriculum was understood as something that is ‘real’. Even thought our knowledge of it is fallible, it has a set of properties, characteristics and principles that can be studied. The data was drawn from academics with the understanding that the positions taken by academics towards the field are partly an indication of who the academics have become and a reflection of their identity formation; that is, the knowledge cannot be seen to be the Truth, but rather as evidence of the particular perspectives of the participants. Understandings about what the Marketing curriculum comprises and values originate from individuals and can thus be seen to be fallible (epistemological relativism). The task here is thus not only to report on the perspectives of the participants and the information from the websites, but to gradually move beyond this to identify the mechanisms from which these multiple events and experiences emerged.

This chapter focuses on the organising of knowledge in the Marketing curriculum. It analyses how knowledges are drawn from various sources, put together into a curriculum, and taught and assessed. The chapters that follow delve deeper into the ways in which the curriculum is constructed by considering the relations to knowledge, skills, and processes in Chapter Six and the relations to the knower’s dispositions in Chapter Seven. Such divisions are in many ways a contrived means by which to present a linear text which can be readily followed by the reader. The extent of overlap between the issues discussed in the three findings chapters needs to be noted and will be returned to in the conclusion.

By focusing on the forms of knowledge drawn upon in the Marketing curriculum, this chapter also explores the qualifications and experiences of academics as they progressed in their career paths and how this affected their view of what is legitimate in the Marketing curriculum. This chapter thus significantly draws on Bernstein's pedagogic device and his categorisation of disciplines (or fields of practice) into three modes of organising knowledge which are singulars, regions, and generics. Below, I briefly explain how this conceptual lens can be used to make sense of different forms of curriculum.

While the development of the curriculum requires an understanding of three fields or arenas across which knowledge moves in the pedagogic device, the curriculum itself is more closely associated with the field of recontextualization. The first field is the field of production where knowledge is produced. This often, but not exclusively, takes places in universities and in private or public research institutions (Bernstein, 2000). Other sites of production include newsrooms, design studios, and factories (Shay, 2016). Within universities, the knowledge from the field of production is usually disseminated through academic publications and conference presentations.

The second field is known as the field of recontextualisation. The recontextualising field "selectively appropriates, relocates, refocuses and relates other discourses to its own order" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 33). The recontextualising field contains rules that determine the selection of knowledge from a field of practice to a curriculum plan. Such 'rules' might include the rules a nation has about how a programme is structured and accredited which may at times be in tension with the rules about the knowledge from the field of production. The knowledge selected is typically dislocated from the contexts it is drawn from and generalised (Wheelahan, 2007b). Their generalisation allows the ideas to be refocused and relocated to allow the possibility of the knowledge to be applicable to several other situations. The field of recontextualisation is therefore concerned with the selection of knowledge and its organisation prior to transmission (Bernstein, 2000). The recontextualisation field is particularly important in this chapter as it illuminates the struggles for legitimacy in what is understood as Marketing.

The third field is the field of reproduction which is more focused on the transmission and acquisition of knowledge (Wheelahan, 2007a). In the university, this is where knowledge is taught by being presented by lecturers or captured in textbooks or through other pedagogical materials and practices. Pedagogic practices typically involve selection of knowledge as the whole field cannot be taught at once, and includes choices of methods of teaching and assessment. While my focus was on how knowledge is selected and included into (or excluded from) the Marketing curriculum, the interviews inevitably included reflections on classroom practice. I thus also analysed conversations about pedagogic practices as they also gave insight into what is privileged in the Marketing curriculum.

Bernstein indicated that there are significant struggles between the three fields, as those who inhabit each might have different interests and different values. What the researcher considers paramount in the making of knowledge in the field of production might not be of much concern to the person developing a curriculum and deciding what needs to be taught and in what order. The lecturer who is faced with a large class of students with diverse needs may also have a different set of concerns in the field of reproduction.

In the school setting, the inhabitants of the three fields are often entirely different sets of people. Historians may research on a particular topic and publish academic journal articles on this within the field of production; education bodies may then, in the field of recontextualisation, select aspects of this knowledge for inclusion in a national curriculum; and then teachers may be tasked with enacting this curriculum in the field of reproduction and may have more or less agency in selecting textbooks and setting assessments. In the university setting, the inhabitants of the three fields are often the same sets of people. Academics who research a phenomenon may also develop the curriculum and teach the classes.

Here, the history of the University of Technology discussed in Chapter Two, Section 2.2.5 is important to recall. In the era of the Technikon, staff were not expected to work in the field of production. Most lecturers (as they were then known, the title academic came later) did not have doctoral qualifications and were neither expected nor encouraged to do research. Only a few academics were involved in the field of recontextualisation thanks to the convenorship system whereby a national curriculum was approved by the state. The lecturers in the Technikon system were expected to present the course content for reproduction by the students. The instrumentalist understandings of knowledge espoused by the state at the time (see Chapter Two) reinforced the strong divisions between Bernstein’s three fields.

This study took place as the system, through its re-designation as Universities of Technology, was faced with significant challenges in expecting all academics to navigate all three fields. This challenge, as will be demonstrated, was in many ways exacerbated by the lack of clarity as to what constituted the boundaries of the field of Marketing and therefore the boundaries of a Marketing curriculum. Bernstein indicated that educational curricula can be categorised into three modes of organising knowledge: singulars, regions, and generics. Knowledge is structured differently within each of these curriculum types although with some overlaps, and this brings with it significant different implications.

Singulars are characteristically academic disciplines which consist of a specialised body of knowledge. Examples of a singular include mathematics, physics, chemistry, and history (Bernstein, 2000). Singulars are typically inward facing i.e. they focus on the development of their own knowledge. The development of knowledge and membership is typically governed by explicit rules of entry, rewards, and punishments. It is relatively clear within a singular as to what constitutes a suitable research problem, claim, or form of evidence. There is also relative agreement as to who is or is not a legitimate knower.

Regions are an organised body of knowledge which draws from multiple disciplines and functions to serve a variety of industries and purposes other than itself. Examples of regions include medicine, engineering, management, and business studies (Bernstein, 2000; Linh, 2010). They face both ways, inwards to organise internal knowledge from across different disciplines and fields, and outwards to the world of work. Regions integrate knowledge, and organise such knowledge into a coherent whole for the purposes of developing technologies in a defined workplace (Bernstein, 2000). While there is some defining of how knowledge is developed within a region, activities are also influenced by ideas from the disciplines and fields from which the region draws. Because the knowledge is drawn from various disciplines and fields and then also faces the world of work, the rules of operation are sometimes less explicit.

Generics can be better understood in comparison to regions. Regions seek a base on a relatively small number of carefully selected disciplines and fields of practice, while generics are focused on a responsiveness to new concepts and practices (Bernstein, 2000). They therefore usually draw from a large number of changing fields and thus Linh (2010) argued that they lack intrinsic content and furthermore lack the ability to develop a stable body of knowledge to regulate their practices.

While none of these three types are considered an ideal and each evolves to best attend to the forces constructing it, there are constraints and enablements of each as will be seen in the discussion of the data on the Marketing curriculum. These three modes of organising knowledge provided a basis from which to begin an analysis of the data. They were important in the interpretation of findings as they helped illuminate the nature and structure of knowledge in the Marketing curriculum.

5.2 Marketing as a Region and its Sources of Knowledge

Across the data was evidence that the Marketing curriculum works as a region. While only a few academics engaged with the origin and nature of knowledge in the field of Marketing, the data demonstrated that Marketing draws from multiple disciplines and fields. Respondent 30 pointed out two singulars[13] as sources of Marketing knowledge.

> Marketing is borrowed from two fields, which is Economics and Psychology. Yes, and that's where it's borrowed. (Respondent 30)

Respondent 13 also highlighted Economics as a source of knowledge but also introduced more disciplines that Marketing draws from.

> Therefore, your Statistics, your Maths, your Accountancy, your Economics, all of those subjects are very fundamental in decision-making. Marketing is also a science that is high on process. (Respondent 13)

Economics is largely a numeric field and Accounting and Quantitative Techniques (colloquially referred to as Statistics or Stats) are taught as subjects in at least nine of the institutions (Appendix I and Appendix J). In most cases when respondents referred to Economics the focus was a module taught in Marketing.

> So, it was always Economics 1 and Economics 2 and now it's just Economic Principles.… The fact that we've changed our economics based on the same, you don't take Economics to become an Economist. This is a true Marketing Diploma so you're taking Economics so that you can understand Economics in the Marketing environment and not take Economics to become an Economist. (Respondent 31)

> We are calling it something different and we have tailored it to be Economics for Marketers. (Respondent 7)

Regions typically appropriate knowledge from singulars and recontextualise it to serve the purposes of the world of work. Such appropriation involves selecting a small portion of the necessary knowledge. The recontextualisation focuses on content that is closely aligned to the purpose of the Marketing diploma. Curriculum development often involves de-

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[13] Muller (2013) referred to Economics, Psychology, and Sociology as new singulars in that they have shorter histories than the older singulars of, say, Physics of Anatomy. Despite their brief history, they have clearly established a boundary of what counts as knowledge and have established norms of knowledge production.

contextualisation, the removal of knowledge from its domain of production, and knowledge is often transformed as it is recontextualised into the new field (Bernstein, 2000; Lilliedahl, 2015). In cases where the knowledge from the field of production is being recontextualised into a curriculum that only serves that field, there may be fewer contestations as to what is included or excluded. In the case of Marketing, however, it can be seen that the knowledge is being recontextualised from across multiple fields of production. While the above respondents engaged with Economics as a source of knowledge, other respondents referred to aspects of Economic knowledge within the actual Marketing courses.

> Marketing 1 [has] three main parts. The first part, PESTEL Analyses, Macro Level Analysis and then also, the two key micro analysis is competitor analysis which involves things like Porter's five forces and so forth. (Respondent 1)

> Because there are all the other things to look at, the market, the areas in the market, political forces that will determine how you do your business, economic considerations for example. (Respondent 16)

These two respondents referred to Economic principles, a part of Marketing, and throughout the interviews did not seem to engage with Economics as a source of what they referred to as key Marketing knowledge. When knowledge is drawn from singulars or other fields without explicitly acknowledging the sources of knowledge, there is the potential for students to be denied an understanding of how knowledge is produced within those singulars or other fields (Wheelahan, 2005).

Knowledge fields are not just about content and the principles underpinning them, they manifest as academic subjects and departments. When Respondent 12 referred to Economics, they referred to it as a department competing with the Marketing department for students.

> And the Economics Department would say but they're responsible for the economy of South Africa and then Marketing is always last and I'd say actually managers won't be able to manage, no one will be able to sell anything unless you have us. But if you look at it holistically, we all need each other because no one can work in isolation. (Respondent 12)

The respondent thereafter referred to Economics as a field of practice that together with other fields of practice need to collaborate with Marketing. It is probably unsurprising that the academics in this study failed to acknowledge the relations between the two fields i.e. which knowledge in Marketing is drawn from Economics and why those particular aspects of

Economics are selected. Marketing is presented as that which helps managers to manage and as a key contributor to sales without clarification of the knowledge that makes such management possible. Few academics have the language or meta-knowledge about knowledge to reflect on these distinctions, however, literature on curriculum development pointed out that when singulars are recontextualised into regions without careful consideration of underpinning principles, this has pedagogical implications (Bernstein, 2000; Maton, 2014; Wheelahan, 2005). The implications are that learners may not be able to link knowledge back to the parent field and may thus be denied access to the epistemological core of such fields (Muller, 2009). In such cases, the components of Economics could emerge as an invisible pedagogy (Bernstein, 2000) which has the potential to render the "knowledge structure less visible" (Maton & Muller, 2007, p. 27), and where "criteria are not made explicit" (Muller, 2004, p. 9).

In addition to drawing from Economics, the data indicated that Marketing also draws from Mathematics in various forms.

> I can't imagine Marketing without Quantitative Techniques. … I don't know how because there are so many tools that you can use in Marketing. … So, and Statistics is basically a sub-section of Mathematics, you know. … So, it's like Applied Maths. (Respondent 28)

However, the respondent also pointed out that the role of Quantitative Techniques is not always clear to all students, and that the students are reluctant to commit their effort to the subject.

> I think they feel it's just something they have to do, and they don't know why. (Respondent 28)

The Respondent further indicated that the subject Quantitative Techniques is taught by lecturers who are not part of the Marketing department. They also indicated the low level of their interaction with the rest of the department.

> Here we are not part of the Marketing Department … it's what they call a Service Department. … Ag, you know, it's not really that we have formal meetings, you know. We, sort of, discuss here and there. (Respondent 28)

The issue of service departments is a significant one in Universities of Technology where there is a very structured programme with few elective options for students who work through their courses as a cohort. Where courses are offered outside of this typically tight-knit department, there may not be a sense of coherence to students unless this is actively built into the curriculum. Where selection of knowledge from singulars such as Mathematics is undertaken without a principle of curriculum coherence (Muller, 2009), students may not be able to see the curriculum. Where an academic is from a service department and is not actively involved in the department the students belong to, they are unlikely to be privy to the methods used to create new knowledge in the field. There are implications on their ability to draw appropriate knowledge from the singular to the region. Students might then become despondent about the subject. Such confusion and despondency may be the cause of what the respondent identified as the reluctance of students to invest their effort and time in the subject.

In addition to Economics and numeracy fields, Marketing also draws knowledge from another singular, Psychology, as already indicated by Respondent 30 above. A few more respondents echoed this.

> There is just so much in Consumer Behaviour … because most of them are border theories from your Psychology and so on. (Respondent 24)

Respondent 24 directly linked Psychology as constitutive of the Consumer Behaviour subject, a subject taught in 10 of the 11 institutions in this study (refer to Appendix I and Appendix J). Respondent 6 argued that Psychology is key to the very purpose of Marketing:

> So, if you're going to change attitudes you need to understand, you need that psychological component. (Respondent 6)

The literature showed that Psychology is one of the key fields from which Marketing draws (Ali & Talwar, 2013) and is mostly addressed in the subject 'Consumer Behaviour' which Shaw and Jones (2005) gave as one of the nine schools of marketing thought[14]. However, reference to Psychology by only three respondents (Respondents 6, 24 and 30) raised the question of the extent of awareness of how much the field draws from Psychology as a singular. If Psychological concepts and theories are recontextualised into the Marketing curriculum such that they are not traceable back to the originating disciplines by most of the academics, the implications may be that the academics would struggle to be able to make the forms of such knowledge explicit to students.

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[14] The nine schools of Marketing thought are Marketing functions, Marketing commodities, Marketing institutions, Marketing management, Marketing systems, Consumer Behaviour, Macro-marketing, Exchange, and Marketing history.

There was no mention in the data of Sociology or Sociological knowledge as being part of the curriculum. There was one indirect reference to the social nature of the field:

> And then they've got to understand that marketing is a social science. It's got some consumer buyer behaviour. (Respondent 11)

However, the role of Sociology in Marketing knowledge is demonstrated in Marketing literature quite explicitly by Witkowski and Jones (2008, p. 12) who stated that:

> For many years, scholars in marketing, especially those specialising in consumer research, have imported theoretical ideas and empirical findings from economics, psychology, sociology, anthropology, and other social sciences.

All the literature on Marketing does not explicitly acknowledge the relationship to Sociology in the same way as it does to Psychology and Economics, but the social aspects of Marketing knowledge are frequently indicated.

> Marketing systems such as channels of distribution are a part of marketing as are social processes. (Wilkie & Moore, 2007, p. 275)

> Macro-marketing is a social process which directs an economy's flow of goods and services from producers to consumers in a way which effectively matches supply and demand and accomplish the objectives of society (McCarthy & Perreault, 1984 cited in Brunswick, 2014, p. 111)

When knowledge is selected from one singular to be integrated into a region, it can potentially become a reductionist process where the principles are opaque to the student. A lack of acknowledgement and understanding of the key fields which are sources of knowledge could mean that Marketing has the potential to conceal knowledge from learners. Without access to such knowledge, learners could possibly face constrained access to powerful knowledge and thus would be unable to contribute to the advancement of the field. Scholars like Muller (2009) have raised concerns about regions becoming so disconnected from the disciplines from which they draw knowledges, that the form of the knowledge can become weak. This raises concerns about the strength of Marketing knowledges and subsequently its ability to grow the field.

While some respondents portrayed Marketing as drawing from other fields and thus resembling a region, some respondents sought to highlight the legitimacy of Marketing by portraying it as an independent field. For example, Respondent 31 referred to a "true Marketing" degree. In some instances, respondents spoke of concepts and ideas which are closely related to Marketing and components considered components of Marketing, as if they were the essence of Marketing. These included Management, Strategy, and Sales.

> I like to remind the students that it's Marketing Management, often is the term used. Marketing Management, you're actually managing, and you have to have a managerial style. Not being able to do it but you need to manage people and you might have an employer one day or a boss that you have to explain why you're doing what you're doing. (Respondent 11)

Respondent 11 used the term Marketing Management to refer to Marketing, yet Marketing Management is one of the schools of thought responsible for the management of Marketing activities (Varadarajan, 2010), as discussed in Section 2.3.2 (sub-areas in Marketing). While some diploma and bachelor's degrees are called Marketing Management for example, most courses offered by the IMM include much content from management such that the programmes resemble a double major. It may also be reflective of a view of the positioning of Marketing, sometimes referred to as a "management function" (Ellis et al., 2011, p. 15), meaning that it is seen as a part of management however not necessarily containing management knowledge in it. The management of employees is indicative of the interdisciplinarity of most senior roles in the activities of business. The merging of Marketing with Management may be an indication of weak classification of Marketing i.e. that it has weak boundaries between it and other fields (Bernstein, 2000). Fields with weaker classification are not readily able to develop internal rules or a unique identity (Bernstein, 2000; Hordern, 2016). This has numerous implications for the curriculum as it becomes unclear what should be included or excluded and on what basis knowledge is considered legitimate or not.

Strategy development was another area that was mentioned as central to the field of Marketing.

> I found, I felt that all the other subjects were only supporting that one key theme, Strategy Development. (Respondent 1)

Varadarajan (2010, p. 119) stressed the complexity of fields that the area of Strategy draws from:

> The evolution of strategic marketing as a field of study over the past few decades can be viewed as a confluence of perspectives, paradigms, theories, concepts, frameworks, principles, methods, models, and metrics from a number of related fields of study, chief among them being marketing, strategic management, and industrial organisation (IO) economics.

In addition to Management and Strategy being presented as core in the field of Marketing, a number of respondents indicated that Sales was a central component.

> I put a lot of emphasis on the Sales Management, on the Personal Selling and the Sales Management. … It's very important that the student can, after a three-year qualification, go out with a two year practical sales experience. (Respondent 30)

> I think the Marketing Diploma is a misnomer. I don't think we should have a Marketing qualification in all honesty because if you open up the newspapers, up in Johannesburg we get one called The Workplace, The Star Workplace, and you look in there for Marketing jobs and you look in there versus Sales jobs, you will find that the Sales outrank the Marketing jobs, one to 10. (Respondent 19)

While the literature on Marketing indicated it is a region that draws from multiple other disciplines and fields (see Ali & Talwar, 2013; Ross & Richards 2008; Shaw & Jones, 2005), and indeed the data in this study did likewise, it would seem that some respondents were inclined to see Marketing from various vantage points of other regions such as Management, Strategy, and Sales, as shown above. The data here indicated a potential tension of multiple accountabilities (Shay, 2016) and a lack of agreement as to which sources of knowledge should constitute the core focus of Marketing. This is not unusual for newer regions where stronger recontextualisation principles are not yet settled (Muller, 2009).

The varied positioning of the fields Marketing draws from and the different perspectives of core components of Marketing demonstrates the weak classification of knowledge in the field. A weak classification of knowledge has been argued to have the potential to deny students access to the means of recognising and distinguishing knowledge and its boundaries (Wheelahan, 2007a). In this way, students have a weaker access to the theoretical base of the varied fields and may not be well inducted into any "disciplinary style of reasoning" (Wheelahan, 2007a, p. 143). Developing disciplinary styles of reasoning is a key to building stronger identities (Muller, 2009). The tension of multiple identities and weaker classification of Marketing could be seen as linking to the data on the participants' varied academic identities, as discussed in detail in the following section.

5.3 Academic Identity Formation and the Link to Conceptions of Marketing

The rather diverse views of what constitutes Marketing knowledge can be understood from an analysis of how the academics became teachers of Marketing. They came from highly disparate professional occupations and held undergraduate qualifications from a wide range of fields.

> I was in the Sales Industry. (Respondent 14)

> I worked at a certain place in industry, in the HR Industry and well, things didn't work out there, so I eventually ended up in the Insurance Industry. … I was in the industry of selling [life insurance] so from there, advanced, gradually went into Marketing. (Respondent 15)

> Marketing, I've got what you call, well, I come from an industry background, so…

> I had my own business. … A retail brand-name shop. … I worked for Old Mutual … was a Marketing and Sales Manager for a large clothing manufacturer. (Respondent 4)

Nyamapfene (2018) argued that the identity formation of academics is influenced by their career paths i.e. qualifications and work experiences. The academics in this study came to Marketing education through very different trajectories. Those who entered from Sales had worked in the financial services, clothing industry, human resources, and individually owned small businesses. Having performed different roles prior to joining the teaching staff, these academics brought with them different views as to what constitutes Marketing.

> I used to work at First National Bank and whenever they had a new product that they were offering customers, then I used to be part of the group that would go on these little trips. (Respondent 5)

> I was with Ster Kinekor for about six years. … I was one of the management team and then I moved on into one of the Not for Profit Groups doing their PR Marketing as well. (Respondent 16)

> I was a Research Scientist. (Respondent 19)

> I worked in industry before … and … it was distributor for Fuji products which they brought in from China. (Respondent 20)

> Prior to that I was in the high school situation. … Ja, I was teaching. I came from a BCom background, so I was teaching Accounting and all the other related subjects, but I ended up teaching Afrikaans. (Respondent 6)

> I worked at the Industrial Council for the building industry initially, as a result of the Computer Science and Maths. … And more as a result of the Computer Science and then after I had finished the IMM Diploma, I then wanted to get into the Marketing field. So, then there was a job going [named company] as a Marketing Analyst. (Respondent 10)

Respondent 10 above showed that the IMM diploma in Marketing was the means of their change of career from construction to Marketing. The field of Marketing also offers diplomas in one year, for example the Chartered Institute of Marketing, an institute which has a history of close affiliation to the IMM offers a Diploma in Professional Marketing which requires a minimum of two years working in the industry at operation level (CIM, 2014). The broad characterisation of the Marketing industry makes it possible to have the degree open to people who are from a broad range of fields and many enter it at postgraduate level from a range of prior employment backgrounds.

On the other hand, quite a number of respondents indicated that they came into Marketing education without any workplace experience. Most of these participants had been tutors while they studied:

> I started as a tutor. (Respondent 26)

> I was doing my master's then I taught in the Tourism field (Respondent 27)

> …because that's what my master's was based on. I was in Tourism, so I lectured part-time while I was studying. … It was like, you know those, like when someone goes on maternity leave then I come in as a replacement? (Respondent 27)

> Straight from student into lecturing. (Respondent 29)

While a few candidates moved into lecturing from being Marketing students, others like Respondent 27 came into Marketing through first teaching in Tourism, an indication of the openness of the field of Marketing to fields related to it.

The two respondents with Tourism undergraduate qualifications (Respondents 12 and 27) also indicated that they remained in the Tourism specialisation until Master's. One of the graduates classified their Master's degree as a combination of Marketing and Tourism and the other as a Master's in Tourism, but both identified their doctoral studies as being in Marketing. Both candidates did not see Marketing as particularly different from Tourism:

> They're both service-oriented, if you think of Consumer Behaviour, they both deal with people. (Respondent 12)

Responding to a question about how difficult they found a doctorate in Marketing, having qualifications up to Master's in Tourism, Respondent 27 said:

> It wasn't that difficult for me; I mean I have been teaching the subject for a while; do you understand what I'm saying? So it wasn't that difficult for me to sort of transition. I mean I find Marketing to be very basic; it's what you take from there. … Yeah, it's very basic, and it is similar to, like I said, like the Tourism side of things. The concepts are pretty similar. (Respondent 27)

Respondent 29 indicated the distinction between these fields was one of scope:

> ...looking at a niche field [Tourism] versus a broader perspective [Marketing] from a management perspective". (Respondent 29)

If the concepts are indeed similar, one being broader and the other being a niche and if it is not difficult to cross boundaries between these fields, this raises the question of whether the boundaries should really exist in the form of distinct programmes of study. There are both enablements and constraints to having very porous boundaries between fields. For fields to progress it has been argued that openness may be necessary for a field to engage in free inquiry, however, this openness must be balanced with a simultaneous adherence to the disciplinary procedures (Osborne, 2015). For fields to develop and become innovative, openness of boundaries allows for transgression of boundaries, however, to remain original the boundaries must not be transgressed too flagrantly (Osborne, 2015). The above blurring of boundaries raises question on whether Marketing can differentiate itself from other fields and if it can develop clear principles which guide both its raison d'être and the development of strong and unique internal principles that can differentiate it from other disciplines. Such concerns relate to both Marketing as a field of work and Marketing as a field of study.

Muller (2009, p. 215) cited Tourism, Business Studies, and Information Science as three examples of newer regions which serve ill-defined workplaces:

> The profession itself is generally speaking more diffuse, fluid and less organised, and consequently sends out more ambiguous, frequently contradictory signals about professional requirements to the academy.

Open boundaries, such as those of Marketing, raise questions as to what constitutes expertise in the field. In order to be an academic in most fields one would be expected to have expertise within the field, particularly given the shift from Technikon to University of Technology whereby academics are now expected to inhabit the field of production as well as the fields of recontextualisation and reproduction (Garraway & Winberg, 2019; Gumbi & McKenna, 2020). Such expertise is usually acquired through formal study. For example, to teach Mathematics one would be expected to have qualifications from undergraduate up to a PhD in Mathematics. The data demonstrated that this is not at all the case with Marketing. As with other newer regions, there was a range of access points into teaching Marketing suggesting an openness to the field.

Muller (2009, pp. 214-215) further referred to newer regions as having a "weak or non-existent disciplinary foundation". He went on to indicate that this constrains its ability to "produce people with strong academic identities able and inclined towards producing novelty through research" (ibid.).

From the 31 respondents, 26 of them specified their undergraduate qualifications. In five interviews, respondents' undergraduate studies did not emerge as part of the conversation. Two of the five however, indicated that they had a master's degree in Marketing (Respondent 4) and Marketing Management (Respondent 16) and indicated the importance of a Marketing related qualification to lecture in Marketing. Three of the five respondents (Respondent 25, 29 and 30) indicated that they had qualifications but did not specify the field. This possibly indicated that holding education qualifications is a credentialing requirement rather than ensuring academics are familiar with key knowledge. In particular, it was not clear in the data if a qualification in Marketing at either undergraduate or postgraduate level was seen to be necessary to teach Marketing undergraduate programmes.

From the 26 respondents who specified their undergraduate qualifications, 10 respondents indicated that they held undergraduate qualifications in Marketing. The 10 lecturers with Marketing specified in their undergraduate studies were further divided into two as shown in Table 5.1 on the following page. A closer look at the 10 with Marketing qualifications showed that five of the respondents had a dedicated Marketing qualification i.e. where their main field of study was in Marketing and the other five respondents indicated that they had a Bachelor of Commerce degree i.e. their qualification was a broad commerce qualification and the Marketing component was a specialisation usually done in the final year.

Table 5.1: Respondent undergraduate qualification specialised in Marketing

10	**Undergraduate qualification in Marketing or with a Marketing specialisation**
5	Bachelor of Commerce with a Marketing specialisation
	4 x Bachelor of Commerce with a Marketing specialisation (Respondents 3, 11, 13, 23) 1 x Bachelor of Commerce Marketing Management (Respondent 31)
5	Diploma in Marketing (UoT) (Respondents 1, 2, 14, 17, 26)

Six respondents did their undergraduate qualifications within various Commerce fields including Tourism (Respondent 12 and 27), Retail (Respondent 22), Public Relations (Respondent 9), and Communication Science (Respondent 8 and 9). These undergraduate qualifications could be deemed related to Marketing but were not specified as Marketing. These are shown in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2: Respondent undergraduate qualifications related to Marketing but not Marketing specialisation

6	**Undergraduate[15] and further qualifications related to Marketing, that are not Marketing specialisations but include Marketing**
	2 x Tourism (Respondent 12 & Respondent 27) Consumer Science, Clothing Retail Management (Respondent 22) Public Relations (Respondent 9) Communication Science (Respondent 8) Bachelor of Commerce Triple Major: Communication Management, Marketing Management and Industrial Psychology (Respondent 7)

[15] Not all respondents specified the type of undergraduate qualification they held. It was not always possible to probe further due to the sensitivity of the hierarchical nature of qualifications to some candidates.

Five respondents (Table 5.3) indicated that they were lecturers in Marketing despite having undergraduate qualifications in Commerce in fields that could be deemed not directly related to Marketing.

Table 5.3: Respondents with undergraduates in business but not related to Marketing

5	**Undergraduate qualifications in Commerce but not related to Marketing e.g. Management and BCom General**
	1 x Finance (Respondent 24) 2 x Bachelor of Commerce General (Respondent 6 and Respondent 20) 2 x Bachelor of Commerce Business Management (Respondent 18 and Respondent 21)

The final four respondents indicated that their undergraduate qualifications were outside of Marketing and even out of the broader fields in Commerce (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4: Respondents with qualifications outside of Marketing and the fields of business

4	**Undergraduate qualifications outside of Marketing and or Commerce**
	Bachelor of Administration in Political Science (Respondent 15) Bachelor of Science in Microbiology and Biochemistry (Respondent 19) Bachelor of Science in Mathematics (Respondent 28) Bachelor of Commerce in Computer Science and Mathematics (Respondent 10)

It is worth noting that some of the qualifications, for example, Public Relations and Communication Science, are widely seen as aspects of Marketing discussed in detail under the subareas of Marketing in Section 2.3.2. They do however have their own distinctive recognition; for example, in South Africa, the field of Public Relations has its own affiliation organisation, the Public Relations Institute of Southern Africa (PRISA). Despite the existence of such an organisation, these fields are usually seen as Marketing specialisations both in Marketing literature and in practice, as often when jobs are advertised in these fields the positions are open to Marketing graduates. It is also not unusual that recruits in these subfields would report to a Marketing department or a Marketing Director.

The data showed how some academics saw the field of Marketing, at least in part, through the lens of their own trajectory into Marketing. For example, the influence of Public Relations (PR) can be seen when Respondent 7 declared their affiliation with the PR body.

> PR has PRISA, with whom I've been very, very involved with and although it's not a regulatory body. … I've actually written two articles about the professionalisation of the discipline. Most specifically in PR but it also applies to Marketing … okay so actually I have a DComm in Communication Management … so initially, when I started out my academic career I worked in PR and Communications … and then I did major in Marketing … and then my career did take a bit of turn when … I joined the Marketing Department there, so I started teaching in Marketing. (Respondent 7)

In Marketing literature both PR and communications are seen to be a part of the Promotional mix elements (Whalley, 2010) and thus a core of Marketing, however, the respondent described their work in PR and Communications as if it is apart from Marketing. While the respondent showed a very close relationship between the two they also seemed to be navigating a relationship between the PR profession which is organised outside of Marketing and the field of Marketing. For other respondents, PR was an uncontested part of Marketing, acting as a subfield of Marketing.

> I would guess that a career in Sports Management, one of the career paths would be Public Relations because they do that as a subject. (Respondent 25)

> Its part and parcel of Marketing. What I was doing, I was doing three broad courses, Marketing, Sales Management, and Public Relations. Public Relations it's an extension of – it's part of the Marketing Communication tools. … I have just told them that, look you guys, instead of thinking of being a salesperson, there is Marketing Research, there is Marketing Communications; like you can specialise and say I want to specialise in Advertising. I want to specialise in Public Relations and leave this sales thing because everyone is a salesperson. (Respondent 9)

Thus far the data has shown Marketing as resembling a newer region with little agreement as to the fields from which it draws its knowledge. There are complex, often unclear boundaries between its subfields like Public Relations and Communications which were characterised by participants as both independent of and a part of Marketing. There were also relationships to newer regions like Tourism which is not classified as a subfield in Marketing literature but the data suggested a strong proximity to Marketing, which may be indicative of an even weaker boundary in Tourism and the possibility of a high level of similarity to Marketing.

Ease of entry into the field of Marketing from other fields was also demonstrated by respondents whose undergraduate qualifications were in business but not related to Marketing. Respondent 24 who holds a finance undergraduate degree described entering the Marketing field at master's level.

> Yes, it [undergraduate qualification] was in Finance; then when I was looking for a place to do my master's degree I couldn't get a relevant course; it was either I go into Actuarial Science which I felt was going to be too difficult or too challenging for me and then the next best option that I could do which was within the managing disciplines, was Marketing. (Respondent 24)

This raises issues about the nature of knowledge in Marketing if someone without an undergraduate in the field can enter at a higher level and find it not too challenging. The nature of the knowledge structure is discussed in more detail in the next chapter, for now, it is sufficient to note the ease of movement into Marketing at any level.

Respondent 31's career in Finance was seen to influence their conception of what Marketing is and shape their view of the changes they see as important in the Marketing curriculum.

> I was General Manager for Corporate Communications at Absa. … I think the first thing that we've done is our Financial Management Modules, look at Financial Management from a Marketing perspective – so not from a Financial Management perspective, meaning you're going to walk out here with Financial Management 3 where you can get into the finance environment. It would be for a Marketer to understand what finance is about and how to use finance in a marketing environment. So, if you launch a new product, what would be the things that you need to look out for? Yes, you need to understand all the financial terms etcetera, etcetera but the emphasis is not becoming a Chartered Accountant or going into finance. The emphasis is on Marketing and understanding that and that's the one big change that we've made over the last two years. (Respondent 31)

The respondent (31) emphasised their view on the importance of understanding financial terms. They demonstrated their understanding that Marketing draws from the field of Finance and recontextualises financial terms for Marketing.

Respondent 24 referred to Marketing as falling within the ambit of the management disciplines. Marketing has thus far been shown to be open to a range of fields in the business fields i.e. both those closely related to Marketing and also those further away from it. At Master's level, Marketing programmes accept undergraduates from more general Commerce fields like the BCom general and the BCom Business Management and even from fields as far flung as Finance.

> Oh, I started with my Honours[16] in Marketing. I did a Bachelor of Commerce, the general one. You know, in – I'm not sure if we still have this general Bachelor of Commerce now because really you just don't know where you are going with your BCom. (Respondent 20)

> In BCom Honours we've done a variety of courses, which was Accounting and Economics and a whole band of them. … I started with Marketing specialisation because that's when I did my master's and I felt comfortable to go into the Marketing field. (Respondent 6)

With reference to Table 5.4 above it was interesting to note the ways in which these academics described their identities and the extent to which their education background seems to have acted as a mechanism of their conception of Marketing as a field. Respondent 28 did not identify themselves as being in the Marketing department despite 15 years of teaching Marketing students. It can tentatively be seen that teaching Marketing had a weaker influence on the identity of these academics than those educated within singulars like Mathematics. The esteem with which singulars, in particular numerically focused ones, and general formative degrees were held by the study participants is explored more in detail in the next section, Section 5.4.

5.4 The BCom and Academics' Identities

Henkel (2005) argued that academics' identities emerge from their disciplines and that their affinity is inclined to their disciplinary community, more than to the institutions in which they work; but she was referring to academics teaching and researching in singulars or strong regions within the United Kingdom. In the case of this study, the academics teaching Marketing came from a range of fields and did not share a disciplinary community with which to establish an affinity.

Eleven out of 31 respondents identified their undergraduate qualification as a BCom qualification. The prevalence of the BCom degree as a common qualification among study participants led me to undertake a brief review of the subjects taught in the BCom and consider how much of the content is related, in some form, to the field of Marketing. Therefore, I undertake a very brief review of the BCom programme based on information from four

[16] An honours degree is typically a one-year degree which requires a three-year bachelor's degree as an entry requirement. An honours degree is commonly a requirement for acceptance into a master's degree.

university websites (UKZN, UP, UCT, UniZulu). The choice of these universities was because a number of respondents referred to these institutions.

At the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), Marketing is offered as a specialisation in a BCom General degree (Arbee, 2012; see Chapter Two). Students do not do any Marketing subjects in their first year and do one Marketing related subject in the second year and four subjects in the third year.

Similarly, the University of Cape Town's (UCT) Bachelor of Business Sciences degree (see Appendix R) with a Marketing specialisation and University of Pretoria's BCom in Marketing Management (see Appendix M) has very little to no specifically named Marketing modules in the first year, with most modules that seem related skewed towards the final year of study. About one third of all modules could be considered named Marketing modules.

Some of the modules in the BCom degrees are named Marketing Management and others have modules identifiable as being in the ambit of Marketing but positioned within management; for example, Communication Management and Marketing Management. The framing of Marketing modules as being in Management in these BCom degrees is further evidence of a weaker classification and the intersectionality of the two fields already discussed in detail in Section 5.2.

The bulk of the Marketing content in both the UCT and UP programmes is, as with the UKZN programme, skewed towards the third year. This raises issues of sequencing of knowledge. In the Marketing diploma, Marketing 1, 2 and 3 are offered at different levels (see Appendix I) with each lower level acting as a prerequisite for the next level; for example, to register for Marketing 2, students should have passed Marketing 1. In the bachelor's degree programme structure, there is far more flexibility of subject choices and Marketing is only introduced as a main focus in the latter part of the three-year qualification, suggesting that it builds on foundational knowledge from other fields.

The proportion of subjects with names including the term Marketing is higher in the diploma than the BCom degrees, with many fields being explicitly recontextualised in the diploma to relate to the Marketing field, for example, Law for Marketers (see Appendix I) and Economics for Marketing (as discussed in Section 5.3 above). While the diploma curriculum also contains subjects like Accounting, Computing, Economics, and Management, more of such modules are offered in the BCom qualifications. It could be for this reason that some of the academics referred to Marketing as if it is a general qualification in Commerce or a specialisation in Commerce. Similarly, reference to Marketing as if it were Entrepreneurship (Respondent 18), Strategy (Respondent 1), Management (Respondent 11), and Sales (Respondents 19 and 30), may be related to the prevalence of the BCom as a qualification held by many respondents.

The presence of Marketing in other degrees is shown at the University of Pretoria (UP) which offers five BCom degrees with different names but with a Marketing Management subject in each of the three years of study (see Appendix L; Appendix M; Appendix N; Appendix O and Appendix P). The five degrees are Recreation and Sport Management; Informatics; Marketing Management; Business Management; and BCom General. The inclusion of Marketing in other degrees could be in line with a view of Marketing as an orientation, where Marketing is seen as a lens through which employees across the company need to engage with in their activities keeping in mind the three key components of Marketing which are: the customer, the competitor, and internal coordination of the business' functions (Kelly, 2017). In this view, Marketing can be treated like a module taught to a Commerce qualification to give graduates a Marketing lens while working in different specialisations of business (Moorman & Rust, 1999). The ease of entry of graduates from such BCom qualifications into teaching Marketing could be the reason for the more casual view towards Marketing as a delineated field of study and a field of work.

5.5 Facing the World of Work: A Heterogeneity of Workplaces

As indicated in Section 5.1, a key characteristic of regions, besides drawing from multiple disciplines and fields for its knowledge, is that it faces outwards to the world of work. The Marketing curriculum is influenced by its relations to the world of work as it seeks to equip students with forms of knowledge that enable practice (Winberg et al., 2013). The data provided plenty of evidence of the outward focus of the field. Most of it was demonstrated when respondents indicated the importance of the application of knowledge.

> Because we focus a lot on application, they can walk into a business environment and start immediately because it's not just theory that they know. It's theory combined with the practical application. (Respondent 31)

The strong emphasis in the data of the need to focus on industry was however made more complex by the lack of clarity as to what constituted 'industry'. The Marketing profession serves a highly varied business environment as respondents pointed out a large number of companies into which their graduates could enter.

> At the time SA Brewery would employ our students for their Learnership Programmes. (Respondent 20)

SA Breweries is an alcohol beverage company. Respondent 13 gave another beverage company.

> So, if you, for instance, I picked the New Life Company, which is a natural, spring bottled water company. (Respondent 13)

Respondent 13 also gave several other companies as destinations for Marketing graduates like Pick n Pay, a national supermarket chain; GlaxoSmithKline, an international pharmaceutical company; and MTN, which is a South African based international telecommunications company. Respondent 6 detailed the diversity of the workplace:

> And then you have, like furniture companies, like Lewis and all these people. Woolworths takes our students as well. Surprisingly, it's the retailers that are taking our Marketing students for in-service[17]. (Respondent 6)

Respondent 31 added the financial sector to this mix:

> We went into the industry and we asked Financial Managers as well as Marketing Directors and Marketing Managers and junior marketing people in the industry, what are you looking for, what are the needs etcetera, etcetera? (Respondent 31)

Respondent 31 highlighted the importance of consulting leaders in the industry to establish the knowledge requirements for the world of work. The respondent seemed to be engaging with knowledge that enables practice or situated knowledge. Situated knowledge has been characterised as difficult to access as it is often tacit and acquired in more social ways over a longer period of time (Winberg et al., 2013). This is akin to the concept of gazes in which one's pre-existing disposition is valued more than what they know or how they get to know. The gazes are discussed in detail in chapter seven. While respondents demonstrated the varied nature of the work environments in which Marketing graduates find themselves, most

[17] In-service is a placement programme where students enrolled for a Marketing diploma are placed in a working environment for a period of approximately three months.

respondents did not seem to refer to the nature of the knowledge that the curriculum puts together for the purposes of use in these varied industries. The selection of knowledge to enable practice in the world of work given the variation in contexts in a varied workplace is clearly challenging. The positioning of the Marketing diploma in the Universities of Technology where there is an expectation of an emphasis on situated knowledge places pressure on the academics in multiple ways. It makes the selection of knowledge for the curriculum a complex issue and it also makes engaging with knowledge production as researchers a challenge (Garraway & Winberg, 2019).

A clearly defined workplace allows regions to look both ways, inwards for the selection and development of "systematically organised propositional knowledge" (Winch, 2010 in Hordern, 2016, p. 2) and outwards to specific contexts of the world of practice. A region with a clearly defined workplace is thus better able to develop knowledge that meets the requirements of practice. Examples of such regions include professions such as teaching and surgery where there is a known workplace, a classroom in a school, or a medical theatre in a hospital.

On the other hand, regions which characteristically serve an ambiguous and varied work environment such as Marketing, face the tension of multiple accountabilities (Shay, 2016) as they seek to balance the multiple needs of a varied world of work. Such regions are likely to struggle to develop a strong, coherent body of knowledge. It is extremely difficult for regions with ill-defined workplace destinations to address the needs of the workplace and thus their curriculum boundaries tend to be comparatively weaker.

The data was replete with examples of the varied workplaces. There was also evidence of concerned academics about the difficulty of preparing students for such varied workplaces.

> Even if you go to Johnson & Johnson, their Marketing Department is in Cape Town. You'll find companies placing them into irrelevant departments just to comply in the work integrated learning, in which then it doesn't give them the holistic part. (Respondent 30)

The respondent seemed to be highlighting the challenge of the University of Technology curriculum where there is an expectation that the diploma must be practical and prepare students for the world of work (Shay, 2016). The expectation of the curriculum to face the world of work entails "using 'just-in-time' disciplinary knowledge in authentic, pragmatic, inter- or multi-disciplinary work", however, this requires "an even more sophisticated grasp of disciplinary knowledge" (Freebody, 2006, p. 23). In order to prepare students for the world of work, diploma curricula are expected to have more field specific skills and less conceptual knowledge. This has the potential to prepare students less well for instances where theoretical knowledge is needed.

5.6 Navigating Theory and Knowledge for Practice and Practice Itself

The data revealed a key challenge faced by Marketing as a new region, particularly facing as it does a heterogenous world of work. Some respondents sought to explain their endeavours to prepare students for the world of work, but the varied nature of the workplace meant that their attempts to expose students to a broad range of practices was a challenge. This could potentially be overcome through a separation of knowledge for practice (a type of theory) and examples from the practice itself.

The distinction between theory as being anything in a text and theory as being anything related to industry application, may well have emerged from the Technikon history where classes were designated in the convenorship system as being either theory or practice. Lessons on the timetable were thus theory lessons or practice lessons and the hours tallied accordingly. For subjects where there was laboratory work, such as Dental Technology or Town Planning, classes held in the laboratory or studio were designated 'practical' and all classes held in a lecture theatre were designated 'theory'. This superficial distinction between theory and practical continues to have effects on how theory is understood, as evidenced in the study data.

> I use what you call a lot of practical examples. … Because it [textbook] just tells you theory but I tell the students the practical application for me, it comes off my head. (Respondent 4)

Without a conceptualisation of the role of theory in building knowledge and allowing knowledge to be translated across contexts, there is a danger that access to powerful knowledge could be undermined. Powerful theoretical knowledge should allow students to move beyond their context and attend to new problems, the not yet thought (Wheelahan, 2007a).

In this distinction between theory and practice, practice is presented as something embodied and something which can be discussed.

> Well, what we're teaching in Marketing is what you call the practical side of it. (Respondent 4)

Respondent 4 further reinforced the idea that practice is what is taught in the Marketing curriculum and Respondent 3 also showed the relationship between theory and practice.

> I briefly refer to the theory and then I say, 'okay, there is the case study'. (Respondent 3)

The practice is shown as being taught through a case study. The case study is not seen as an opportunity for theorisation of the practice within a specific environment.

> For me, the measure there is if I give you this can you apply it, like in the practice outside? What can you do with your theoretical knowledge? (Respondent 3)

Respondent 3 emphasised the importance of practice and indeed showed it as the application of theoretical knowledges. They also demonstrated that the theoretical knowledge is typically learned at the university and the practice is situated in the world of work which they refer to as 'outside'. There is no doubt that both theory and practice are valued, however, referring all practice to the world of work without specifying how the knowledge is to be applied in a varied workplace shows the complex nature of the relationship between the two and that their separation is often not well understood. Winberg et al. (2013) argued that the backgrounding of theory, and yet claiming to focus on preparing learners for competent practice in industry, is an uninformed common-sense view of the knowledge required for practice.

There was a lack of clarity amongst the participants as to what constitutes 'theory'. Oftentimes this seemed to relate to anything taught in a lecture or found in a textbook rather than the more formal academic notion of 'theory'. Theories are analytical tools for understanding, explaining, and making predictions about a given subject matter. A theory is important as:

> (1) it provides a framework for analysis; (2) it provides an efficient method for field development; and (3) it provides clear explanations for the pragmatic world. (Wacker, 1998, p. 362)

The difficulty participants had in separating practice and theory was also highlighted by another respondent who also classifies the showing of an advertisement as application.

> It's a lot of stuff that you can apply practically in the class by making use of advertisements. … Ja, there's a lot of practical applications that you can use in the class. (Respondent 2)

Here the respondent showed the conflation of the analysis of an advert as a case study and the practice of Advertising i.e. the creation of the advertisement by applying relevant knowledge.

There was an evident tension between the desire to prepare students for the world of work and a lack of clarity as to what the world of work would look like for Marketing graduates. The data showed that the respondents' understanding of the preparation of students for the world of work was an attempt to focus on specific contexts in the workplace, yet some scholars have argued that "to ensure a strong basis for practice, students need disciplinary knowledge" (Winberg et al., 2013, p. 101). The challenges of disciplinarity have been highlighted throughout this chapter as the field of Marketing seems to draw from several fields and has also been described as weak in developing theories for the field. The underlying disciplines were not always clear in the discussions with some respondents.

Having a very clearly bounded workplace and developing very strictly contextualised knowledge focused only on the current practices of that workplace would not be desirable either as it runs the risk of reducing access to 'powerful knowledge' (Wheelahan, 2007b). But it would seem that the lack of clarity as to the workplace in this study circumscribed a focus on clearly articulated theoretical underpinnings which would allow the student to move between contexts. It would seem the lack of clarity of workplace constrained the development of stronger conceptual coherence in the curriculum.

5.7 Marketing: A Region Leaning Towards Generics

The data presented in this chapter confirmed that Marketing constitutes a region as it draws knowledge from multiple disciplines and functions to serve a variety of industries.

Further classification of regions seeks to differentiate those which have over time developed their own knowledge base, autonomy, and stability; these are variously referred to as classic, traditional, or old regions and are contrasted with the new, contemporary, or fourth generation regions (Linh, 2010; Muller, 2009). Beck and Young (2005) argued that "old regions" are represented by the traditional professions and "new regions" are characteristically new qualifications in vocationally oriented higher education. Examples of classical regions include "engineering, medicine, architecture" and examples of contemporary regions are "cognitive science, management, business studies, communications, and media" (Linh, 2010, p. 49).

The literature on the field of Marketing largely indicated that it draws on a few established fields like Economics and Psychology, and this was also evident in this study data. But across the totality of the data were references to Marketing drawing from a number of other fields, for example from Information Technology (IT) for the purposes of digital Marketing. Positions like Chief Marketing Technologist are often framed as belonging in the field of Marketing (Brinker & McLellan, 2014) and yet they require a solid foundation in IT.

While Marketing has been classified as one of the newer regions or fourth generation professions (Muller, 2009), the data suggested it is inclined towards a generic as it draws from a large number of changing fields. Linh (2010) argued that generics lack intrinsic content and furthermore, lack the ability to develop a stable body of knowledge to regulate their practices.

Unlike the more established regions such as law and medicine which have strong professional bodies, clear academic identities, and an autonomy which allows them to retain their specialised distinctiveness, regions such as Marketing can be recontextualised into a virtual generic field (Muller, 2009). Muller (2009) raised the concern that the newer regions have a much weaker disciplinary base, their academics have a weaker professional identity and less autonomy. This has major implications for curricula structure. Practitioners in newer regions and generic fields are likely to be characterised by multiple changing identities due to the lack of a clear stable identity; they may also end up with a lack of recognition of the self (Wheelahan, 2007a).

The rise of generics is associated with a new paradigm for generic competences in which "the concept of trainability is now the key principle governing the construction of curriculum and pedagogy" (Wheelahan, 2005, p. 2). The paradigm embraces a process of unending reformations and "is based on the acquisition of generic modes which it is hoped will realise a flexible transferable potential rather than specific performances" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 59). However, this approach "severs the link between the regions and disciplines and changes the relationship between knower and knowledge" (Wheelahan, 2005, p. 3).

5.8 Conclusion

Given such diversity of educational and workplace backgrounds of academics and the disparate fields of origin of knowledge it is clear that Marketing is unlike singulars which "develop strong, autonomous self-sealing and narcissistic identities" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 54). It demonstrates an openness characterised by ease of entry typical of regions which have been characterised as newer or contemporary. While regions may offer a degree of openness to permit construction of new knowledge and improvement of current knowledge (Osborne, 2015) they require a degree of insulation, or 'necessary distance' (Muller, 2008) from other fields for stability and to retain an identity that differentiates the field from others. Muller and Young (2014, p. 132) argued that if a field is too open it may reach the extreme where it may be characterised by an "un-reliability of their knowledge base".

The breadth and diversity of sources of knowledge, backgrounds of academics, and the disparate workplaces Marketing graduates find themselves in, is likely to lead to a field characterised by a "lack of agreement on shared epistemic rules" (Muller & Young, 2014). This is shown by the different status levels given to the disciplines and fields that Marketing draws from.

The multiple pathways by which the participants entered Marketing education is tentative evidence of the unsettled nature of the region and its organising principles. The implications are that knowledge in the curriculum is likely to be unsettled. In the next two chapters I hone in more explicitly into what it is that is legitimated within the curriculum. In Chapter Six, I look at the structure of the knowledge in the Marketing curriculum as evidenced in the interviews and curriculum documents.

Chapter Six: Epistemic Relations – What is Valued in Marketing?

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is a continuation of the analysis of data on the Marketing curriculum. The previous chapter, Chapter Five, discussed the field of Marketing as a region (leaning towards being a generic) which draws from multiple other fields and also faces the world of work. The next two chapters focus on that which makes Marketing different from other fields. They enact a Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) tool, Specialisation.

While there was indeed deliberation as to the object of knowledge in the curriculum, as will be unpacked in this chapter, the large majority of lecturers' responses focused on the need for being a particular kind of knower to be successful in Marketing. The data also evidenced a much stronger focus on the social issues that affect learning than the nature of knowledge. The privileging of a stronger knower was evident across the data and the ideal professional identity in Marketing was rarely portrayed as being dependent on the knowledge acquired during the diploma but rather on the dispositions that students bring. The stronger knower focus will be discussed in the subsequent chapter, Chapter Seven. This chapter analyses the epistemic relations by zooming into the knowledge, skills, and processes that respondents presented as important in the Marketing curriculum. It must be emphasised that even after using probing techniques it was rather challenging to get answers on the structure of knowledge as most academics felt the students were underprepared and in a way not the right ones for the Marketing curriculum. The knowledges discussions were thus subverted or muted. The analysis must thus be taken in the spirit of an analysis of the structure of knowledges as they appear in a conversation and not in a lecture.

LCT has been previously discussed in Chapter Three (Theoretical Framework). Specialisation brings together an analysis of the knowledge structures (epistemic relations) and the knowers (social relations) legitimated in Marketing. In Specialisation, every practice is understood to be about something and by someone. Epistemic relations represent that which the practice is about – the knowledge part of practices – and focuses on the specialist disciplinary knowledge, skills, procedures, and techniques. Stronger epistemic relations (ER+) are when emphasis is placed on the possession of disciplinary knowledge and standards. Weaker epistemic relations (ER-) are when the disciplinary knowledges are downplayed.

6.2 The Claim to a Strong Knowledge Focus

The data quotes below showed that there was much *focus*[18] on knowledge, but it became clear as will be shown in the rest of the chapter, that this was not the *basis*[19] on which success is achieved.

> I'd like them to be able to understand some terminology and some procedures and the goal of marketing. (Respondent 11)
>
> By the time we finish, the key idea of what the basic principles are – that's the foundation. (Respondent 16)
>
> The first two levels they do Marketing, the elementary and the fundamentals in the first year. (Respondent 6)

All sorts of knowledges were included in the data but there was no agreement as to what constitutes that knowledge, thus demonstrating weaker epistemic relations (ER-). Respondents made mention of such a broad knowledge base of Marketing, giving an impression of the existence of a strong knowledge base in the field but there was far less engagement with the actual nature and strength of this knowledge. The comparatively weaker epistemic relations (ER-) were often overshadowed by the stronger social relations (SR++) as shown in Figure below. In this chapter I focus on an analysis of the epistemic relations and the social relations are discussed in the next chapter.

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[18] The words *focus* and *basis* are used as technical terms where *focus* refers to what is being spoken about or the object of discussion.

[19] *Basis* moves beyond the surface features of what is being spoken about and refers to why it is selected.

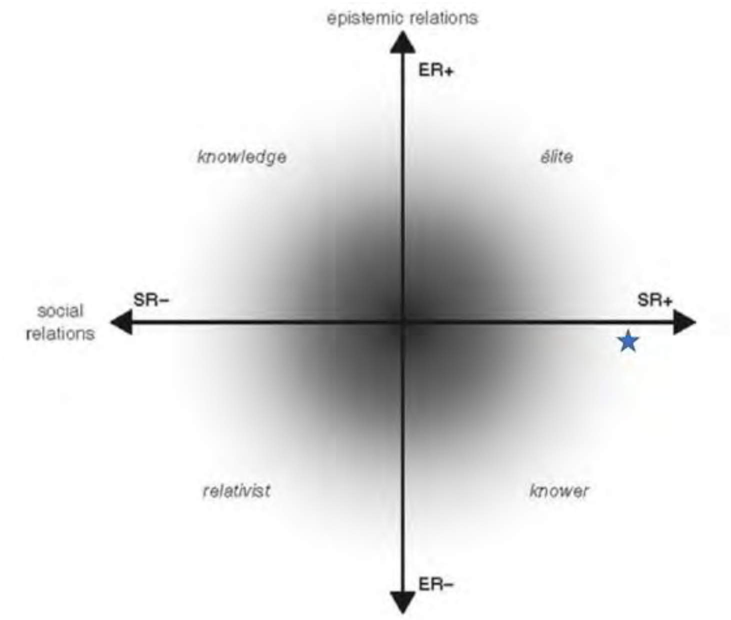

Figure 6.1: Positioning the data on the Specialisation plane (Adapted from Maton, 2014, p. 30)

The Specialisation tool helped me to analyse the epistemic relations, the extent to which having a particular set of knowledge, skills, and practices is necessary for success in the Marketing diploma. Specialisation however, does not say much in terms of what form that knowledge takes. For a more detailed analysis I enacted the Semantics plane which allowed me to interrogate more deeply the structuring of epistemic relations. The Semantics plane also revealed that while there was stronger focus on knowledge, this knowledge was at the same time not the basis of success. Further to knowledge not being the basis of success (and maybe because of it), the use of everyday language in discussions on knowledge demonstrated weaker epistemic relations. The use of everyday language in the data cannot be seen to be the participants trying to explain the field in accessible terms to the interviewer as my "insider" position was made clear and to a large extent, the responses also indicated that these were conversations with a colleague.

Semantics and the Semantics plane are discussed in detail in Chapter Three and below is a brief reminder of the key concepts.

In Legitimation Code Theory, the Semantics plane (see detailed discussion in Section 3.13) is constituted through bringing together the concepts of semantic gravity (SG) and semantic density (SD). Semantic gravity refers to the degree to which meaning is related to the contexts in which it is used or originated, while semantic density refers to the extent to which meaning is condensed to contain more or less meanings. When the two concepts are brought together the Semantics plane generates four codes which are:

- Worldly code – characterised by both stronger semantic gravity (SG+) and stronger semantic density (SD+).
- Rhizomatic code – characterised by weaker semantic gravity (SG-) and stronger semantic density (SD+).
- Rarefied code – characterised by both weaker semantic gravity (SG-) and weaker semantic density (SD-).
- Prosaic code – characterised by stronger semantic gravity (SG+) and weaker semantic density (SD-).

The codes allow multiple tracking of knowledge practices within each code and movement between codes to reveal the structure and forms of knowledge.

In this chapter the discussion of the data is structured using the Marketing mix (the 4Ps). The literature review indicated that the Marketing mix which became the organising structure of textbooks from the 1950s (Shaw & Jones, 2005) remains a core mechanism of structuring the field of Marketing (Wilkie & Moore, 2007) (see Section 2.3). The 4Ps emerged repeatedly in the data and thus serve as a useful structure for the discussion that follows.

Respondents presented the Marketing mix as one of the fundamental content concepts:

> Again, also specifically looking at the four Ps, you'll see that the chapters, each chapter will look at that. (Respondent 11)

> The marketing mix, … which involves obviously, product, price, place, and promotion. (Respondent 1)

The Marketing mix is sometimes understood as the fundamental concept in Marketing or a way of summarising the activities and defining the boundaries of the field of Marketing. Both the literature and the data suggested however, that while it is the main organising principle it is not the only way to encapsulate knowledge in the field of Marketing.

The Marketing mix emerged in conversation with at least half the respondents, with Respondent 16 referring to the Marketing mix as "the traditional four Ps knowledge" while

Respondent 9 called it “a celebratory sort of model” to illustrate its frequent use. Respondent 9 demonstrated that there are several varieties of the Ps model.

> There are some sources that will say eight Ps, some they say nine Ps. (Respondent 9)

There are of course other Marketing concepts beyond the 4Ps such as Segmentations, Targeting and Position (STP); Strategic Marketing; Management in Marketing, and economic analysis models including Porter’s five forces; the SWOT and PESTEL models; micro-macro environmental analysis, and consumer analysis. The way in which additional concepts emerged in the data is discussed after a consideration of the 4Ps. The first of the 4Ps to be discussed is product.

6.3 Product

Product was possibly the most discussed of the four Ps, where respondents gave examples of products.

> A loaf of bread. (Respondent 4)

> Vacuum cleaners and fridges. (Respondent 21)

> Alcoholic beverages like “Black Label” and “Heineken”. (Respondent 26)

> Soft drinks “Coke” and “Pepsi” … handmade bracelets … cars like “Toyota” and “Nissan”. (Respondent 18)

Products were presented as a major focus of the field; they were viewed as the crux of the field and as the concept that strongly binds and controls the field. A closer analysis revealed that the nature of products was highly variable as shown by the respondents above. While the products seem to have great diversity, the dominant logic of Marketing – described as the focus on tangible resources with embedded value and transactions – is understood as giving products a unitary form (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). The power of a theory is in its ability to be applied in several contexts across many field and thus unitary form of the concept of ‘product’ gives the impression of a field characterised by stronger semantic density which allows the application of theories, concepts, methods, and ideas from the field of Marketing to any product in spite of their diverse nature, thus reinforcing an image of a strongly bound and controlled field.

In addition to the examples of tangible products, respondents also gave examples of Marketing involved with products of an intangible nature.

> Like in the service industry where you have a service deliverer and the customer, you need both of them to be there. (Respondent 12)

> Customer Service in the insurance industry … Customer Service is only looking at service. (Respondent 6)

> I was part of the team that launched the "four into one ABSA" [a South African bank] and "I am ABSA, I am the brand". So, looking after the overall image of ABSA and primarily launching … the brand. (Respondent 31)

> If we look at the education experience, a) the lecturer can be great, but you need the student to be actively involved. (Respondent 12)

Respondent 12 above referred to education as intangible, as a service instead of a product and uses the language of services – describing education as an experience and as something that requires engagement between the lecturer as the person (people is one of the three Ps in the extended 7Ps model where the three additional Ps were developed to particularly assist in the Marketing of services) providing the service, and the student as the "consumer" of the service.

In these examples, participants referred to service as involving interaction, where the customer has to be present and someone has to deliver the service. Here they were describing a characteristic of service known in theory as inseparability i.e. the service cannot be experienced outside the service provider (Grönroos, 2006). The data included detailed discussions of services but without an explicit reference to concepts from Marketing in the literature such as inseparability, intangibility, heterogeneity, and perishability.

Across the data, respondents referred to products and how they relate to services. Most of these portrayed products as somewhat distinct from services.

> You as an individual in the service industry are responsible for the brand because you are the brand. You don't have a product that you sell, you sell your service as an organisation. (Respondent 31)

The separation of service and product has been discussed in the review of literature in Section 2.3 where Shostack, as early as 1977, noted that products and services can be distinguishable but that they are largely not mutually exclusive i.e. they are usually a part of each other but that one is usually dominant. Shostack (1977) argued for the understanding of the one which is dominant as it has implications on the choice of appropriate Marketing practices. The data did not show an engagement with product and services which acknowledged their nuanced relationship.

In Legitimation Code Theory terms, the expansion of the object of study points to a potential weakening of the boundary of what constitutes Marketing knowledge. This broadening of the object of study was seen to have theoretical implications too:

> No, we could go on and on, traditionally products … are related to four and services are related to an additional three, just to distinguish those characteristics between the two. …The four Ps and the three Ps are often combined and referred to as "the seven Ps knowledge" (Respondent 16).

The seven Ps are often referred to as the extended Marketing mix in which the three additional Ps are People, Processes and Physical Evidence, also known as the 'services mix'. The bringing together of more concepts seemed to indicate the strengthening of the semantic density. However, another respondent added that the 7Ps are important for "understanding that products are distinctly different from the services" (Respondent 9) showing that the concepts could be more segmentally organised and not necessarily applicable across both products and services. In the data, Marketing itself was also classified as a service.

> Marketing is a service and it has to adapt within that industry, what that industry dictates. (Respondent 15)

The respondent demonstrated that in the marketing of services there is an expectation to adapt Marketing to industry. The requirement to adapt is an indication that Marketing services different fields. The products have been shown as diverse and the services have been portrayed as separate from products thus increasing the possibility of segmentation within the field. The respondents alluded to the expectation that the building of knowledge would need to reflect the dictates of a diverse industry.

In addition to a diversity of products – the acknowledgement of services as having different characteristics and the subsequent common practice of showing products and services as separate – the diversity of Marketing was emphasised by one of the respondents.

> No, [Marketing] it's so diverse ... it's one of the strengths of Marketing but at the same time is a weakness ... it's so diverse, even Marketing is employed in the Engineering industry. ... And so, you can go on with Marketing, just

> so many spheres where it's different and that to me is the problem that – and it will remain a problem for Marketing as a discipline. (Respondent 15)

The power to develop Marketing knowledge was thus seen to be largely held outside the field. It would be more difficult for such diverse needs to be met by set criteria and therefore, the development of knowledge is likely to be weakly bounded and controlled with the consequence of weakening the field. The diversity was portrayed as a current and future problem, emanating from the multiplicity of the environment in which graduates are expected to work, as the field also has a weakly bound and controlled workplace.

Another respondent seemed to give more information on how the field of Marketing relates to the diverse world of work and also showed how the diversity could pose challenges.

> You see, if there are – say for instance, in the motor industry, employ a student, there are certain things that they want. But if that student is going to a shoe manufacturer, they want something different. (Respondent 3)

> For example, the lady at Truworths told us that the students don't even know about the different types of clothing and then they would actually give them examples. … Right, so if they know about branding and they go into a company like Vodacom. … This Mercedes Benz company. (Respondent 6)

This data is key in that it demonstrated that different industries have different knowledge needs from Marketing graduates. In other words when a graduate gets a Marketing job, while the Marketing curriculum is meant to prepare them for Marketing tasks, industry requires product specific knowledge. While there is evidence of an attempt to satisfy the needs of industry, the respondent showed that what is required is the addition of a new type of knowledge as opposed to the strengthening of the knowledge that is currently in the curriculum.

While the literature and most of the respondents alluded to the Marketing mix being the central organising principles, the data also showed that these concepts, in particular, that of product being discussed here, were not strongly bounded. The knowledge in the field was grown through the addition of more and more concepts, rather than through cumulative building of knowledge in ways that encompassed existing knowledge.

The concept of New Product Development (NPD) was referred to in the learning outcomes of a first year subject, Marketing 1, where learners are to "Identify the new product development process" (refer to Appendix T). NPD also appeared in a number of the interviews and further demonstrates the unbounded nature of knowledge in the Marketing curriculum.

> We do anything, we do product research for example, it's a new product that's being launched now. (Respondent 14)

> And then if you're having a new product development for example, I think it's an eight-step process. (Respondent 11)

> It supports business and product development in Engineering and Architecture and Accounting. (Respondent 1)

> They must understand how the product is developed. (Respondent 30)

Respondent 1 gave an example of the diverse fields that the Marketing graduate may be expected to know about, such as the development of specialised products. The Marketing literature also showed the involvement of Marketing graduates in product development processes:

> Consequently, an increasing number of firms are entrusting the product development task to teams composed of individuals from a variety of functional areas, such as marketing, research and development (R&D), manufacturing, and purchasing. (Sethi, 2000, p. 1)

Being a part of product development teams requires some engagement with the technicalities involved in the manufacture of products. The process of new product development requires substantial expertise which would vary significantly between fields with different knowledge, for example, notable differences are expected between fields like medicine and auto mechanics. The demand for specialised knowledge about existing products and about the process of new product development was felt as an unattainable pressure by many of the interviewees.

> Then you will need 12 years to train the students. (Respondent 3)

The associating of Marketing with trends and changes in society also adds to the view of Marketing graduates being expected to be closely involved in new product development, as a respondent indicated below.

> I saw an example the other day of Kodak and their core business was about printing pictures but today it's very different and their business model has had to change. … So these consumer trends impact business models and I think that is what is making Marketing so varied because we didn't know 20 years ago we need iPads and tablets and now it's sort of one of the things that is a driving force for many people. (Respondent 7)

Some respondents described the field of Marketing as a driver of trends influencing what people desire and buy. However, in the data quote above for example, it is evident that the role of Marketing in driving change and in the development of new technologies was not directly attributed. In this case, the relationship between the specific knowledge involved in the development of new technologies and the Marketing knowledge required to make these products accepted and adopted by consumers, was not explicit and thus what is to be learnt for Marketing purposes is left open to the dictates of other industries. This case raises potential issues of opaqueness of the curriculum to the lecturer and the pedagogy to the student.

The knowledge expectations for the Marketing curriculum were further complicated by the use of the word 'new' in the field – a word repeatedly used in the interviews – as it usually has a wide variation of meanings. 'New' could mean a simple change in packaging e.g. using a widely used home technology like grease proof paper to package fresh chips in a restaurant. Such a simple change could be recommended by a non-technical person. Yet 'new' can also mean major improvements based on cutting edge scientific knowledge, such as the development of Tetra Paks which greatly increase the shelf life of products like milk. The development of such new technologies requires technical testing over a period of time in specialised laboratories. The extent to which Marketing graduates are expected to develop the new products or to enhance the market for this was blurred in the data.

The expectations of Marketing graduates to participate in technical tasks around product design and development may have emerged at a time when management theory advanced the idea of marketing as an orientation. In this view, Marketing is understood as a function in which every member of the organisation participates (Moorman & Rust, 1999). This school of thought believes that Marketing has to be embedded in the practices of each and every individual in the organisation. In this school of thought, a technical person could get training in Marketing and therefore sit in a product development team and reflect on the needs of the people, a function that Marketing performs, but also be able to look at the technical aspects of the product with the precision of an expert in the field. Proponents of Marketing as an orientation, advocate for Marketing to be perceived as an add-on that can be taught to a graduate in a short space of time. This logic can be observed in commerce degrees, for example, the Bachelor of Business Science with a Marketing specialisation at the University of Cape Town (discussed in Section 5.4 and shown in Appendix R) where Marketing content mainly occupies the fourth year of a four-year degree). The first three years are focused on giving the students a firm grounding in the broader fields of commerce.

The claims in the data of a strong knowledge focus can therefore be seen to have suggested a strongly bounded field framed by the concept of product. However, a closer look showed that the diversity of the nature of products and the inclusion of services, makes an overarching knowledge base for Marketing a challenge. The academics interviewed felt pressure to include some product knowledge from a broad range of industries and also to include some technical knowledge for the purposes of product development, while also indicating that this was an impossible task.

6.4 Promotion

Promotion is a part of the Marketing mix (4Ps); it has its own elements which are often referred to as the Promotional mix and include sales promotion, personal selling, advertising and public relation. Marketing Promotions were discussed in the literature review in Chapter Two, Section 2.3. The online documents showed that in 10 out of the 11 institutions, at least one subject is dedicated to the teaching of Promotion elements (see Appendix I). The subject was confirmed by a number of respondents.

> I'm doing … Advertising and Sales Promotion … Advertising, I've already applied to change from Advertising and Sales Promotion to Integrated Marketing Communication. The reason, I preferred was there are plenty Marketing Communication tools. Advertising and Sales Promotion are just two of them. (Respondent 9)

> ... but the subject Advertising although it's mentioned [as] Advertising, it entails so much more. It's all the IMC elements … Integrated Marketing Communication [IMC]. (Respondent 2)

The subject is loosely referred to as Advertising. The Promotional elements are sometimes referred to as Promotion tools. When conducting a Marketing campaign only a selection of these elements is used. A common consideration in Marketing is to make sure that the Promotional elements selected are coordinated and thus used for a common unified cause to avoid different and contradictory messages which may confuse people. The practice of integrating and coordinating communications is commonly referred to as Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC). The term IMC is also commonly used as a synonym for the Promotional mix.

Advertising is the most dominant of the Promotional elements and is usually used loosely, as if it encompasses all the Promotion elements, and in some instances, it is presented as if it is Marketing in its totality. The respondents below sought to correct this view.

> Advertising is only a part of Marketing. (Respondent 31)

> I have seen people go to Advertising and say I am Marketing. (Respondent 9)

The misconstrued positioning of Advertising as equated with Marketing is quite common, and another respondent found it necessary to clarify.

> Ideally, students should know that Marketing is not Advertising because that's invariably what everybody [thinks]. (Respondent 16)

The respondent emphasised the need to ensure that these relations in the field are made clear to Marketing students, as they come into the field with a layperson's view. Below, respondent 12 addressed a further misconstrual in the field where Marketing is sometimes mistaken for another Promotional mix element.

> Marketing is much more than selling then they find out but it's not just selling, it's also Advertising. (Respondent 12)

Below, Respondent 2 referred to Advertising as a subject within the study of Marketing:

> Look, I like Advertising. It's a very interesting subject. It's a lot of stuff that you can apply practically in the class by making use of advertisements. … You can take the students to the industry. Ja, there's a lot of practical applications that you can use in the class. (Respondent 2)

Another respondent introduced a component of the Promotional mix, "word-of-mouth" communication, in association with Advertising.

> It's important in Marketing as a whole. If we take any industry – if you have a passive customer – we know that word-of-mouth is the cheapest form of Advertising and the most preferred at this stage with social media. (Respondent 12)

The concept of word-of-mouth communication refers to the sharing of information in a non-commercial social setting. It is often between friends and family. The source of information is trusted because they are assumed to have no affiliation to the brand they are talking about. This type of communication is typically not paid for, though in the current era of 'influencers' the lines between word-of-mouth and paid Advertising are blurred. While the respondent is a Marketing lecturer, someone who holds relative expertise in Marketing, the respondent also showed a casualness about theory as they classified word-of-mouth under Advertising. In Marketing theory, Advertising includes the element that it should be paid for, it should be non-personal and should have an identified sponsor (see discussion in Chapter Two). Word-of-mouth is however typically not paid for and also cannot have an identified sponsor. It is also social and constitutes the sharing of information within friend circles, it therefore cannot be non-personal. Such discussions of concepts without engaging with the nuances of the relationship between them showed a casualness towards the field and a weak valuing of knowledge in the field (ER-). In this case the knowledge practices of the respondent showed a casual use of theoretical terms causing contradictions which demonstrate a weaker semantic density (SD-). The data was replete with rather 'everyday' deliberations around Advertising and related concepts.

> So, Customer Service is just floor management but understanding what motivates them (customers), what kind of Advertising to do, what kind of events to do in the company – is important. (Respondent 6)

> I invite guest speakers, like Advertising agencies to come and talk to them and so on. … So, in Advertising I do not really concentrate so much on the internet because they do it in another subject because I try to avoid duplication. (Respondent 2)

The respondents spoke about Advertising as being a part of Marketing, discussed the ways that it is taught and also demonstrated innovative pedagogic practices which included sending students to industry to learn about Advertising. However, there was no direct engagement with the knowledges in Advertising which was always discussed in everyday terms.

Another element of the Promotional mix which emerged in the data is Public Relations (PR). In the data, the question of whether Public Relations is an element of Marketing or an independent field also arose in much the same way as it was contested in literature. In some cases, PR was presented as a subject taught in Marketing.

> Well, the generic first year our Marketing 2 has got Public Relations; as separate subjects, Public Relations, Personal Selling, Sales Management then Accounting and the two different Laws. (Respondent 12)

> I was teaching a broad range of Communication Modules, Journalism, Public Relations as well as Marketing and Advertising. (Respondent 8)

Some indicated that PR, as part of the field of Marketing, presented a particular career path:

> One of the career paths would be Public Relations because they do that as a subject. (Respondent 25)

In other cases, PR was presented as a separate field. In the case of Respondent 1 below, PR was presented as morally dubious in its nature and this was held as being in contrast to the field of Marketing:

> You want me to function as a spin doctor. I'm not interested in that, get a PR student. Right and maybe in PR, they train students to forget – so those types of values. In Marketing I emphasise those values. (Respondent 1)

Respondent 30 below portrayed PR as unimportant through a condescending reference to PR practitioners.

> Even the guy who I was talking with, he was just an ordinary radio DJ … he was not even keen to understand my pre questions. Yes. You see, he was just a Communication Manager, purely PR and all that. (Respondent 30)

Such axiologically charged discussions seemed to seek to portray Marketing as more complex or more important that PR, however, the participants did not discuss the knowledge that give Marketing the more elevated position. Muller (2009) drawing on the work of Biglan and Becher pointed out that status anxiety is experienced in 'social professions' such as Marketing. Without a clearly expressed or shared knowledge base, the data suggested that the field of Marketing education is susceptible to competition.

Digital Marketing emerged in the data as another element of the Promotional mix. It is one of the newer Promotional elements and often appeared indirectly.

> So, I think again that first year when you talk about the specialisation area, I do think in a sense it's going to prepare them better for industry because the industry has changed, specifically with that digital component. (Respondent 7)

> I give them background of what is IMC … then on top of the well-known ones I put digital Marketing and I put Content Marketing. (Respondent 9).

> Everything is starting to go online, and I think we lack that. (Respondent 22)

Given the extent to which Marketing appropriates knowledge from other fields, as argued in the previous chapter, it may be that the new knowledge related to digital issues and emerging from fields such as Information Systems, have not yet been fully brought within the porous boundaries of Marketing, Often in new regions what is appropriated may take time to be structured and develop a settled position in the curriculum.

> We are looking at doing that [digital Marketing] in Advertising or you do it in End User Computing so that any graduate of Marketing has some sort of a digital Marketing understanding. (Respondent 30)

Another respondent confirmed that the position of digital Marketing within the Marketing curriculum is still under review.

> So obviously, we won't have a module dedicated to that [digital Marketing] but we can easily build that into our modules as a component. (Respondent 7)

A further contestation of where this element of the Promotional mix is positioned in the curriculum was raised by Respondent 1 who showed that they teach digital Marketing in the second year but they do so within Marketing 2, whereas they indicated that Advertising was the subject identified for the teaching of the Promotional mix.

> I'm involved with digital Marketing in the second year in Marketing 2. (Respondent 1)

While digital Marketing was indicated by the participants to be a new aspect of the Marketing curriculum, it was also presented as a skill set still residing outside of the Marketing domain.

> I have the debate with computer skills people to look at digital Marketing and website development. (Respondent 30)

Respondent 17 below referred to website development as a necessary skill for digital Marketing.

> If you are a Marketing Manager and because now digital, in terms of Advertising, you are putting up your website and responding to Hello Peter and all of those things. … You need somebody who is very much aware as to how that [digital] side of Marketing works. (Respondent 17)

In addition to developing a website, Respondent 17 also gave another example of responding to "Hello Peter" as a type of task that would be classified under digital Marketing. "Hello Peter" is a complaints website, a platform on which consumers can express their dissatisfaction about their experiences with businesses. Many companies monitor the site and take the opportunity to engage with customers in the resolution of complaints. The respondent thus highlighted that engaging with customers and dealing with their complaints is a core Marketing function, however, this is not discussed in the data as something complex or theorised or requiring specialist knowledge. The respondent further implied that such skills are not mainstream knowledge in Marketing and may reside outside the set of knowledge currently identified as falling within it. Digital Marketing was therefore understood as a set of knowledge that is outside of Marketing but that is required within the practice of Marketing.

As a region, Marketing draws on knowledge from other fields to solve its problems. Regions are characteristically interdisciplinary. However, Wheelahan (2007a, p. 144) warned of an uncritical adoption of interdisciplinarity as she stated that:

> While some critical realists may argue for greater emphasis on interdisciplinarity this is not at the expense of disciplinary boundaries or recognition of their importance. It is an argument about where the boundaries should lie and the nature of their permeability.

A challenge that arises in Marketing, for example with digital Marketing, is that the particular aspects of knowledge to be drawn from IT remain unclear and therefore the field does not control the rules governing the production, reproduction and socialisation of knowledge. Having such control is seen to be fundamental to the credibility of the knowledge in a field (Osborne, 2015). In this manner the development of digital Marketing is dependent on the extent to which Marketing develops a systematic means of engaging the boundaries of the field. This would allow the field to develop an appropriate permeability of the boundary that allows for a careful selection of knowledge from other fields.

6.4.1 Digital Marketing Vignette

Digital Marketing is relatively new and none of the online documents analysed in this study indicated that it had been explicitly included in the curriculum. During one of the interviews, Respondent 6 indicated it was, however, taught. In this section I provide a vignette in which I followed a conversation with only this respondent as they gave more details about digital Marketing.

> We do a section called digital Marketing. … We just have it in a component in the subject … when we do the communication aspect, like we have a subject called Advertising, then when we're doing the section on like – even I do Strategic Marketing as well, there's like different media, electronic media, print media, and so forth. (Respondent 6)

The respondent was quite enthusiastic about digital Marketing, however, they also demonstrated the newness and unsettled nature of the concept as they positioned it in both Advertising and Strategic Marketing which are typically subjects or modules in the Marketing diploma. On further probing, it seemed that the concept became less prominent as the respondent changed from it being a component in a subject to just giving students a glimpse.

> So, when I go to electronic media then I speak about digital Marketing, just to give them a glimpse into it because that's what's going on. (Respondent 6)

The respondent further clarified what is taught in digital Marketing.

> No, they don't design websites. It's just that knowledge. The knowledge as to how you use digital media. You know, Facebook and Instagram and all the social media and platforms. (Respondent 6)

As indicated earlier, Respondent 17 and 30 suggested that website design was an important component of digital Marketing. The lack of agreement on what is taught in a unit may be further evidence of the newness and unsettled nature of digital Marketing concepts in Marketing. Respondent 6 suggested that the focus of digital Marketing should be on marketing aspects of social media and they also gave examples of what would constitute the content of the social media discussions in the classroom.

> The United States, America is giving the message via Facebook that shopping centres are going to come under attack, terrorist attack. … This morning the freeways were closed and the N2 was closed because of service delivery protests. Now it was all on social media. (Respondent 6)

While the conversation related to the increased links between social media, mass communication and Marketing, it remained at an anecdotal level focused on very specific contexts indicative of a stronger semantic gravity (SG+). Even as the respondent changed geographical focus from the USA to South Africa, the anecdote was not lifted to explain a theorisation of digital Marketing knowledge. In the conversations about digital Marketing, this stronger semantic gravity (SG+) was accompanied by a weaker semantic density (SD-) as there was little discussion beyond what students already know. Social media Marketing, which involves the use of social media to promote a company and its products (Adegbuyi et al., 2015) is relatively new, but the references to this across the data remained at an everyday level. The respondent gave further insight into how the engagement with digital Marketing would unfold in their classroom.

> Like the students are in groups of five so I tell them to share and one person must speak. … Well, the kids know more than us about the digital media. … So, when we start class, we always spend five to 10 minutes doing that – on what's going on around us. … I take five to 10 minutes while they're settling down. (Respondent 6)

The Respondent indicated an inclination towards a constructivist (see Chapter Three, Section 3.3) approach to teaching and learning in which social identity of students as young users of social media is foregrounded. The students are thus positioned as knowers, as the respondent indicated that they actually do not teach but provide a platform for students to share what they know about social media platforms. Positioning students as more knowledgeable, the respondent further demonstrated that they are presumed to have the capability to select appropriate knowledge. Such approaches have been critiqued for relativising knowledge. In this case, any of the discussions would be upheld as they are legitimated by the social categories of students as users of social media. The respondent also indicated the limited time afforded to consideration of digital Marketing as they indicated that it is only given a few minutes as students settle in.

This vignette demonstrated that digital Marketing is understood as something that is important, however, there is no real indication as to where it fits within the Marketing curriculum or what principles or theories are used to teach it. The ease with which new knowledge, e.g. digital Marketing, are embraced without agreement as to the recontextualisation, further reinforces the findings in the previous chapter, Chapter 5, that the field is inclined towards a generic mode of organising knowledge. Generics typically focus on responsiveness and openness to trends and fads (Hordern, 2016). Trends and fads are new concepts and practices which are characterised by an intense and pervasive enthusiasm about objects and ideas which are short-lived. On the one hand generics therefore allow an endless addition of often important but context specific knowledge indicative of a stronger semantic gravity (SG+). On the other hand, increasing the breadth of the knowledge to be learned but not the complexity of the body of knowledge is often a hindrance to the building of cumulative knowledges resulting in knowledge which is segmented and weaker in semantic density (SD-).

This raises concerns about whether students are transformed by the knowledge they access in the university (Ashwin, 2014). Where knowledge is not explicit or not fully developed the curriculum there are fewer opportunities for transformation through knowledge.

Overall, the data indicated Promotion as an important component of Marketing. Aspects of the Promotional mix discussed above include Advertising, Sales, Public Relations, word-of-mouth, and digital Marketing. While there was a bit more discussion on digital Marketing, the focus was inclined to enthusiasm about its newness rather than explanations as to the principles underpinning this relatively new practice. The discussion of other Promotional tools seemed to focus on their importance and gave very little insight into the concepts taught or what constituted each of the elements. This is likely to constitute an invisible pedagogy where the students have to work out what Advertising is and how it fits into the discipline. Such pedagogic practice Bernstein (2000) would describe as not suited for students from disadvantaged backgrounds, previously excluded students or for students who do not bring in the cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986) privileged in the academy. The invisible part of the pedagogy is often when explanations carry values which originate from the privileged communities and are thus assumed to be common when in effect, they conceal the knowledges being explained.

6.5 Price

Having discussed the ways in which the concepts of product and promotion emerged in the data, I now move on to price as the third of the 4Ps Marketing mix elements. The concept appeared explicitly in the curriculum guidelines of the first-year subject, Marketing 1. For example in one of the institutions price appeared under the learning outcomes and students were expected to "define the term 'price'" and to "identity factors involved in deciding on a price for products" (see Appendix T). Price was mentioned by more than half of respondents, an indication that it is indeed perceived as an important part of Marketing.

> They have to know the price. (Respondent 30)

> We do Product Management pricing. (Respondent 7)

> So, this year we're doing the basics of market segmentation, the pricing strategies, pricing, policies, promotions and things like that. (Respondent 5)

> Well, look at the longer term, not the nitty gritty, day to day things, but more the longer term thinking of why you would develop a pricing strategy in a particular way or why you would develop a product strategy in a particular way, longer term thinking than the day to day price tactics, what's the long term thinking behind the pricing. (Respondent 10)

> So, it's actually the whole research process. How does the pricing structure work in different countries? So, the question is how applicable is it for our students and that is why I say we need to re-evaluate. (Respondent 12)

Price is here being described as related to research and also shown as being taught at the strategic level which is contrasted to tactical pricing which is described as a lower level form of pricing. However, the data did not give details of the difference between tactical and strategic pricing. In Marketing these terms are not particularly agreed upon (Varadarajan, 2010) and are more knowery than knowledge terms, and are discussed in detail in Section 6.5.1 below. The use of specialised terminology is, as discussed earlier, a central means of analysing the extent to which a field has established itself both as distinct from other fields and as distinct from everyday understandings.

> Right at the end of the chapter … you might talk about pricing or the dynamics of it. (Respondent 11)

The data did not engage with the details of what pricing is or how it is structured as a knowledge component and there were no specifications as to a particular way it should be studied. As a region, Marketing draws knowledge of pricing from the fields of Economics and Accounting, however, the discussions had not yet engaged with such concepts. Another respondent showed the concept of price in everyday purchase decisions.

> 'How do you buy a loaf of bread?' … You get various answers. I'll say: 'How do you sell it?' They'll tell me you look at the date, might look at the price. (Respondent 4)

These kinds of everyday discussions about selling and pricing were evident across the data. The above quote did not distinguish between pricing as a concern of the customer and pricing as a consideration for marketing of a product. The discussions kept the concept of price at the everyday use of the word in a particular context, showing a stronger semantic gravity (SG+) and a weaker semantic density (SD-). Portraying price as an everyday knowledge and that it is something students already know implied that it is either not complex or the role of the teacher as provider of instruction about complex knowledge is being downplayed (Maton & Chen, 2016).

6.5.1 Vignette on price

This anecdote followed a longer discussion on price where Respondent 18 discussed innovation and entrepreneurship with a focus on price. The anecdote presented a scenario from which a concept could be studied and analysed. The respondent set the scene.

> When we [were] ... doing sightseeing … [at] a tourist attraction area. There's a boy who came and approached us. I think that boy, if I'm not mistaken is probably about eight, ten years old. That boy came, he was selling bracelets, you know, handmade bracelets, chains and so on. … This boy said, 'Do you know what – I'm selling these things. I know that you can still find these handmade bracelets at the shops, at the market there. I'm selling them half the price that you are going to get them for there. … The reason why I'm selling them half the price for that is because that guy who is selling them there at the shops and me, we are the same. That guy does them, they are handmade, he does them himself. I do them myself. But the difference is that guy is paying rental, I don't pay rental'. … I'm talking about 10 years old, 'He's paying rental I'm not paying rental. He's got overheads, he's hired people that he's supposed to be paying and therefore his prices going to be higher, mine is not high'. (Respondent 18)

Where knowledge in a university course are the same as those discussed in everyday contexts, the value of the knowledge in the curriculum may be questioned. Indeed, in this anecdote, the respondent seemed to indicate that even a child can access such knowledge from a non-specialised environment in everyday situations.

The respondent's anecdote then revealed a series of shifts of focus.

> 'My price is very simple. I'm not selling this thing because I want to run a huge empire. I'm selling this thing so that I can just put food on my table'. … We ended up giving him money, without buying those things. We ended up saying, 'No, no, no. Well done. Your presentation, out of this world!' … You know, when a person comes, you're quick to dismiss them. 'No, no, we don't have money'. He said, 'Okay, no, no it's fine. Even if you do not buy, just do me a favour, just listen to me, what I'm going to say and then from there it's fine. I'll just be fulfilled. I'll just be happy that at least you know I've given you insight into what I'm doing'. (Respondent 18)

The anecdote ended without a purchase but a donation, an act of kindness inclined towards a child who was trying to make ends meet. In the anecdote what was valued was the young age of the boy, his sales presentation, and his persistence; furthermore, they valued his confidence and knowledge of overheads and other concepts. This concept of pricing is fundamental to Marketing and was repeatedly given as part of the key theory of the 4Ps but here, the discussion of pricing as a complex Marketing concept was removed from the anecdote. While the anecdote included words that are Marketing related, the respondent did not indicate that this was an opportunity to induct students into ways of knowing about the concepts. Instead, the concepts are left at a very specific context, a discussion on a street with a ten-year-old boy selling bracelets, indicative of stronger semantic gravity (SG+). Furthermore, the concepts were not developed into a 'system of meaning' which would allow a more complex understanding of how issues make up theories of pricing. The concepts also remained at very low conceptual levels demonstrating a weaker semantic density (SD-).

6.6 Place

Having discussed the ways in which the first three Ps of the Marketing mix emerged in the data, I now move on to the fourth – place, which is also known as 'distribution'. The data confirmed that distribution was a component of Marketing that is taught either as a unit or a module.

> Yes, a component of Marketing because traditionally when you look at the four Ps of Marketing, distribution would be the component that we're mostly looking at in Retailing. (Respondent 25)

> I then took on [taught] Commercial and Distribution Management and Product Management. So those are my three modules. Currently, I have Branding for the diploma module, and then also Promotion and Distribution and Product Management. (Respondent 21)

It was also sometimes loosely referred to as supply chain and logistics:

> I do [teach] what you call, Logistics. … Or Supply Chain. (Respondent 4)

> If you don't understand supply chain, if you don't understand logistics, etcetera, etcetera, it [the Marketing plans] will fail. (Respondent 31)

> But, from pricing to distribution to IMC to communication … for them [students] to understand that on an International scope. (Respondent 23)

In some cases, however, logistics was understood as distinct from distribution.

> Therefore, some of them you can find in distribution, yes, they've done a chapter in distribution, but they haven't done logistics. (Respondent 30)

For some participants, Logistics was shown as an alternative qualification or career to Marketing.

> Enrol for a stream, in other words, either Marketing, Tourism, or Logistics, but the option is always there that should you decide that Marketing is not your thing the option is still there then to change courses. So, it provides them with options. (Respondent 12)

> Our students, the way we have the diploma set up here at the moment is we have what we call the generic programme where in the first year, all students doing either one of the five diplomas whether it's Logistics, Tourism, Management, Marketing, or I think Accounting and Economics also fall in there, they have to do an Introduction to Marketing. (Respondent 11)

> Yes, how it works is we've got six diploma streams offered on [campus], we've got Marketing, Tourism, Logistics, Economics, Accounting, and HR. … Ja, and in Retailing basically that's what we deal with from logistics to store based retailing where you actually now have to sell to the final consumers. (Respondent 25)

In Marketing literature, distribution and logistics involved the movement of goods from the producer, often through multiple channels, to the retailer. In the data, the concept of distribution appeared in several forms: taught as a subject, as a chapter, a component in a chapter, and even as a qualification related to but independent of Marketing. The fluidity of this core concept of Marketing, as with the previous three Ps, suggests a field where the knowledge base is not yet settled. Regardless of where and how the issue of distribution was taught, there was very little in that data that indicated *what* knowledge is taught in this element of the Marketing mix.

Place (or distribution or logistics) was also understood as being an aspect of retail – which in some cases is considered to be separate from the field of Marketing – as a diploma specialising in retail can be done independently of Marketing. For example, the Durban University of Technology's (DUT) website shows that the Department of Marketing and Retail offers separate diploma programmes in either Marketing or Retail, while CPUT has qualifications in Marketing and Retail offered by separate, independent departments. In the literature on the history of Marketing, retailing was understood as the middleman function of Marketing in the early 1900s (Shaw & Jones, 2005) and therefore a core function of Marketing.

The data also showed contestations in how distribution relates to logistics and supply chain. In some cases, the three were presented as synonyms and in other cases the concepts were presented as separate and independent. For example, Respondent 11 and 12 indicated that their institution offers a Logistics diploma. However, the data did not give an explanation as to the differences justifying a separate qualification.

The data did not clarify the boundaries and relationship between Marketing and what seems to be even newer fields of Retailing, Logistics, or Supply Chain Management. There are implications on the strength of disciplinary knowledge where there are separations and overlaps without clarification.

The concept of place was least evidenced in the data out of the 4Ps. The establishment of separate fields like logistics, supply chain, and retail as separate entities may have led to the reclassification of elements of the distribution function in relation to Marketing. Further research may need to focus on whether distribution is still a part of Marketing and the impact on the field if a component that was core in the establishment of the field is removed and offered as a separate qualification.

In this way, various fields oscillate in and out of Marketing which may open the field, further weakening its boundaries. By allowing such movements, it may render the field difficult to manage, thus leading to the weakening of the field through an acceptance of everything as Marketing in line with Regis McKenna's thesis that, 'Everything is Marketing and Marketing is everything' (R. McKenna, 1991). Concerns have already been raised about the openness of the boundaries of Marketing which "has grown so encrusted with connotations arising from its association with other disciplines that, by now, it stands for everything, which in this case tantamounts to nothing" (Holbrook, 1987, p. 128).

6.7 Other Key Knowledge Concepts

In addition to the 4Ps, the respondents demonstrated that there were other concepts which constituted core knowledge in Marketing. Some of these included knowledge about strategy, customers, business analysis, management, segmentation, and targeting. While some of the concepts have been discussed in relation to the Marketing mix above, they were also presented as separate issues.

6.7.1 Strategy

Strategy is one of the concepts that had significant occurrence in the data.

> So, you obviously need your first basic theory before you can go further and then you can't go and write a strategy in your third year or develop a strategy if you don't have those basics in place. (Respondent 31)

While strategy was presented as something important there was no agreement as to what it is and where it should be taught. Respondent 10, as discussed in Section 6.5.1, linked strategy to pricing. There was, however, no discussion of the knowledge required for thinking about the concept of price in either the long term, strategic, or in the short term, tactical, or further engagement with the difference between a pricing strategy and a pricing tactic. Respondent 9 seemed to point to application as the differentiator of strategy from tactics.

> Then – but when you go to the second year or third year, I want them to understand when you are talking of price, what exactly, how price then becomes a Marketing strategy. Now you apply it, the price element. … The same model that you can teach in first year is the same model that you are going to talk about in third year. The only difference, this side [first year] you are just maybe telling them what it is, then at a later stage you are telling them how they can apply it. (Respondent 9)

Marketing strategy in this case was shown as the application of knowledge. However, that application was not shown to be practical or involve doing, as the respondent stated that they told the students how to apply the knowledge. The use of the term 'model' suggested the possibility of SD+ knowledge, but further discussion failed to support this.

> For me, the huge differentiation is that because we focus a lot on application, they can walk into a business environment and start immediately because it's not just theory that they know. It's theory combined with the practical application. (Respondent 31)

The ability of students to perform well when they get into an industry is portrayed as underpinned by a balance of theory and practice. However, the data did not provide any engagement with the differences between knowledge required to perform a task and the types of tasks which need to be done for learning purposes. The data also demonstrated that practical application is mostly understood as the use of case studies in the classroom. Thinking about a practice or telling students about a past occurrence is typical of a case study. A practice itself involves doing; it is something done and mostly in the world of work, in a laboratory, or workshop. There was no evidence of such practice-based learning in the curriculum, the document, or interview data.

While referring to strategy as being about application, Respondent 11 implied that if learners struggle then that is evidence of high-level thinking:

> Positioning is, yada, yada, yada. And then we ask them, what is … positioning strategy, can you describe it to us? They struggle with that. So that's that high-level thinking. (Respondent 11)

Such a view of learning seemed to ignore that application involves the world of practice; learners may need to at least observe the practice (Hawley, 2010).

The discussion above showed that 'strategy' was presented as denoting a high-level concept. However, there was no further discussion indicating significant semantic density, whereby this concept allows students to understand a complex phenomenon. Furthermore, the idea of 'strategy' was discussed in relation to specific uses of strategy within particular workplaces, that is, it was tied to context indicative of stronger semantic gravity (SG+), rather than as a concept that could be abstracted to understand a variety of workplaces indicative of weaker semantic density (SD-).

6.7.2 Segmentation, Targeting, and Positioning (STP)

Segmentation, Targeting, and Positioning were frequently mentioned concepts and were also presented as being aligned to strategy.

> What is a customer-centred marketing strategy based on, which three steps? And then, segmentation, targeting, positioning, and differentiation. (Respondent 11)

The frequent mention of these concepts suggested their importance, however, they were also never presented in anything other than as everyday terms.

> So whatever we teach, if it's about selling or buyer behaviour or segmentation, it's about – you know, so okay you want to start up a business, what are the things that you need to consider when you do start up that business? (Respondent 7)

> No, Marketing is doing it because Consumer Behaviour, I mean, if the students do not understand segmentation and targeting and so forth, it's of no value. (Respondent 6)

The concepts were spoken about as assumed knowledges, as if they were self-explanatory without engagement with their complexity or internal structure.

This section highlighted that while the four Ps are generally presented in the data as a major organising function of knowledge in Marketing, there are a variety of other concepts which constitute Marketing knowledge, some of which are presented here.

6.7.3 Customers' knowledge

Marketing was also shown to be about the people who buy, through reference to customers.

> To sell your product you need to understand consumers. (Respondent 27)

> Knowing who your customers are. (Respondent 16)

While acknowledging that people have to be understood, the data did not reveal the theories which could be drawn on for the purposes of understanding people. However, the knowledge a business has about its customers was seen to be key to a number of processes:

> Customer-centred marketing strategies, SWOT Analyses, micro … in a macro environment. (Respondent 11)

A SWOT analysis is an analysis based on the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of a corporate entity.

> The first part PESTEL Analyses, Macro Level Analysis and then also, the two key micro analyses is competitor analysis which involves things like Porter's five forces and so forth, and then the Consumer Analysis. (Respondent 1)

Similarly, PESTEL is an abbreviation for an analysis of the political, economic, social, technological, environmental, and legal aspects facing a business. The model is a tool used to analyse the environment and issues that affect a firm at the macro level. Some of these concepts for understanding and analysing the business environment and competition are drawn from Economics. However, in these models Economics was not explicitly acknowledged and nor were these concepts discussed in any depth using Economics knowledge. Given that most of the students would not have access to Economics as a formal study, it is doubtful whether they would bring with them the underpinning knowledge. A stronger grounding in Economics and other numeric fields was shown as typical of programmes in Traditional Universities.

> Even though if you go to the Traditional Universities, people are very good in Accounting, they are very strong on Economics. They have Economics 3, they have Statistics on a high level. (Respondent 13)

Respondent 13 compared the Marketing diploma and the bachelor's degree and stated that Traditional Universities offer Economics up to level three. According to the data, all the Universities of Technology under this study only offer level one Economics[20]. The implication is that a graduate with a stronger grounding in Economics has greater access to the language of that discipline and is better positioned for greater access to more abstract knowledges which would enable them to perform more complex functions. Those with limited access would also not know why they are not doing well.

This raises issues about the extent to which students are able to move from everyday understandings of Economics' concepts to the more specialised understandings within the field. Muller (2009, p. 222) argued that the "unfair low status" of vocational qualification often emerges from its lack of abstract knowledge. By focusing on both immediately practical and everyday knowledge (SG+, SD-), the Marketing diploma can arguably be seen to prevent articulation to further levels of study. Muller (2009, p. 222) argued that "a curriculum ought, as a matter of fairness, include abstract knowledge" and that many Universities of Technology curricula have a strong contextual coherence in that they are held together by a focus on the world of work, but lack sufficient conceptual depth.

There are social justice implications as graduates of programmes that do not provide access to more abstract (SG-), principled (SD+) knowledge may face a type of epistemic exclusion. The consequences of epistemic exclusion are that Marketing graduates would remain takers of instruction from those with stronger disciplinary backgrounds and would not know why they are subordinate to graduates from other programmes.

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[20] Some of the Marketing diploma curricula have Economics 1 and Economics 2 which are both at the same level. The division is to signify that the course is divided into two semester modules often offered in the same year. This is in contrast with Traditional University bachelor's degrees, for example, the UCT Bachelor of Business Science with a Marketing specialisation in Appendix R, in which Economics 1, Economics 2, and Economics 3 are three independent subjects offered at different levels.

6.7.4 Management knowledge

Knowledge of Management was also shown to be a part of the Marketing curriculum, which is unsurprising given the discussion in Chapter Five about the porous nature of the boundaries between these two fields. Management knowledge was portrayed in the data as relevant for career progression amongst Marketing graduates and as necessary for those with aspirations to move into management.

> I also like that subject. It's about motivation, leadership, how to manage your team, how to develop a budget, and what management is all about and so on. (Respondent 2)

> And also, if you have aspirations to become Marketing Director of a company, if you don't understand the basic principles of Business Management you will never be able to do it. (Respondent 31)

Becoming a Marketing Director is the epitome measure of success in the field as it is the highest Marketing position in a company. The respondents here showed the strength of the relationship between Marketing and Management. They were also implying that to succeed in Marketing one has to be firmly anchored in the principles of Managements and by extension, showed that management knowledges are more relevant as one progresses in their career and not so much in Marketing itself. The data also indicated that Management knowledge is not the only requirement for one to reach the highest level of Marketing.

> To be that Marketer that can sit in a board meeting you can't just have Marketing. You have to have the full spectrum. You have to understand Finance, you have to understand Business Management. (Respondent 31)

The data also raised questions about the levels at which Marketing knowledge is required. As one progresses in the field, management knowledge was portrayed as more important, as the function of managers are often removed from the technical specialisations and more focused on managing those who actually perform the tasks.

6.8 Conclusion

This chapter gave a discussion of the nature and structure of knowledge, it partly enacted Legitimation Code Theory's (LCT) Specialisation tool, with a particular focus on epistemic relations to look at the nature of knowledge in the Marketing curriculum. It also drew on the Semantics plane to look further at the nature of that knowledge. In particular, this chapter and the one preceding it responded to the research question: "What kind of knowledge is privileged in the Marketing curriculum?"

The key finding was that while there was ample evidence in the data related to the knowledge in the curriculum, the actual nature of that knowledge is not settled, broadly agreed upon, nor particularly complex. While the *focus* on knowledge was common i.e. there was ample reference to knowledge as important, it appears that knowledge is not a particularly dominant *basis* on which students are legitimated i.e. the knowledge while emphasized was not as important in the development of students, it was not valued as much in the curriculum and not seen as the mechanism for transforming the being or as key in enabling graduate to do what is valued in the field. The analysis thus concluded that the curriculum is characterised by weaker epistemic relations (ER-) and the nature of the knowledge shows stronger semantic gravity (SG+) and weaker semantic density (SD-).

The data confirmed the perspective in the literature on the field of Marketing practice that the Marketing mix (4Ps) is an important organising structure in the field of Marketing education. Respondents explained that Marketing students should understand the terminology, procedures, basic principles, and fundamentals of the field. Claims as to complexity of the field were evident in comments such as:

> [Marketing] It's not that easy because if it were that easy everybody would be able to do it. … I think that's maybe the problem is people think it's common sense and then they tend to only do the basics. (Respondent 31)

Initial conversations gave the impression of the 4Ps framework as theoretically powerful and abstracted. The addition of the 3Ps to make the 7Ps was also initially portrayed as increasing the theoretical density, adding more meaning to the Marketing mix, and increasing the complexity of the framework. However, some respondents pointed out that products and services are distinct and therefore the 4Ps are for products and the 3Ps for services. In this way, the Marketing mix was shown to be growing, not through increased complexity, but by addition of segmented knowledge.

A closer analysis of the data related to the product component of the Marketing mix, showed that the field is under pressure to include technical knowledge from various fields such as Engineering, Architecture, and shoe manufacturing. Marketing was portrayed as consisting of a limitless number of products and there is an expectation to bring in a limitless amount of product knowledge into the curriculum. Respondents characterised the broad nature of the field and its openness to knowledge from other fields as problematic.

In the data on the Promotion aspect, there was evidence of the challenge as to how Advertising is related to Promotions and to Marketing itself. Furthermore, the three elements of the Promotional mix which have been discussed, that is Advertising, Sales, and Public Relations, were also shown at times to be competing with, and acting independently from Marketing. Knowledge valued within Advertising, Sales, and Public Relations was seen to be neither regulated nor developed in consultation with Marketing structures or associations.

Digital Marketing, another element of the Promotional mix was shown as new and its position within both the field of practice of Marketing and Marketing education is still contested. The knowledge to be taught in Marketing is still contested and mostly context specific (SG+), demonstrating the unsettled nature of the knowledge in the field. The openness of the field to subareas, such as Information Technology, which were variably considered separate, partially independent, or directly related to Marketing.

The data also showed the importance of Pricing as a key concept in the field. Despite an initial impression of the concept as being abstract and theoretically complex it was discussed without much insight into the theoretical nature of the knowledges. Discussion of buying and selling were discussed in a very general everyday manner and ideas from the fields of accounting and economics were borrowed but rarely acknowledged. Discussions were also characterised by multiple shifts for example from buying to expiry dates and from pricing to humanitarian causes without demonstration of semantic density (SD-). The discussions were left at very specific contexts characteristic of stronger semantic gravity (SG+).

Place, also known as distribution, was shown as closely associated with retail. It was sometimes referred to as logistics and/or supply chain. However, both retail and logistics are also offered as independent diplomas. While some respondents emphasised the importance of Place, it was the least discussed of the four Ps. The fact that retail and logistics, which are closely related to Place, have an insider-outsider position in relation to Marketing similar to the subareas in Promotion, raises the question as to whether distribution is still a core of Marketing or if it is now housed in fields out of Marketing.

In addition to the four Ps the data on strategy in Marketing was also at first presented to demonstrate evidence of abstract knowledges in the field. However, a closer analysis showed a conflation of strategy with application. The application of knowledge was mostly shown to be positioned in industry without the details of its form. In the Marketing department, application was understood as something spoken or as case studies which are characterised by context-based illustration with stronger semantic gravity (SG+). The data showed that management knowledges are more important as one's career advances, as such, the knowledges are therefore reflective of the interdisciplinary nature of business practices, rather than knowledges which could be classified as Marketing. The actual Marketing knowledges thus remained characterised by a weaker semantic density (SD-).

Marketing as a field of education was seen throughout the data to have open boundaries, with weakly controlled criteria for the selection and recontextualisation of knowledge, as was also discussed in Chapter Five. The openness of Marketing reinforced the view of the field as characterised by a weaker semantic density (SD-).

Overall, the data demonstrated that the field of Marketing faces a challenge of being too open to a diverse range of fields. Marketing was characterised by a horizontal knowledge structure consisting of a set of languages which have been acquired separately. Bernstein (2000) argued that each language has its own criteria to evaluate what counts as legitimate procedures and knowledges. As such, the knowledges are not translatable and are based on different and sometimes even contradictory assumptions and thus present few opportunities to integrate previous theories to build a more powerful knowledge structure.

The stronger semantic gravity (SG+) and weaker semantic density (SD-) across the data thus portrayed the field of Marketing as a prosaic code. There are social justice implications for a field that is characterised by a prosaic code. The acquirer is only afforded context specific knowledges and as such has to acquire an endless series of low-level knowledges. They are not given access to powerful knowledge characterised by induction into a system of meaning which enables a more meaningful engagement with the complex world and thinking the not-yet-thought. In instances where an education privileges a stronger prosaic code, it fails to give a lens through which graduates can engage with the world as productive citizens.

While critiques pointed at the broad nature and openness of Marketing as a hindrance to the growth and development of a stronger epistemology in the field, the data showed very little engagement with theory building. Instead, Marketing was portrayed as a field which appropriates knowledges from other fields, indeed like a region should do, but leaves them loosely bounded and controlled which Arbee (2012) referred to as appropriation but not for its own gain. The field therefore remains with a weaker sense of what it is about and what it is for. One of the challenges faced by Marketing is the ease with which someone can claim to be a marketer. The field has experienced a proliferation of online ‘Marketing’ websites which write authoritatively about Marketing, however, the Marketing knowledges therein are developed by people who claim to be in the field but are not subject to the rigour of testing of the knowledges they claim to contribute. A case in point is an article that lists 72 definitions of Marketing (Cohen, 2011) by Marketing managers and directors. The authority of the authors of the online articles has sometimes been overstated as some of the executive titles are self-given to sole proprietors and micro businesses. Furthermore, in the field “a Marketing qualification is widely considered not to be a prerequisite for employment or success in the field of practice” (Arbee et al., 2014, p. 52) and as such, many Marketing practitioners are not governed by, regulated, or coordinated by any of the structures in the field. The large number of people claiming to be in the field writing without a regulated coordinating structure could be a contributor to Marketing knowledges resembling a more horizontal knowledge structure (Bernstein, 2000). Horizontal knowledge structures are discussed in detail in Chapter Three, in Section 3.8.

The findings discussed in this chapter allow me to make an injunction albeit in a straitened way, on the nature of semantic waves which are characteristically low-lying waves. I come back to this discussion in the conclusion chapter.

Chapter Seven: Being and Becoming the Right Kind of Knower

7.1 Introduction

This chapter is a continuation of the analysis of data from the last two chapters. Chapter Five focused on how knowledge in the Marketing curriculum is drawn from various sources including singulars and regions and has very permeable boundaries. Chapter Six constituted a more detailed analysis of the internal structure of knowledge; it enacted Legitimation Code Theory's (LCT) Specialisation focusing on the epistemic relations and it used the Semantics plane. The chapter found that while knowledge was seen to be central to success in the field, there was little agreement as to what constituted that knowledge. Furthermore, there was little evidence that the knowledge was specialised and allowed for cumulative acquisition of 'powerful knowledge'.

Chapter Seven now focuses on knowers. It draws from LCT concepts discussed in Chapter Three and enacts the social relations aspect of the Specialisation tool. As discussed in Section 3.11, Specialisation is the tool for analysing that which is legitimated in a field. It is based on the understanding that for every claim there is both knowledge and a knower; that which a practice or claim is about, the knowledge part, constitutes epistemic relations and that those who can legitimately enact that practice or make that claim, the knower part, constitute social relations.

In brief, social relations refers to the relations between the person behind the knowledge claim i.e. the knower and the knowledge claim; therefore, it is about the extent to which being a kind of knower is key to the specialisation of the field. A knower is understood as someone who may claim privileged insight into the objects of study of an intellectual field (Maton, 2000). Specialisation thus makes it possible to distinguish between two empirically inseparable but analytically distinguishable relations; first, the extent to which having a particular set of knowledge, skills, and practices is necessary for legitimate participation in a field (epistemic relations) and second, the extent to which having a particular disposition is necessary for legitimate participation (social relations).

Where social relations are strongly valued, knowers are legitimated because of their unique disposition known as the gaze. A gaze can be understood as the ear, taste, touch, or feel embodied by knowers or their actions (Bernstein, 2000). It is that particular mode of recognising and realising that counts as authentic.

Gazes can be further analysed in terms of strengths of subjective relations (SubR) and interactional relations (IR) (see Fig 7.1). Subjective relations refer to who the actors are, where the identity of the actors is based on subjective categories determined by society. The socially constructed subjective categories are numerous and include "social class, sex, gender, race, ethnicity, sexuality, religion, region etc" (Maton, 2014, p. 185). Interactional Relations (IR) refer to how actors get to know, and can be understood by the level of interaction with the significant others who are legitimate knowers; for example, an apprentice becomes a knower though interaction with the masters in the field.

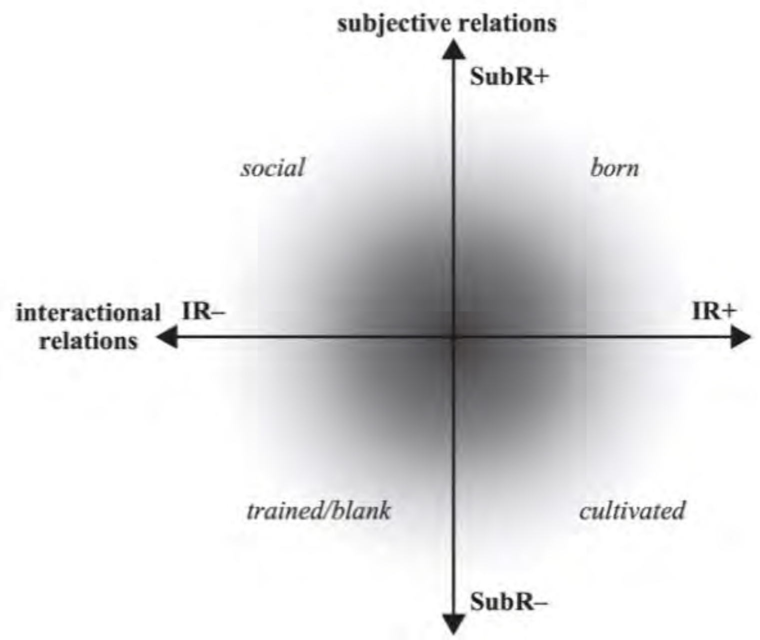

Figure 7.1: The social plane (Maton, 2014, p. 186)

In this chapter the social plane is enacted to fully explore the kind of person legitimated in the Marketing curriculum. In the social plane, we can trace how practices are specialised by actors, based on who they are and how the actors get to know. The social plane brings together the subjective relations and the interactional relations to produce four codes known as gazes, which are the born gaze, the social gaze, the cultivated gaze, and the trained gaze. The social plane and gazes are discussed in detail in Chapter Three, Section 3.12.

7.2 Marketing Strongly Privileges Innate Subjective Relations

The data was replete with examples of the view that success in Marketing emerges by virtue of being a particular kind of knower (SR++). The focus on the subjective relations as embodied by a person is shown by the following examples.

> There's always a special type of student. (Respondent 3)
>
> You know it doesn't even have to do with so much Marketing. It's more about personality and the person. (Respondent 11)
>
> I think you would know that it's also very dependent on personality. (Respondent 12)

Success in Marketing was also framed in line with the ideal knower through the legitimation of an often-unspecified personality that is understood to be appropriate.

> You must have a Marketing personality. (Respondent 26)
>
> If you do not have that personality type, you will never be successful in Marketing. (Respondent 19)
>
> I think most of it is just part of their personality. That's the type of person they are. (Respondent 3)

The ideal student was often portrayed through the privileging of inherent attributes like genius and natural talent.

> Like for example, if you're shy and introverted, Marketing field is not for you and I normally tell my students they must go and study something else. (Respondent 19)
>
> I think every person has a natural default to something. (Respondent 12).

The valuing of inherent attributes in the knower was also evident when respondents described themselves.

> I just had a feel for Marketing. (Respondent 19)

> When I came to study Marketing it was a perfect fit for me. (Respondent 1)

To demonstrate the importance of a particular innate personality as key, Respondent 11 went so far as to associate their own performance in Marketing with their horoscope.

> And I just jumped into it. I'm not shy. So, I learned I'm charismatic in that sense. I'm a Pisces. I'm a people person so I didn't find it difficult to step into that role. (Respondent 11)

The respondents thus emphasised the idea that success in Marketing is based strongly on being a particular kind of knower with a set of inherent characteristics.

Being a marketing lecturer was also portrayed as something that is neither taught nor learned but rather something that one either can or cannot do. Respondent 11 indicated they had "no prior lecturing skills" but the Head of Department recommended them by saying: "I know someone who can do the job". Respondent 11 insinuated that they embodied Marketing and thus did not need to be trained to develop the characteristics necessary to excel in teaching Marketing. Respondent 5 portrayed their own expertise in both the field of Marketing practice and as a Marketing lecturer as something that "came naturally".

> I did so much better in Marketing and it just came naturally to me. … Learning about the products and what they had to offer came so naturally to me. … So then when they asked me to teach, they said Marketing was open, so that's what I started with … and then I found that it just comes naturally to me. (Respondent 5)

In this way the respondents put forward the idea that in order to succeed in Marketing, who you are, in terms of your 'natural' attributes or disposition, is more important than what you know. There was ample evidence of very strong subjective relations (SubR+) by linking success to who one is at birth. Suitability for Marketing was emphatically portrayed as based on the kind of person one is and if a person does not bear the ideal traits, pervasive in the data was the idea that they would not succeed. Personality was indicated to be key to success in Marketing and was positioned as something that was unchanging.

There was little data suggesting that access to the knowledge about Marketing or engagement with the lecturers and others throughout the programme could be linked to acquiring this particular personality. In this way the interactional relations were downplayed (IR-). The weaker interactional relations (IR-) and stronger subjective relations (SubR+) characterised Marketing as legitimating a social gaze.

Personality repeatedly emerged in the interviews as a natural disposition required for success in the field of Marketing. Personality was not presented as something which could be developed through interaction or mentorship but rather as a subjective natural disposition that the student either has or does not have. What one gets to know through learning was presented as less important for success than who they already are. The dominant gaze that emerged in the data was thus a social gaze (SubR+, IR-).

Marketing knowledge was side-lined in the interviews and was not seen as contributing to the development of the appropriate Marketing personality. Entry and success in the field of Marketing were consistently portrayed in the data as an indication of a natural disposition or affinity to Marketing practices.

While the data was coded as dominantly legitimating a social gaze, there were a few instances where it seemed that the target characteristics were seen to be something that could be developed. But even in such cases, the students were expected to already be in possession of some kind of disposition aligned to Marketing which could then be honed through their education:

> You need a certain aptitude in order to handle the class. (Respondent 8)

> If they've just got a little bit of entrepreneurial savvy. (Respondent 14)

It is also important to note that in many cases, the data presented the need for a particular disposition in order to succeed in the form of negative cases, that is, the participants reflected on students who lack the prerequisite dispositions. The need to be a certain kind of person with a particular way of being, was generally expressed in the data as a deficit in students which prevents them from succeeding.

> It's like there is a generation of people coming into industry, they have forgotten all the values that drives an economy, hard work, good work ethic, discipline, the way we work with other people, all of those. (Respondent 13)

> You can tell, because where a learner is passionate is when they research on their career path. They take time to reflect on that, ja. (Respondent 26)

There was thus evidence in the data of the wrong kind of knower, that is, those whose personalities were seen as not a good fit for Marketing:

> All that you get is a frozen, fearful student that isn't going to even attempt. (Respondent 11)

> Something that's across the board, students' unpreparedness. They have been so spoon-fed at school that when it comes to university and they are left to their own devices, they cannot manage their time. They cannot manage the workload. (Respondent 8)

In instances where the students were portrayed as being in possession of what is needed to perform well, these were inclined to who they are and not what they know.

> Here and there you get a bright student. … I think some students have got a better … insight in certain things and they are also more creative. (Respondent 3)

These characteristics of brightness, insight, and creativity were not seen as outcomes of their Marketing education learned from the programme, but rather as attributes that students bring with them (or lack).

> Those go-getters type people who earn a lot of money. (Respondent 19)

> So, ja you get those students and then you get these bright students who are really going for it and excel in class but that's a very few number of students. (Respondent 2)

> Ja, I think it also depends on the type of student you're getting. (Respondent 29)

> I don't know. I think in general, the quality of students that we get in general and not only in one specific subject, it is really deteriorating over the years for sure. Here and there you get a bright student but on average, it is – to a large extent – they struggle. … So, if they reach the fourth year, it is probably your better student. (Respondent 3)

The respondents seemed to downplay the structured interactions in the Marketing diploma from which students could develop such desired characteristics. Instead, they emphasised performance based on who the student already is. Such performance was also presented as inclined towards hard to change learning capabilities. The reference to the quality of students using terms such as bright, better, or type is also strongly inclined towards natural intelligence and thus indicates stronger subjective relations (SubR+). Reaching the fourth year is presented as being more dependent on possessing inherent "better" characteristics than on acquiring the required knowledge and disposition through their education. The students who do not make it to the fourth year are by implication those who did not have the inherent qualities. In this manner the performance of students, both their success and failure, is accounted for using competence as inherent which indicated an inclination towards stronger subjective relations (SubR+).

While stronger subjective relations were endemic in the data some respondents saw them as also characteristic of other fields.

> I first wanted to go do Accounting. … Luckily, I spoke to my uncle who's a marketer himself and who used to actually work at the Technikon Pretoria. He said, no, no, because he knows my personality. He said I would have died in Accounting because I don't have the personality for Accounting. (Respondent 14)

It was interesting to note that one of the respondents admitted to not having a personality for something considered a key component of Marketing.

> That personality and driving to sell is not part of my personality. I back off when it comes to those kinds of things. So – they say selling is something you can learn of course, it's something you can learn. That's what we're busy with but really your personality should also, I think strongly about that personality also fits in the professional and it's not me. (Respondent 15)

Across the data a Marketing personality was understood as necessary for success in the field.

However, Respondent 15 above seemed to engage with the paradox of whether someone without the required disposition can actual teach that which they are not naturally inclined to do. They seemed to raise a question that Hawley (2011, p. 294) pointed out: "Are there skills for which it is impossible to recognise successful performance without oneself being a successful performer?". Respondent 15 seemed less certain that the required personality needs to pre-exist the student's Marketing education, given that they said, "Of course, it's something you can learn". This suggested a cultivated gaze (SubR-, IR+), but even then Respondent 15 referred to a social gaze (SubR+, IR-) when they said that "personality also fits in the professional and it's not me".

The data thus demonstrated the view of respondents about innate abilities that predispose people to fields. Fields of study and work are thus seen as emergent from people's personalities rather than as organised bodies of knowledge with a system of meaning into which an outsider can be inducted (Wheelahan, 2007a). Seeing disciplinarity through people's dispositions has implications for the value of knowledge if disciplinary knowledges are understood to have transformative powers (Ashwin, Abbas, & McLean, 2014).

The data above presented a very strong emphasis on subjective relations as important in Marketing. The data was also inclined towards those social categories which are presented as biological. The respondents particularly pointed out such subjective relations as reflective of the preparedness of students for Marketing studies and for success thereafter. There was some evidence of learning, such as class participation, being an opportunity to develop one's disposition but this was very much in the minority. Respondents seemed to downplay the interactions they have with students as opportunities for the development of the ideal Marketing disposition. The strong inclination towards subjective relations presented identities of students as innate, fixed, and unchanging (Moje & Luke, 2009) or pre-nurtured. If the students can be nurtured into the disposition as a result of interaction with ideal knowers, this was less evident in the data. Instead the valued dispositions were assumed to be in place before the student is accepted. It would seem that what takes place in the academy is thought to be too late to develop an appropriate identity for Marketing. The respondents therefore presented the field of Marketing as legitimating strong innate subjective relations (SubR+) and downplaying the interactional relations (IR-), thus showing the dominance of a social gaze.

7.3 Can These Students be Knowers?

In addition to the very strong characterisation of success in Marketing as dependent on personality and natural abilities, there were some other influential subjective relations which emerged in the data and these included geography, social class, and race. These were also characterised by stronger subjective relations (SubR+) and weaker interactional relations (IR-) as there are no interactional relations that can change race or change were students where born or grew up.

There was frequent mention of students' geographical backgrounds. The respondents seemed to give information on the origins of the students as if these were neutral observations. However, a closer analysis suggested that these were related to the subjective relations which were seen as important in the success of students in becoming Marketing knowers.

> I'll say the greater majority comes from the Limpopo region. (Respondent 25)

> Most of them are township students. I would say about 80% are township students and about 20% are rural students. (Respondent 14)

Below, yet another respondent (13) also pointed out the rural origin of students and also used provinces as opposed to cities to portray the student body as predominantly rural.

> They're basically from rural Limpopo. They are from Mpumalanga. Some are from the rural North West. (Respondent 13)

The overall use of geographical identifiers like rural and township were often associated with social class which was further portrayed as a determinant for accessing resources required to success in Marketing.

> Because the guy at the rural area doesn't even have a computer, where the students in the suburban areas all have laptops and iPads and stuff like that. Ja, there will definitely be a difference. (Respondent 2)

The terms rural, township, and use of most provincial names likes Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Eastern Cape, and North West are often used as codes for race in South Africa. DiAngelo (2018) pointed out the extent to which society uses coded terminology to avoid making racial assumptions explicit. She indicated that in many cases the person using the coding may themselves be unaware through a process of unconscious bias (DiAngelo, 2018).

The data also showed more direct reference to social class. The persistent overlap between race and class in South Africa needs to be borne in mind. The students were characterised as coming from the lower social classes as the respondents below indicated.

> Our students are mainly from very poor backgrounds. (Respondent 7)

> All previously disadvantaged. (Respondent 29)

The lower socio-economic background of students was seen as problematic, causing difficulty in teaching and learning.

> But we don't really know their socio-economic problems and we attract a lot of poor students. (Respondent 8)

> That's quite difficult and we must bear in mind that the majority of our students are LSM, below five, if I can say that. (Respondent 22)

The living standard measurement (LSM) model is a common model in Marketing and is used to categorise the South African population into 10 social classes where LSM 1 is the lowest living standard and LSM 10 is the highest. The previous data quoted indicated that students come from a particular social context. There was an intimation that this is a problem, but the participants did not explain what this problem was. We could surmise that the nature of the student body was positioned as problematic for pedagogical reasons. For example, the notion of Semantic waves indicated in Chapter 3, section 3.14 did not show the need for students to move from real-world concepts to more abstracted principles and back again. Knowing your students' backgrounds is key to making such connections. If the students come from very different backgrounds to the lecturers then making such connections may be more complex. So perhaps this is the underlying reason why such students are positioned in the data as 'other'. Alternatively, it could be the case that the positioning of these students as working class and rural means they are less likely to have access to the knowledge base assumed by the Marketing curriculum which would then require more explicit induction.

> Those who come from the middle class will understand the middle class consumer better, will understand middle class brands better, will understand and therefore be able to bridge that gap, easy understand Marketing because they can just – there's already a certain element of cultural knowledge which they already have. So, the Marketing syllabus fits that cultural knowledge perfectly. … We don't have a syllabus that fits your lower income. (Respondent 1)

While it is possible to interpret such statements as simple empirical reference to the relationship between the geographic origin of students and access to material goods, there is a broader context. It was clear that the respondents characterise the students from rural areas as different in multiple ways other than just geographically and financially. By contrasting rural-urban disparities and the subsequent impact on access to resources they presented region as a proxy for social class. Both social class and geographical origin of students were presented as if they are fixed, unchanging, and thus embodied identities. Social class was however not used as a means of acknowledging the structural challenges faced by the students for the purposes of improving the preparedness of the academy for students. Instead it was merely an indicator that students come from neighbourhoods that do not have the social class provisions to suitably prepare them for the field of Marketing. In other words, social class was offered as evidence of the lack of suitability of the students. There were no interactional relations (IR-) reported on that were seen to be able to mediate who the students are or what kind of knowers the Marketing curriculum is designed to nurture. Instead their social class was stated as an existing fact and one which made success a challenge for many students.

The dominance of the social gaze in the data contradicted research by scholars who argued that while the social standing of a student can contribute to their performance, it is not an indication of inability.

> The financial, cultural and educational experiences of working-class students need not, in and of themselves, create educational inequality; what creates the inequality is the fact that others have differential access to resources, income, wealth and power which enable them to avail of the opportunities presented in education in a relatively more successful manner. (Lynch & O'Riordan, 1998, p. 470)

Unlike the other subjective relations, such as personality and place of birth which respondents spoke openly about, the nature of race is such that there are limits to what people can say. It may be due to the nature of race as a social and historical construct that very few respondents referred to it and when they did it was typically in a factual manner.

> 90% of my class will be Black … perhaps 2% White. … The rest split up between Coloured, Indian, and Asian. (Respondent 16)

> They're mostly Black. (Respondent 25)

Respondent 16 and Respondent 25 came from two different previously White institutions. Cooper (2015) referred to the demographic changes as "a real revolution of 'Africanisation' of the student body". Respondent 19 further confirmed the demographic shift.

> … and so, there's a demographic shift, not only our demographic preference into certain qualifications. (Respondent 19)

The respondent not only referred to the fact there is an ideal demographic but also recognised the demographic revolution and in some way spoke of a drive to reverse the changes.

> You see unfortunately, we have a problem, I would say at [my institution] at the moment is that we do not have enough White students at the moment. And there is a drive to get more White students in … to get it up to about a 20%, White versus non-White. (Respondent 19)

In South Africa, the rainbow nation discourse of "I don't see race" is often evident in the denial of racial differences in an attempt to seem inclusive, but in doing so the structural racism of society is often concealed.

> I see the White students definitely do have a relationship with the Black students as well … but there's no difference between the races. (Respondent 2)

Presenting students as equal allows respondents to see the students as bringing the same cultural capital required to succeed. The argument that there is no difference between the ways in which race is used for social structuring is challenged by Levinson (2015, p. 1) who argued that subjective relations, including race, have an impact on the success of students:

> Citizens who are well-educated, middle-class or wealthy, and White are systematically more civically and politically empowered. … Finally, they have far greater levels of impact; their opinions are heard, and their interests are realized at levels disproportionate even to their level of engagement.

The respondents quite sensitively discussed issues of race and did not directly engage with how it impacts legitimacy in Marketing. The blindness to racial inequalities left no space for consideration of how different students may experience the curriculum. The student protests of 2015 and 2016 repeatedly raised the issue of alienation of Black students in South African higher institutions (Luescher, Webbstock, & Bhengu, 2020). Students have often felt like rebels when they have brought Discourses from their African identities into the universities (De Kadt & Mathonsi, 2011).

7.4 Intersectionality of Subjective Relations

For most of the time as the respondents were referring to subjective relations, they may have seemed to be referring to these concepts in simple ways but their intersectional nature and how they were presented showed that they were also constructing the identities of students. For example, while Respondent 6 seemed to be speaking plainly about students, they invoked broader ideas about history, belonging, and the imagined dispositions the students embody.

> Because it's the first time that they're leaving their homeland, those rural. (Respondent 6)

In South Africa, the subjective relations are intersected by race due to the history of apartheid, in which one's race determined social position. The "homelands" referred to above were supposedly independent states with pseudo governments appointed by the apartheid state but never recognised by the international community. Black people were moved and confined to these "homelands" and from there, travel and access to economic participation was severely restricted. The Respondent also alluded to the fact that while confinement is now unconstitutional, there is a continuation of the social order of restricted travel perpetrated by continued restriction from economic participation. By characterising students as not well travelled, the respondent insinuated that such students bring an incomplete identity expected for success in the Marketing curriculum. The stronger emphasis on subjective relations (SubR+) saw the students as deficit.

Similarly, by characterising students as rural (Respondent 2, 6 and 13), being previously disadvantaged (Respondent 29) and not having access to technological gadgets which suburban students have (Respondent 2), the respondents tacitly acknowledged that there is a relationship between region and social class. Scholars such as Cooper (2015) have also written about socio-economic status as designed to be applied on the basis of race in the apartheid regime. For this reason, Black people were and are still mostly located in the townships and rural areas while White people live in the suburbs.

Many social categories were barely evident in the data. Religion and gender were mentioned, however they were not discussed in detail:

> Like the HRs [Human Resources] and PRs [Public Relations], what they tend to call the soft skills, those tend to be for one or other reason, the Black females tend to fill those up very quickly. Engineering, you would find that the Black males used to fill that up. … In my qualification, in Marketing, I can say it's a 50/50 and I've done the demographics. It's about a 50/50 and it varies from about 52 to 48, 52, being the females. But it's normally around 50/50 split. … As a gender split, ja. (Respondent 19)

> I know this other girl, she's from the Eastern Cape. She also – now she's the Assistant Brand Manager. So, they adapt because in most cases these are the good students with good academics so I find that some of them do adapt. (Respondent 20)

In both the cases above gender was closely linked in the data to either race or geographical origin. The literature however pointed out that the culture of the academy is characteristically "male" (Read, Archer, & Leathwood, 2003, p. 265).

The data showed that the participants value knowledges associated with particular identities. The logic of the academy seemed to value knowledges common in some cultures and not in others, such that those from homes whose knowledges are valued enter the university with an advantage, that which Bourdieu calls cultural capital. Read et al. (2003) presented such cultural capital as White, a reflection that the academy privileges cultural practices of Eurocentric origin.

> … academic culture predominantly reflects the dominant discourse of the student learner as white, middle-class and male. (Read et al., 2003, p. 261)

They further indicated that:

> White students (and white applicants) are often not faced with the consideration of their own ethnicity in a cultural environment where to be white merely means to be a student. (Read et al., 2003, p. 266)

Such a logic may therefore perpetrate the view that some students are lacking, reinforcing a deficit view of those students whose home cultures are not aligned to that of the academy. The deficit is that of exposure to knowledges from the culture valued in the academy. It was presented throughout the data through an emphasis of stronger subjective relations.

7.5 Should Access be Given to Those Without a Gaze?

The criteria and methods used to determine which students could access the Marketing diploma was also framed on the idea that there is an ideal personality for the field of Marketing. For example, Respondent 11 raised concerns about the wrong or weak "calibre of student".

> Ja, I've suggested that we must have interviews but I'm not the guy or the person responsible for selections. (Respondent 2)

> I tell the parents, "Look, your child has made the wrong career choice here, best you send him for psychometric assessment and see where [they fit] – this because he's hating what he's studying now". (Respondent 19)

> On my PhD, what I did is, I did a psychometric assessment, a pre-assessment of the students when they came in. I then put them through two years of the sales component, and I did a psychometric assessment for them afterwards, just to determine if there was a shift in the psychometric profile. And it was found that there is a slight shift in the psychometric profile. But what's even more important that was, that the students who fit the psychometric profile of a Marketer prior to enrolment are more successful in the qualification than those who are not. (Respondent 19)

The idea of psychometric testing is an extension of the prevalent focus on personality in the data where 11 respondents referred directly to personality and the others used terms like the "quality of students" which they further described as "bright", "better", and the right "type". The idea of psychometric testing as a scientific measure of intelligence is highly contested. The tests use personality theories from the field of psychology which have been found to be biased by scholars who have argued that:

> Psychological theories and methods have espoused ideas and concepts emerging from race-science and tainted with classist and gendered biases. (Kessi & Kiguwa, 2015, p. 1.2)

Science itself thrives on a credibility based on the assumption that it is inherently objective, yet it created knowledges about a hierarchy of races (Kessi & Kiguwa, 2015). Scientific racism was used to justify the colonial system and its education subsystem. Such knowledges however under the classification of science are assumed to be neutral and objective and as such become common sense ideas (Ratele, 2019). Kessi and Kiguwa (2015, p. 1.2) condemned the test as tainted and see it as placing people on a hierarchy of superiority and pathologising those perceived to be lower on the hierarchies as they argued that:

> Among often cited examples are the early 20th century psychological projects that involved intelligence testing (Howitt & Owusu-Bempah, 1994). Through intelligence testing and other forms of psychometric testing, people's minds and abilities were placed on a hierarchy most often determined by race, class, and gender. These theorizations have led to the pathologisation of women, of black people, of poor people, of the sick, or any person who doesn't fit into the norm of a white, male, middle-class, able-bodied and heterosexual figure. The mind, and more recently the brain, in psychological research are still used as an index of difference (O'Connor, Rees, & Joffe, 2012).

While some academics have advocated for selection tests including the use of psychometric testing, the current reality is that none of the institutions use such a test. If success in Marketing is strongly dependent on pre-existing subjective relations (SubR+) and benefits little by way of interactional relations (IR-), then it would be really important for enrolment processes to select for the 'right' kind of knower and yet the data indicated that this was not the case.

Candidates without the perceived prerequisite socially constructed subjective relations were indicated to either drop out as Respondent 19 stated that "the system and the subject choices will work the students out" or in some cases, respondents indicated that parents are called to review their children’s career choices with the possibility of them having to leave Marketing. However, participants indicated that in some cases students without the required “personality” remain in the course and complete it and thus become the ones that Respondent 2 indicated are “not really Marketers”.

In the data the respondent who was a strong proponent of psychometric testing also contested the existence of the Marketing diploma, arguing that it should instead be a Sales diploma (Respondent 19 in Chapter Five, Section 5.2 above). The contested nature of Marketing would therefore raise further concerns on the form the psychometric testing would take as respondents seemed to value different aspects of the field. A sales-biased psychometric test would not be representative of all the practices in the field.

The prevalent use of personality to account for success in Marketing thus carries connotations of stronger subjective relations (SubR+) as an indicator of the capability of students. However, in this way the capability of students itself is also often conflated with the preparedness of students for university. There was no reference in the data to curriculum being responsible for fostering a ‘way of Marketing being’ through the content, the pedagogy, the modelling of that way of being, the assessment, or the workplace learning. There seemed to be a silence on the idea that acquiring the Marketing gaze requires ongoing interactional relations (IR-).

In this logic, the students who have inherent personality fit and the students who have been to schools that prepared them for a university with a particular privileged culture are the preferred students. Such students bear the expected and privileged cultural capital and were characterised in the data as the ideal student. The ideal student in this case thus ends up being the student whose upbringing has nurtured a particular confidence and who has had access to a functional educational system. In South Africa, it is possible to suggest that the attributes the participants indicated were necessary for success in Marketing are largely determined by social class and geographic region of origin of the students. This is a significant social justice concern as success is arguably more reflective of the legacy of apartheid than the capability of students.

7.6 Language in Marketing: Can the Languageless Speak Marketing?

The data showed numerous instances where lecturers viewed competence in the English language as important in the development of students. In all the institutions where the data was collected, English is the default language of teaching and learning. In the data, the success of students was often framed as dependent on students bringing a particular standard of English which was seen as deficit in most students.

> Listen, this might not be the student's first language. (Respondent 11)

> English is not their first language. So, English might be a problem as well. (Respondent 2)

Gee (2008) argued that home language is a part of the primary Discourse which constitutes a culturally distinctive way of being, seeing, understanding, and or critiquing the world. The data showed that while English is the language used for teaching and learning, it is not classified as the home language and therefore not the primary Discourse of most of the students.

> Language is an issue. I mean our modules aren't in the other official, 11 or nine official languages. (Respondent 22)

> They are not stupid. But the issue is that the medium of instruction in Marketing is English. (Respondent 30)

Thus far the data showed the prevailing ideology of languages as autonomous and pure. This idea of languages as unitary is attributed to the Eurocentric ideas of the 1920s of nation building based on the one-language, one-nation, one-people construct (Garcia & Kleifgen, 2019; Rosa, 2016). In this view, languages are understood as separate and independent of each other with boundaries to be guarded. Translanguaging scholars problematise this view and argue that languages emerge from social interactions and are embedded into one another in a manner that reflects a sociolinguistical mobility that is spatiotemporally complex (Lin & Wei, 2019; Makalela, 2019).

Makalela (2019) further clarified that there is a duality to language which requires the recognition of socially named languages but going beyond to also recognise that a speaker's internal language system is used holistically as required by the nature of the social engagement. However, the fluid nature of language practices are not reflected in education systems (Lin & Wei, 2019) and it was thus not surprising that the prevalent view in the data was that language is pure, autonomous, and with boundaries to be policed. The respondents considered language competency as the technical aspects of language, privileging a view of language as syntax, grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation.

> Some of the kids that come in can’t read a good grammar, good textbook. (Respondent 19)

> So, there’s also poor grammar skills that come in. (Respondent 11)

> I think most of my students have got a weakness of language. They’re very weak. (Respondent 9)

The reference to the grammar and structure of language is underpinned by ideologies of language standardisation in which deviations from legitimated norms are not accepted and in which linguistic practices of some are stigmatised and delegitimated (Rosa, 2016). Furthermore, the characterisation of students’ English proficiency as poor, weak, and generally deficient reinforces the view that language is not something that can be developed within the study of Marketing. In this way, language is presented as independent of disciplinary meaning making which is highly contested in the literature on academic literacies (S. McKenna, 2010; Wheelahan, 2007a). In the field of New Literacy Studies, language is presented not as a technical skill but rather as a social practice deeply embedded within its context (Fairclough, 1995; Lillis, 2019; Mills & Unsworth, 2015; Street, 2003). Acquiring the ability to read and write in ways deemed appropriate in the Marketing diploma would thus be seen as integral to becoming a knower within the field.

Focusing on language as a technical competence and thus as a prerequisite for predicting the success of students has the function of absolving the academic from tackling language issues which then fall outside of the curriculum. If language is understood as central to meaning making then it becomes part of epistemological access and falls squarely within the ambit of the lecturer. This does not mean lecturers have to be ‘English teachers’ but rather that they need to make explicit the ways in which language is used in the field and why this is so (S. McKenna, 2010). Where a technical understanding of language is being drawn upon, language competence is understood to be a problem inherent within the student.

> I find that students are struggling because of language barriers. (Respondent 13)

> So ja, it’s definitely a language issue, I think is the biggest one which students struggle with. (Respondent 22)

> Sometimes the language barrier can be a bit of a problem. I haven’t really experienced too many [problems] except the language barrier obviously. (Respondent 21)

The presentation of language in the data was not as something that learners acquire as they develop and become knowers in the field, but language was assumed as something the learners are expected to have if they are to access the knowledges in the curriculum. Prior proficiency in the English language is thus understood as a key to success. It should be noted that all of the students would have acquired the required entrance level results in English language through their formal schooling prior to joining a University of Technology.

> Where meaning construction is understood to rest on language proficiency, students can be held individually responsible for all problems encountered in attaining shared meaning in the classroom. (McKenna, 2010, p. 11)

In the quotes below, the respondents linked the perceived language deficit to the students' region of origin.

> But when it comes to the responses of students, even in class, you can tell what education background they come from just by the type of responses and the way in which they conduct the English language. (Respondent 8)

> But ja, it's hard to understand these concepts if you come from a rural population, if you have a language barrier, if you didn't go to a commercial school, yes, it is hard. (Respondent 13)

> I mean, there's a huge difference. I would for example, never be successful in a rural because, first off, I don't speak isiZulu. I've been in parts of KwaZulu Natal where they don't even speak decent English, never mind our other language. (Respondent 14)

The rural area referred to in this case is where an African language is spoken and the respondent also alludes to the idea that speaking an African language in a rural area is synonymous to not being able to speak what they refer to as 'decent English'. One respondent who was Afrikaans speaking, referred to Afrikaans as "our other language", indicating again the complexity of language identity and race in the South African context.

Where language is understood as a barrier to learning despite the students having a basic competence in that language of instruction, it has been argued in the literature that this understanding is because meaning is seen as independent from language. Language is presented as separate from social and cultural contexts and assumed to be neutral, universal, and benign (Arbee, 2012; S. McKenna, 2010).

In this way, it is assumed that by knowing the rules of grammar, one is expected to capture the meaning conveyed in the text in a predetermined way. This view separates language from conceptual development which is the ability to make meaning beyond the view of language as neutral text. This separation has been recognised to be problematic in the academy for a while as Fiocco (1997, p. 168) stated that:

> many teachers at university level viewed the teaching of literacy as a contradiction to their academic goals, and that there was a failure to recognise that language and conceptual development extended simultaneously.

Fiocco (1997, p. 179) further illustrated the weakness of the autonomous approach to education by adding that the development of students' literacy cannot be independent of the social cultural setting of the academy.

> The central environs of the University have their own specific social cultural setting. It is within this complexity that the literacy of tertiary students must be developed and enhanced.

Students were presented as deficit in their use of the English language without any efforts to balance the differences in the cultural settings of the academy and those of students' backgrounds.

> They cannot understand English when they read a sentence, you know. … They can read the words, but they don't get the concept. (Respondent 28)

> But for feeder schools, the most problematical way is their English because for them they are poor in comprehending. (Respondent 30)

Respondents also indicated that in some cases where students understand the concepts, they are not able to demonstrate such as understanding; they alluded to the fact that the problem is the means through which these concepts need to be articulated i.e. the language of instruction.

> And the worst thing that you can have is a student that has all this head knowledge but doesn't even have the ability to articulate themselves. (Respondent 11)

Another respondent emphasised the problem of articulation as something that continues throughout the diploma, indicating that even when placed in a Marketing company – something done in the third year of study – students struggle to express their ideas.

> And it actually is a problem because you must place them now at a Marketing company and some of them can't even open their mouths. (Respondent 2)

The continued portrayal of students as having limited language capacity is akin to what Rosa (2016) referred to as languagelessness, in which a population is framed as unable to produce any legitimate language. The proficiency of students in English, the language of teaching and learning language was thus portrayed as neither easy to develop nor something that can be developed during the time of the diploma. There was no indication in the data that interactive relations during the diploma might be effective in nurturing the particular use of the English language expected for success in Marketing. Students were seen as leaving without having developed sufficient language competences.

> They think they can just use slang. (Respondent 12)

Slang[21] is seen as an inappropriate way of speaking and an unacceptable Discourse in the academy. When speaking slang, students are seen to embody an inappropriate language and identity which is perceived to compromise their likelihood to succeed. The use of the term 'slang' also carries connotation of a type of speech that can neither be associated with making meaning nor a language through which knowledges of the field can be accessed or developed. However, Gee (2008, p. 173) warned that:

> All humans, barring serious disorder, become members of one Discourse free, so to speak – their primary Discourse. It is important to realize that even among speakers of English there are socioculturally different primary Discourses, and that these Discourses use language differently.

If language is understood as social, then when students use slang it would be understood that students "use language, behavior, values, and beliefs to give a different shape to their experience" (Gee, 2008, p. 173). However, in this case, a particular type of the English language is presented as an important part of being a particular person valued in the field of Marketing. The use of a formalised academic language like English is a common expectation in the academy. A disconnect was shown between the type of English language that the students bring and that of the academy. There was no data to suggest that the participants saw it as their

[21] In this context the word slang appeared to mean that the academy does not legitimate the type of language the students speak, it reflects a particular repertoire of language, one which the academy deemed as informal.

role to induct students into the form of language use valued in that context. The disconnect between the Discourses of the academy and those of the students was further demonstrated by Respondent 22 who stated:

> I don't think students read properly, they don't study, and if I mean by study, I know everybody studies differently but they will tell me if they come, 'I've read this entire textbook but I don't get it'. I mean you can't read your stuff, but with this module as well it's a process and I don't think they understand that it's a process, that one thing leads onto another, leads onto another. (Respondent 22)

The inability to 'read properly' was seen by respondents to relate to students' basic language competence rather than from their challenges in accessing the norms and values of the field. Literacy was consistently presented as being neutral and the role of the academics to induct students into knowledges was not considered.

> This belief that literacy is a neutral ability involving the decoding and encoding of script is the basis of a powerful discourse known as "language as an instrument of communication" (Christie, 1993), which reinforces certain teaching methods and rationalises student failures. (McKenna, 2010, p. 10)

While the student may need assistance to access the discourse of the field, they were characterised as having a language problem – a problem with the language of instruction and not with the ideas of the discipline. The teaching methods likely to be adopted following this view would be those that focus on the technical aspects of language in line with the understanding of language as autonomous.

> The problem with the [autonomous] model is that it leads to an emphasis on students' ability to reach the same interpretation of texts as intended by the text writer or the educator, as if the message was neutrally 'contained' inside the text waiting for decoding. It neglects the reality that the interpretation of the text is context dependent: who the reader and writer are (authority or student, for example) and where the text is (a set of lecture notes handed out in class by the Engineering lecturer, for example) determine the meaning that is constructed. (McKenna, 2010, p. 11)

There was an assumption that students would simply 'get' the literacy expectations through exposure if they managed to do sufficiently well to stay in the programme.

> So at least if they read more academic work, you know, they understand how academic writing works. (Respondent 9)

Another issue to be considered in the development of literacy in a field is how language is understood to play different roles where there is a difference between the home languages of the learners and the language which is the medium of instruction in the academy. One of the lecturers reflected on their own experiences of being able to study in the language of their choice:

> I preferred going to Afrikaans classes because it's easier for me to understand something in Afrikaans than to understand it in English. So, the moment that I understood it in Afrikaans, I was able to study it easily in English … but here, we don't have that. (Respondent 22)

Most of the students enrolled in the Marketing Diploma would have English as an additional language. They would probably have studied in English at school but would speak another language or languages at home, such as Sotho, Setswana, isiZulu, or isiXhosa. The participants acknowledged the challenges this language context brings to students.

> So, if they can talk in their home language to someone when there's something they don't understand, I feel that does make a difference, you know. (Respondent 28)

> And I like using that because what I've used it for other resources such as glossaries, addressing multilingualism. I make available a Xhosa Marketing dictionary developed by CTM, Centre for Teaching Medium and Learning on 2nd Avenue or Campus, very great. Other resources I use … (Respondent 11)

In the data, using multilingualism as a resource seemed to be one of the few positive attempts to deal with the rather high level of concerns about students' language problems as the two data quotes above were the only references to this pedagogical approach. In keeping with Gee's concern that the dominant understanding of academic reading and writing is as a set of "decontextualized and isolable skills" (2008, p. 176), there was a sense that issues of reading and writing either needed to be a pre-existing generic competence or could be addressed outside of the Marketing department.

> But what I do, I use what we call Centre for Learning and Teaching to bridge that gap. (Respondent 30)

The solutions to the underperformance of students in Marketing were often framed in attempts to fix the language of students in a manner that disconnected language, discourse, and disciplinarity. The limits of the decontextualised approach is further illustrated by Boughey and McKenna who stated that:

> A decontextualised approach is that of teaching writing as a matter of accuracy in the mechanics of the language in 'Academic Literacy' courses. Such academic development courses often focus on grammar or language structure, such as structuring an 'essay' around an 'introduction', 'body' and 'conclusion'. While technical accuracy and structure are important, it is the production of an argument that is central to writing in the academy, where the term 'argument' is used very specifically to refer to the construction of a series of claims, each of which is supported by evidence, to support a series of more encompassing claims embodying a particular position, the 'argument' itself (Boughey, 2012b). (Boughey & McKenna, 2016, pp. 5-6)

The data further revealed the view that students are not bringing sufficient language capabilities to succeed in Marketing. However, the analysis of the language of students was based on a prevalent but much critiqued view of language as autonomous and governed by technical aspects such as syntax and grammar rules. This view allowed language proficiency to be understood to develop independently of the study programme or even to be a prerequisite to being able to succeed in the programme.

The data depicted competency in the English language as a requirement for success in Marketing and confirmed that it is a second (or third) language to most students and that this may be the reason why many students do not succeed. Way back in 1993, Bradbury noted that the 'second language' label was a politically convenient way of absenting racial and socio-economic identities (Bradbury, 1993). If academics can account for student success and failure on the basis of language, then there is no need to look at the extent to which higher education is reproducing the status quo of social inequalities. Where there is a strong rhetoric of literacy as comprising the technical aspects of the language of instruction, Calitz (2016) warned us of a further social justice issue in that students are likely to internalise the failure and see themselves as neither good enough nor capable to succeed. The language concerns raised by academics in the data in which students were seen as deficit in language capabilities impelled me to explore teaching and learning in Marketing using both English and the languages of the student. In a recent publication I report the findings from the study which showed that the inclusion of African languages in teaching and learning resulted in an increase in critical engagement with concepts being learned.

7.7 Conclusion: In Marketing, It's Either You Have It or You Don't!

While the data presented much discussion on the knowledge, skills, and processes needed for success in Marketing, the most dominant and most emphasised concern was the kind of person valued in Marketing, and it is this which has been the concern of this chapter. The gaze of the Marketing student and successful Marketing professional was often seen through their disposition and what was valued were the distinctive ways of acting, interacting, valuing, feeling, dressing, thinking, and believing.

While there was evidence in the data of all the gazes that can be identified using Legitimation Code Theory tools, it was the very strong subjective relations (SubR+) where the kind of person valued possessed a particular personality and natural talent that were most notable. The respondents mostly raised concerns about the number of students who were perceived not to have 'Marketing personalities'. This seemed to be about confidence and an ability to easily connect with others. Social class also emerged as important but this was never directly referred to. Class could be intimated through reference to the backgrounds of students, the schools they went to, their access to technologies, and the geographical regions they came from. Language competency also appeared numerous times in the data and was framed as constitutive of the legitimate identity, one that students were portrayed as unable to achieve.

Students were expected to be a particular kind of person to succeed in Marketing, that is the basis of success could be identified as strong social relations (SR+). By drilling down further, the chapter showed that there was an expectation that students had a particular pre-existing disposition or attributes (SubR+) and there was little suggestion that one could acquire the relevant gaze through the pedagogical interactions offered by the curriculum (IR-). The dominant gaze was therefore a stronger social gaze such as that in Marketing:

> It's just part of their personality. That's the type of person they are. (Respondent 3)

Marketing is thus for "enthusiastic students who have a great personality" (Respondent 2). The data thus revealed that in Marketing, you either have it or you don't, indicating a strong inclination to the view that Marketers are born!

The implications of a curriculum that values a knower gaze more than insights from knowledge, is that the curriculum needs to either ensure that only those with such a gaze be accepted into the programme or that the curriculum needs to nurture access to the required gaze. Without either evaluating for the gaze beforehand or developing the gaze in the programme, there is an injustice in that a number of students would be admitted without any chance of success.

The participants framed the gaze as essential for success (SR+) and inherent in the student (SubR+), but there was an absence of discussion as to how the gaze might be fostered through interaction in the curriculum (IR-). In a country where higher education participation and throughput are very low and racially differentiated, as discussed in Chapter Two, this finding brings with it a number of additional significant social justice concerns. There was both explicit and coded reference to race in the data but little consideration of how, if Marketing success is based on a social gaze, students could be developed without reproducing the exclusionary practices that have resulted in the unevenly distributed gaze in the population. Furthermore, the required Marketing personality was presented as beyond cultivation through interactions in a curriculum (IR-). The possibility then arises that what is being understood as an inherent attribute is actually the demonstration of a particular form of cultural capital.

The implications of a dominant social gaze in a curriculum is that if you do not have it, there is nothing one can do to get it as it is expected to be there at birth, through one's social grouping, and therefore in place before one enters the university. The valuing of a social gaze raises serious social justice issues on access and success in Marketing. If Marketing values a social gaze and there is nothing that can be done to develop it in someone born without the Marketing personality, allowing such people into the course is setting them up for failure. On the other hand, denying access based on personality raises concerns of the justice in the societies we live in.

The language practices of othered identities and in particular that of Africans are often framed as incapable of producing any legitimate language (García, 2019; Rosa, 2016). In the privileging of the social gaze, the languagelessness of students cannot be interpreted outside of the higher education history of racism in South Africa in which race and language are mutually constitutive.

A further challenge from the data was that the concerns about deficits of students emerged in diploma programmes in institutions that have faced the largest Africanisation of the student cohort in a higher education system; this where African academics are still a minority and in which African students have low participation and success rates.

Chapter Eight: Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

The Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework (2013, p. 40) in South Africa indicated that a doctorate should make a “significant and original academic contribution at the frontiers of a discipline or field”, a daunting task indeed! In this final chapter of my thesis, I attempt to do the following things. I begin by pointing to what I believe to be the significance of the study. I then indicate the three main recommendations that I will argue follow from the findings in the field. I then draw a line from these recommendations to a quick reiteration of each of those key findings. I conclude with a few final remarks.

8.2 Significance of Study

This study is partly a response to a dearth of research in and on a collection of institutions loosely grouped and variously known as new universities, universities of applied science, or polytechnics, known as Universities of Technology in South Africa. This is particularly true in South Africa where currently, the bulk of research is conducted in Traditional Universities (Cloete, Mouton, & Sheppard, 2015; Council on Higher Education, 2019). This means that research looking at issues of curriculum, teaching, and learning also tends to focus on practices occurring in Traditional Universities. As I have argued in Chapter One, Universities of Technology remain under-researched.

Research into the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning in South Africa regularly notes the state of such an imbalance in research and calls for a clearer understanding of the nature of knowledge in vocationally focused qualifications (Shay, 2016; Winberg et al., 2013). The programmes offered in Universities of Technology are vocational in nature with a strong relationship with the world of work. The focus tends to be on the very context in which the knowledge is applied (Schindler & Reimer, 2010). The strong orientation towards application of knowledge is envisaged to better prepare graduates for the world of work and improve performance of practical work in industry.

However, concerns have also been raised that in some cases the teaching of vocational knowledge can constrain access to powerful knowledge. A curriculum which focuses directly on specific context-based knowledges, especially given the fast pace of change in the world of work, can leave graduates unable to grapple with new problems and workplace processes. The concerns raised about the practical focus of knowledge are that it is often at the cost of affording students access to the kind of abstracted knowledge that can allow one to "think the unthinkable and the not-yet-thought" (Wheelahan, 2007a, p. 297).

The literature calls for a stronger theorisation of knowledge in Universities of Technology, arguing for a stronger conceptual coherence alongside the already strong contextual coherence. For the curriculum to be socially just, it ought to include conceptual depth and therefore studies which focus on the knowledge within such institutions are needed (Muller, 2009; Shay, 2016; Winberg et al., 2013). This thesis makes a small contribution towards the call for such research.

In addition to this study's significance in focusing on the curriculum in Universities of Technology, I suggest that there is significance in its direct consideration of knowledge. As I have argued in Chapter One, much of the sociology of education focuses quite rightly on the extent to which university education seeks to replicate the social inequalities of society because universities are in society and so inevitably, they are susceptible to the social problems that we find in society. However, research which only focuses on socialness of education and is blind to the impact of the structure of knowledge itself is problematic. This study provides a contribution by working against such knowledge blindness, turning the spotlight directly onto the knowledge itself.

I would like to suggest that there is a third way in which this thesis contributes something that might be significant to higher education researchers, and that is in its focus on Marketing education. In the Marketing literature there is also a call for studies that specifically look at the nature of Marketing as a field of work and at the nature of Marketing as a field of study. The Marketing literature discussed in detail in Chapter Two, also raises concerns that the field does not have sufficient theorising that it needs to build itself as both a field of practice and as a field of study.

This study used Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) because of its power in allowing us to look directly at knowledge, not only to describe the knowledge but to also understand how the structure of knowledge serves to include and exclude. LCT is a growing body of research which has been used in a diverse range of fields as indicated in Chapter Three. This is the first study which uses LCT to look at the Marketing diploma programme mainly offered in Universities of Technology; this is important because LCT is powerful at helping us to understand the nature of knowledge – it is a tool which makes the implicit knowledge practices explicit. It needs to be noted that LCT is a realist theory, it allowed the identification of mechanisms at play and their tendential causal powers. As a realist theory while the findings were interpreted in relation to the underlying mechanism with causal powers, realist theories also acknowledge that outcomes could emerge in different ways in different places to reflect the variation of conditions when the mechanisms are at play.

8.3 Recommendations from Key Findings

The main recommendations emerging from the findings in the study can be summarised as follows:

- Marketing as a field needs to work towards articulating (though probably never finalising) the set of functions its graduates need to understand and perform across varied industries.
- Marketing as a field of study needs strengthening of its epistemic spine, including by more explicitly identifying from which fields it draws.
- Marketing needs to curriculate the cultivation of the appropriate knower gaze as a matter of social justice.

These three recommendations emerged from Chapters Five, Six and Seven respectively and I will now briefly outline each.

8.3.1 Marketing as a field in need of coherence as a matter of knowledge building

The field of marketing was found to be characterised as drawing from multiple disciplines and attending to a wide variety of industries and positions within those industries. A field as disparate and generic as Marketing cannot be ordered to enhance its coherence. In the data, Marketing was shown as a newer region characterised by genericism as it drew from a large number of fields without necessarily explicitly articulating which fields were being drawn from or on what basis the recontextualisation took place. It also focused on all industries and did not seem to be narrowing down to a specific set of companies or industries or, perhaps more significantly, a recognisable set of functions in the varied businesses. Marketing thus seemed to follow fads, to serve a new set of practices which are expected to undergo continuous replacement or even disappear.

The weak knowledge base seemed to value the development of futuristic and imaginary roles, characterised by a tendency of self-flexibilisation for a life of short-termism and a readiness for continuous trainability (Bernstein, 2000). One possible implication of this is that graduates may remain at the functional level, learning how to perform new tasks but unable to participate in the advancement of knowledge in a field.

The very disparate nature of the field means there is not one recognised body of people or organisation that can drive the direction of the field and so this conclusion might be seen to be more descriptive than directive. Nonetheless, that the field was found to lack coherence or autonomy is an important issue in the kinds of knowledge students get access to through their diplomas.

Muller and Young (2014) showed how fields develop through the transgression of boundaries and the stretching of concepts to make new claims. However, theory building, they argued, requires a freedom which is bound by the rules and practices within a particular discipline, the rules are epistemic and are concerned with the methods, concepts, and arguments within the field (Muller & Young, 2014). However, in a disparate field, as the study found, the epistemic rules are difficult to order to enhance coherence. The data showed that academics within Marketing education come from different backgrounds and privilege the particular knowledge histories from whence they came. Building the epistemic spine will thus be a complicated and messy task but nonetheless, one which could strengthen the programme significantly and greatly enhance the access to powerful knowledge afforded to its students.

The Marketing diploma originated in Technikons, a type of institution in which employment of lecturers was on the basis of workplace expertise (Garraway & Winberg, 2019) and not on the processes of knowledge production. After the change of institutional designation from Technikon to Universities of Technology and Comprehensive Universities (CUs), lecturers in the diploma courses found themselves required to be experts in the three fields of knowledge production, recontextualisation, and reproduction. However, the new academics largely did not hold such expertise and institutional structures required to develop such knowledges were either slow or not yet there. Having access to understandings across the pedagogic device alongside expertise in the world of work would be key to the strengthening of knowledge in Marketing education (Garraway & Winberg, 2019; Gumbi & McKenna, 2020).

Technikon lecturers did not have to have master's qualifications to teach in the diploma programmes as what was most valued was industry experience. Higher education degrees are often structured so that a grounding knowledge production only occurs in postgraduate studies. By not having master's qualifications, let along doctorates, most lecturers at Universities of Technology are unlikely to have had opportunities to develop competence in the field of knowledge production. In addition, the convernorship system of Technikons in which the syllabus was developed centrally meant that many lecturers had no opportunities to participate in curriculum development, meaning that many academics now have little if any expertise in the field of recontextualisation. Academics in the diploma programmes were known as lecturers in the Technikon era, as their activities were in the field of reproduction which was understood as the transmitting of a national curriculum. The literature discussed in Chapter Two suggested that they engaged in pedagogic practices which were often technicist and did not allow critical engagement with the fallible nature of knowledge. Not knowing the processes and limits of the conditions in the field of production of knowledge can lead to the conflation of powerful theories with the immediate reality of the world.

The lack of expertise across the three fields of knowledge: production, recontextualisation, and reproduction due to the history of the Technikon continues to have implications on the ability of academics in the Universities of Technology to develop programmes that give access to powerful knowledge and which have a strong epistemic spine. This is further complicated by a need to develop such curricula alongside a focus on the world of work, which in the data was shown to pose challenges due to the limitless variation of practices in industry.

The study found that academics conceived the knowledge in the field of Marketing as characterised by a stronger emphasis on context dependence (SG+) and a weaker emphasis on the semantic density (SD-), and in terms of Legitimation Code Theory's epistemic place thus exhibited a dominant prosaic code (see Figure 8.1 on the following page) which raises social justice concerns based on the type of knowledge the graduates are given access to.

A prosaic code is characterised by a stronger semantic gravity (SG+) in which context dependent knowledges are valued more than conceptual knowledges symbolising a weaker semantic density (SD-). Context dependent knowledges are typically characterised by a horizontal knowledge structure which consists of segmentally organised knowledges. Segmental knowledges consist of a set of knowledges which are acquired separately where each language has its own independent criteria to evaluate that which counts as legitimate procedure and knowledge. The knowledges are often not translatable as they are based on different or sometimes contradictory assumptions. Segmentally structured knowledges often present few opportunities to integrate previous theories to build more powerful knowledge structures.

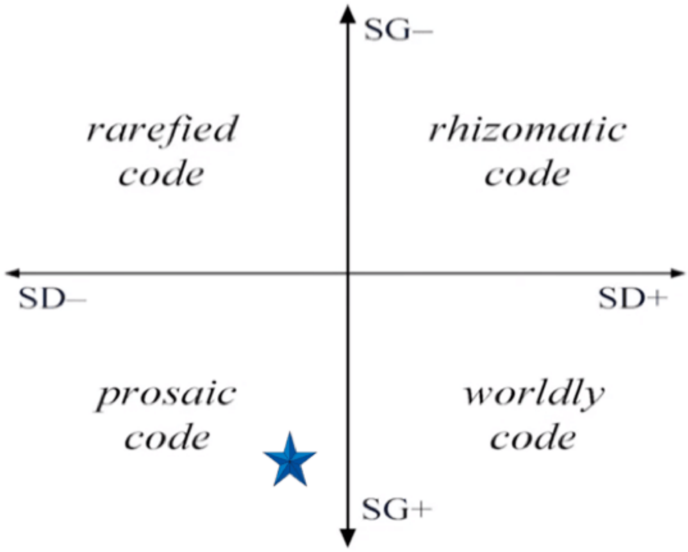

Figure 8.1: Current position of Marketing knowledges on the Semantic codes (Adapted from Maton, 2020, p. 64)

The social justice implications are that the graduates have to learn an endless series of independent knowledges. A dominant prosaic code does not equip academics to provide induction into a system of powerful meaning which enables grappling with the complexities of the world and thinking the not-yet-thought (Wheelahan, 2007a). More broadly, these challenges have significant implications on academics' identities in the Universities of Technology. To take their rightful place in offering powerful knowledge for the workplace, there is probably a need for many Universities of Technology programmes to strengthen the epistemic spine (Shay, 2016; Winberg et al., 2013) but to do so in a way which remains true to their contextual coherence emerging from their workplace focus. As a result, graduates may be denied epistemological access to the development of stronger independent, autonomous identities.

8.3.2 Marketing as a field needing strengthening of its epistemic spine

Tied to the finding that the field needed greater coherence, the study also raised the need to strengthen the epistemic spine in the Marketing diploma. The participants' conception of the Marketing curriculum was more of a low-level Semantic wave (see Figure 8.2). That is, even when quite complex terminology was used, if you scratched at it, the everyday nature of the terminology was revealed.

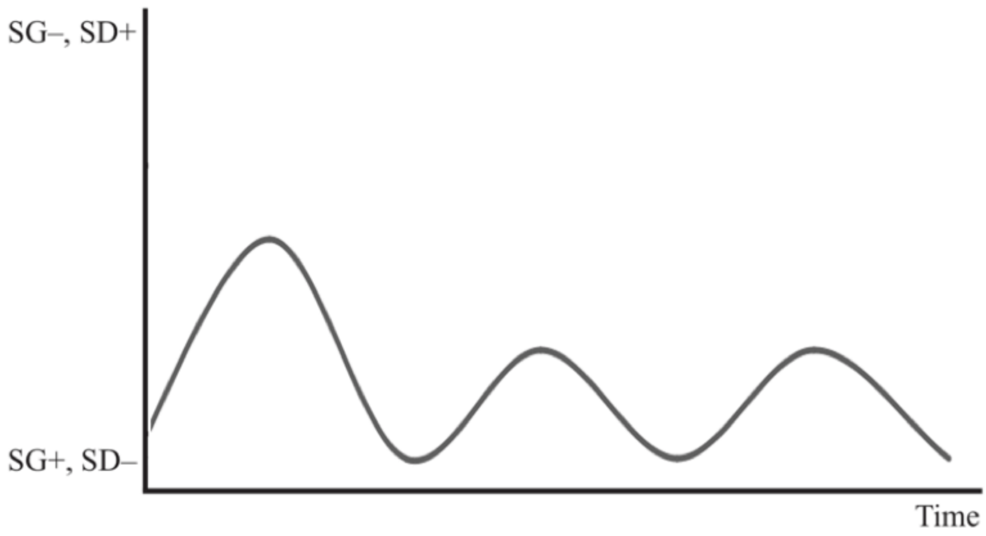

Figure 8.2: Semantic profile of Marketing knowledges as a lower-mid level wave (Adapted from Maton, 2014, p. 143)

Concerns have been raised about access to powerful knowledge in fields which are newer regions (Muller, 2009) or generics. This is a social justice issue, as it is through access to principled knowledge that students can access powerful understandings.

In vocational education, the real-world focus means contextual coherence is important and should be key, however, the varied contexts in the world of work make this a challenge. There is a need to increase conceptual coherence (Muller, 2009) alongside this contextual coherence if students are to have access to more abstracted principled knowledge that enables them to move across specific contexts and into worlds not yet imagined. Scholars have made this argument for many Universities of Technology programmes (Winberg et al., 2013) and also the literature on Marketing makes this argument in terms of the field of Marketing (see Chapter Two).

There is a need to strengthen the epistemic spine through improved theorisation which would increase the semantic density. Figure 8.3 illustrates a representation of the kinds of semantic waves which allow regular exploration of real-world application while also accessing abstracted principled knowledge.

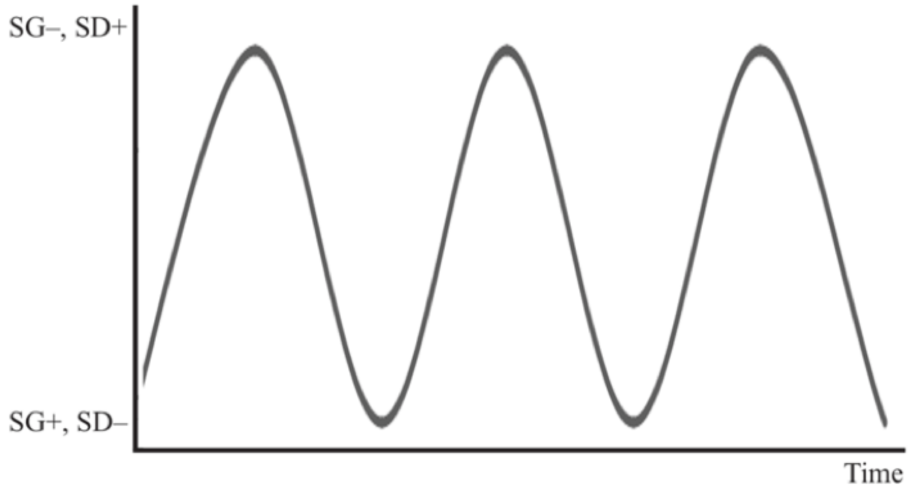

Figure 8.3: Semantic representation of a curriculum with a balanced contextual and conceptual coherence (Adapted from Maton, 2014, p. 143)

8.3.3 Marketing needs to cultivate knowers as a matter of social justice

Across all the data analysis presented in this study was a very strong emphasis on the nature of knowers as the main means of legitimation. The study showed that the academics' conception of students is that they need to be a particular kind of person to succeed. The valuing of knowers is not a problem in and of itself as many fields specialise through the gaze demonstrated by their knowers. However, given the concerns about high dropout rates, low retention, and low throughput, there is a need to be sure that all students have an opportunity through the curriculum to acquire the privileged gaze.

The data did not indicate that cultivating the gaze is a focus of the curriculum. Opportunities to learn from others were barely mentioned thus reflecting weaker interactional relations (IR-) in the curriculum. Instead there was a strong understanding that students have (or do not have) the gaze as an inherent attribution unrelated to what happens to them in the years of their Marketing studies. The gaze was largely described in terms of inherent attributes but also at times presented as a social identity related to ethnicity, geography, or language (SubR+). At present, the data showed that the social gaze is dominant in the academic conceptions of the legitimate knower, with some lesser evidence of a born gaze as illustrated on the social plane (see Figure 8.4 on the following page).

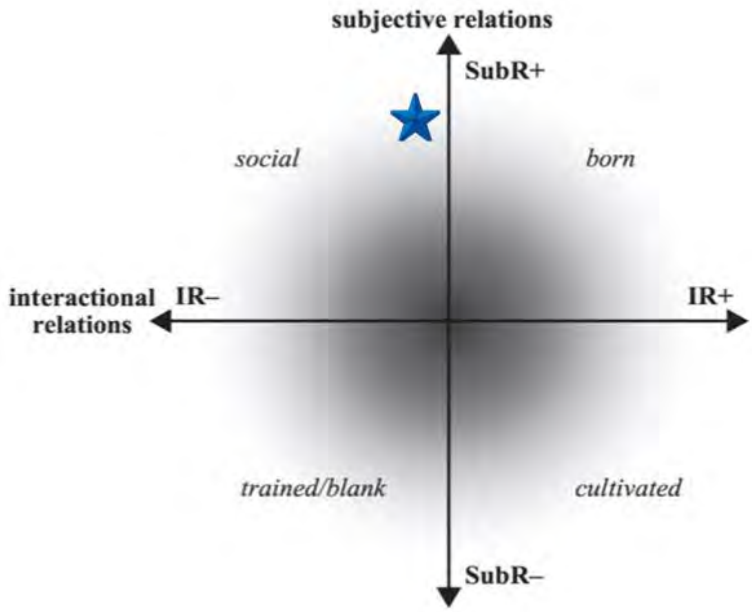

Figure 8.4: Current conception of the Marketing gaze on the social plane (Adapted from Maton, 2014, p. 186)

It is unlikely that the academics would themselves see this identification of a social gaze as being a requirement for success as an issue of social injustice. They were undoubtedly unconscious of how this acts to explain student failure as being invested in the students' inherent attributes and beyond the realm of influence of the institution, the curriculum, or the lecturer.

If it is a gaze, or way of being, by which Marketing success is determined as the participants in this study largely indicated, then the implications for social justice need to be clearly considered.

If indeed the gaze is a social one and cannot be learned, then presumably the curriculum can simply hone the skills of those students who already have the appropriate gaze. This then entails very rigorous screening of applicants so that students without the gaze do not spend time and money on a course for which they are envisaged to lack inherent attributes. Presumably, entrance tests that check for a Marketing disposition would need to be developed and implemented.

However, the implications of this suggestion need to be considered in the light of racially differentiated success rates. If it is an inherent attribute in the form of a social gaze that determines success, it would be possible to go down decidedly racist lines to account for the different rates of success amongst different social groups.

I do not wish to challenge the need to demonstrate a particular form of knower as part of success in Marketing. However, the strong valuing of a knower would have implications in the structure of a curriculum. The data in this thesis and the literature on the field of Marketing showed that Marketing is for a "special type" of person with a "Marketing personality" who is "charismatic", "bright" and has "insight", but not for those who are "frozen" or "fearful" or "shy". I would therefore posit that the curriculum has a social justice duty to cultivate that gaze if that gaze is fundamental to legitimation of being in the field. A curriculum shift in gaze is thus recommended from social to cultivated (see Figure 8.5 below). Recommending a shift in gaze is not a straightforward matter. It is a recommendation of a significant change in both the curriculum and in pedagogy.

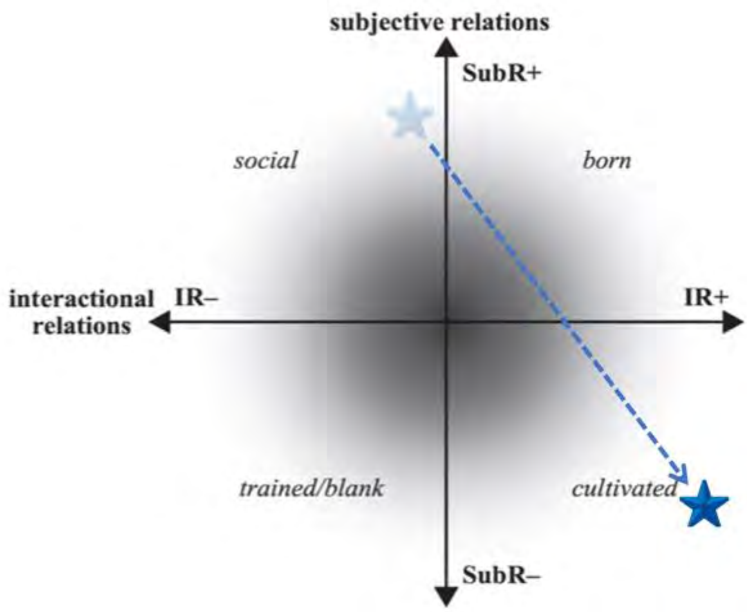

Figure 8.5: Recommended shift in the conceptualisation of the Marketing gaze (Adapted from Maton, 2014, p. 186)

There are several implications for the curriculum including explicit and ongoing opportunities for the gaze to be modelled. The curriculum should expressly articulate how the pedagogy will provide ample opportunities for students to practice the gaze. The change would require that the curriculum explains the gaze and students would need to get regular feedback on the extent to which they are taking on the gaze.

Perhaps most significantly, the shift is not only a matter of curriculum as Bernstein told us that the pedagogic device is ideological. It would thus also have significant implications for academics' conceptions of themselves. The modelling of a gaze is underpinned by a belief system and the academics themselves would therefore need to be supported in thinking through the social injustices of the current conceptions of the dominant gaze and the absenting of gaze as a focus in the curriculum.

Academics would probably need ample opportunities to think through the social justice effects of understanding Marketing as a social gaze. Academics would have to reflect on their views that potential is something that people are born with and understand the complex relationships our 'ways of being' have to do with class, upbringing, or cultural capital. If a genuinely socially just curriculum is sought – one which recognises that stronger social relations are valued – then there is a need to curriculate for all students enrolled to have opportunities to acquire that gaze.

8.4 Final Remarks

The study has revealed multiple challenges to be addressed in all diploma curricula. While the data analysis was split into three chapters, this chapter has shown the interconnectedness of the three main findings: valuing of a social gaze, a weaker epistemic spine, and a field characterised by genericism.

The study raised a social justice need to look critically at the understanding that the gaze so valued in a field of study is indeed something students bring with them fully formed, or whether there is a responsibility for the curriculum to model, nurture, and cultivate it. This would require an enormous strengthening of interactional relations (IR+) and an explicit engagement with *what* identifies the valued gaze and *how* a gaze can be cultivated. Where a gaze is valued, a curriculum ought to model the gaze rather than working from the basis that students are born with it or belong to a particular group who demonstrate that gaze.

As the study revealed a stronger focus on contextual coherence, it also recommends that a socially just curriculum needs to enhance its conceptual coherence. There is a need to increase the semantic density (SD+) and decrease semantic gravity (SG-) such that students can take principled knowledge into new contexts. This might require the academics to be more engaged in the field of production. An increased engagement in the field of academics in the making of Marketing knowledge would also address issues of genericism in the field as academics develop the methods of selecting, circumscribing the boundaries, and purposes of the field.

It has been a long journey, some of it physical as described in Chapter Four, and much of it intellectual, but as I come to the end I hope the findings contribute, in a small way, to a more informed reflection on the curriculum of higher education; in particular, to avoid contributions to unintended reproduction of social injustice. It is my hope that the study evokes the need to think more seriously about the move towards better theorisation in applied knowledges. I further hope that in fields where the knowers are highly valued, like Marketing, the study conscientises academics of the social justice implications when the gazes are not explicitly curriculated and encourages a more explicit engagement with the development of the gazes through the curriculum.

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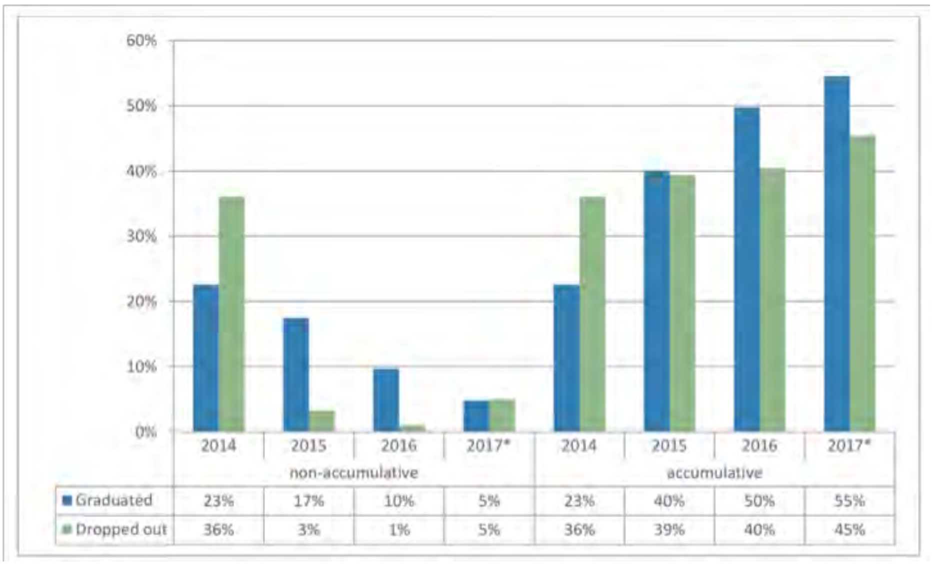
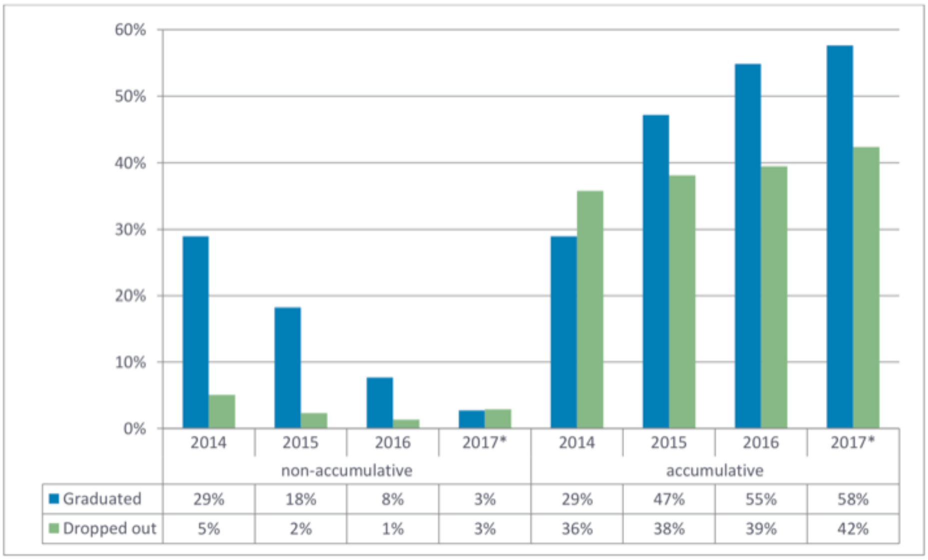
Appendices

Appendix A : Throughput Rate 6-year Tracking Diploma vs Degree 2012 Cohort

Throughput rates for 360-credit diplomas with first year enrolments in 2012 (excluding UNISA)



Throughput rates for 3-year degrees with first year enrolments in 2012 (excluding UNISA)

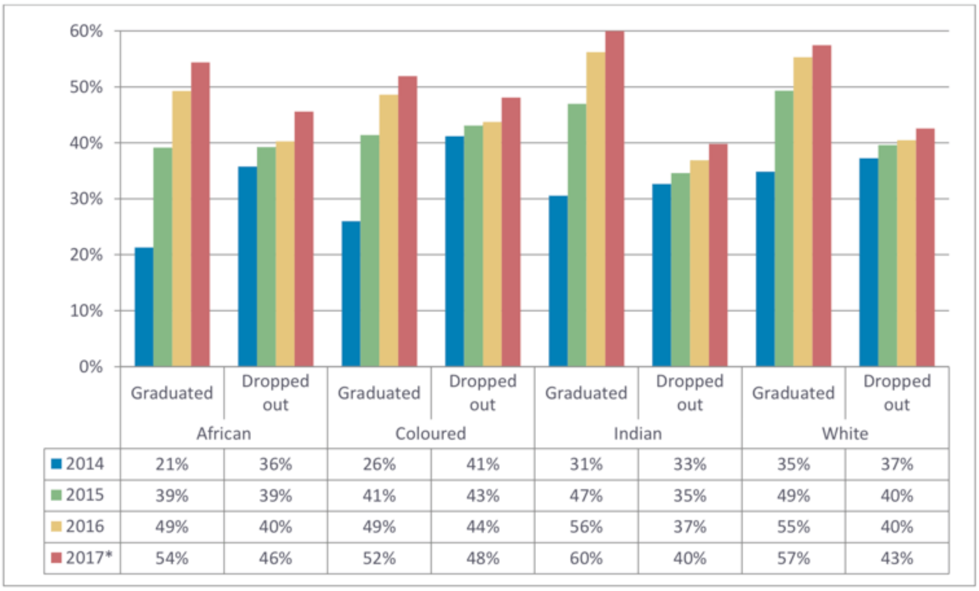


* There may be potential graduates remaining in the system after 2017.

Source: (Council on Higher Education, 2019)

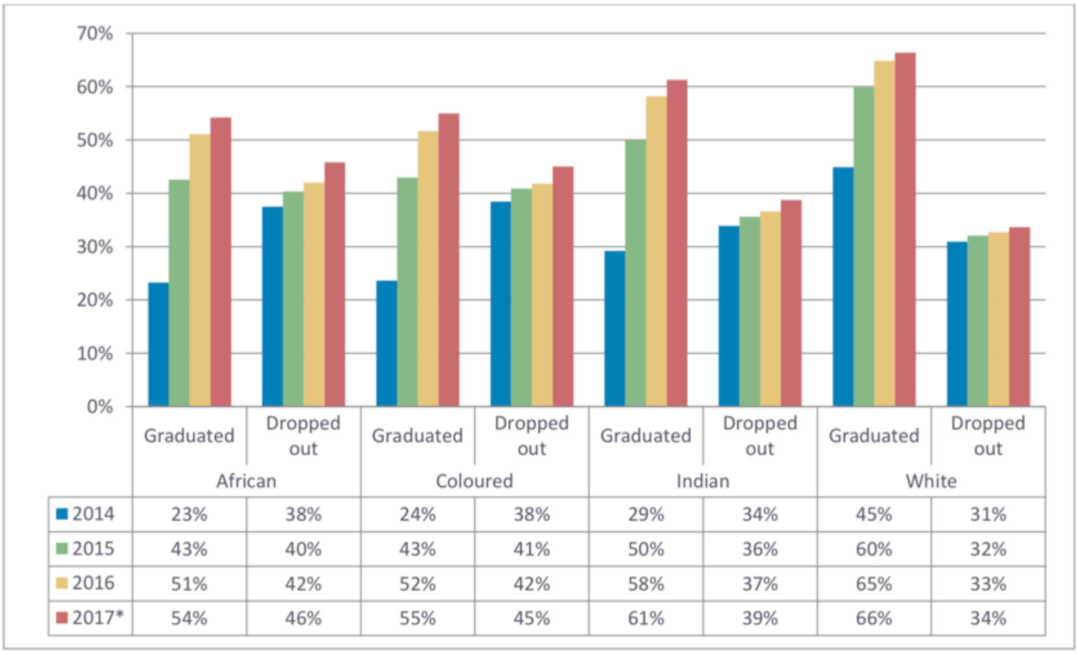
Appendix B : Throughput 6-year Tracking Diploma vs Degree 2012 Cohort with Race

Throughput rates by race for 360-credit diploma with first year of enrolment in 2012 (excluding UNISA) – accumulative



	African		Coloured		Indian		White	
	Graduated	Dropped out	Graduated	Dropped out	Graduated	Dropped out	Graduated	Dropped out
2014	21%	36%	26%	41%	31%	33%	35%	37%
2015	39%	39%	41%	43%	47%	35%	49%	40%
2016	49%	40%	49%	44%	56%	37%	55%	40%
2017*	54%	46%	52%	48%	60%	40%	57%	43%

Throughput rates by race for 360-credit degree with first year of enrolment in 2012 (excluding UNISA) – accumulative



	African		Coloured		Indian		White	
	Graduated	Dropped out	Graduated	Dropped out	Graduated	Dropped out	Graduated	Dropped out
2014	23%	38%	24%	38%	29%	34%	45%	31%
2015	43%	40%	43%	41%	50%	36%	60%	32%
2016	51%	42%	52%	42%	58%	37%	65%	33%
2017*	54%	46%	55%	45%	61%	39%	66%	34%

Source: (Council on Higher Education, 2019)

Appendix C : Consent Form

Informed Consent for Participation in Research

The research is part of my NRF sponsored PhD study, looking at the Marketing diploma curriculum in South Africa.

I am reliant on your goodwill for the completion of the study. You do not have to answer any questions you feel uncomfortable with or give confidential information (but I would request that other than these you assist by giving as much information as possible).

Confidentiality: The information you provide will not be published in an identifiable manner. Your name will not be published together with the research.

Request to record: You agree to have the interview recorded and transcribed. Transcriptions may be made available and you can check that the transcription and recording represented your views.

I have understood the purpose and nature of the research described to me. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

I have also been given a copy of this consent form.

_______________________________________ ________________________________

Respondent Name and Signature Date

____

Signature of the Investigator

Contact Information of the Investigator: NcubeK@cput.ac.za

Thank you for participating

Request to contact you should I require further information or clarifications

Appendix D : Confidentiality Agreement

Transcriptions confidentially declaration

The respondents took part in the research on condition that their responses would be kept confidential and that the researcher will not publish their responses together with their names or names of their institutions.

Keeping the responses confidential involves ensuring that the information from the audio is neither discussed nor shared with anyone other than the researcher.

The materials received and generated will also be kept confidential and on completion will be deleted or disposed, in line with the disposal of confidential materials i.e. such that they cannot be retrieved or reconstituted after disposal.

I (full names) ____ understand the above and agree to treat the work confidentially and to keep the information and identities of the respondents confidential.

__________________________________ ________________________

Transcriber Signature Date

Researcher: Kevin Ncube

Research title: Legitimate knowledge in a diploma: the positioning of actors and the structure of knowledge in the Marketing curriculum.

Appendix E : Proposed Data Collection Schedule

Proposed Data Collection Schedule: Kevin Ncube

May vary depending on either early completion or requirement to stay an extra day or to return at a more convenient time.

An effort will be made to complete as soon as possible.

Will be available on email for normal administration duties.

Week Beginning: 30 May

Date	30 May	31 May	1 June	2 June	3 June
University	NMMU	NMMU	Travel (WSU)	WSU	WSU Travel to CUT
City	Port Elizabeth	Port Elizabeth	Travel WSU	East London	East London

Week Beginning: 06 June

Bloemfontein to Durban

Date	6 June	7 June	8 June	9 June	10 June
University	CUT	CUT	Travel	DUT	DUT
City	Bloemfontein	Bloemfontein	To Durban	Durban **UJ**	Durban **IMM**

Week Beginning: 13 June

Durban

Date	13 June	14 June	15 June	16 June	17 June
University	MUT/DUT **VUT**	MUT **TUT**	MUT **UNISA**	HOLIDAY	Travel to JHB
City	Durban	Durban	Durban	HOLIDAY	

Week Beginning: 20 June

Gauteng

Date	20 June	21 June	22 June	23 June	24 June
University	UJ	VUT	IMM	TUT	UNISA
City	Joburg	Vaal	Joburg	Tshwane	Tshwane

Appendix F : Head of Department Interview Request Letter

Dear (Named HOD or CEO)

RE: Request to speak to lecturers about the Marketing curriculum.

Please kindly support my PhD research which is part of an NRF funded national project intended to look at the Marketing Diploma curriculum at all public universities in South Africa and the broader national issues across the higher education institutions.

I would like to request to speak to all the lecturers who are available individually, in particular lecturers of core Marketing subjects. I will be at your university on the … DATE … please kindly assist with scheduling of appointment or contact details so that I can directly contact colleagues ~~for appointments~~.

The study is NOT comparative but seeks to map the distribution of Marketing specialisations and variations in the core knowledge in the Marketing curriculum across the country.

The PhD is done through Rhodes university's where ethical clearance has been approved, please see attached. The project is supervised by Prof. Sioux McKenna whose contact details I have included below.

Supervisor: Prof. Sioux Mckenna (PhD)

Centre for Higher Education Research, Teaching and Learning

Rhodes University
s.mckenna@ru.ac.za

Kind Regards,

Kevin Ncube

PhD Scholar and Senior Lecturer: Marketing

Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Email: NcubeK@cput.ac.za

Cell: 079 319 5759

Tel: 021 460 3750

Appendix G : Lecturer Interview Request Letter

Dear (Named colleague)

Please kindly support my PhD research which is part of an NRF funded national project intended to look at the Marketing curriculum and the broader national issues affecting the Higher Education institutions.

I am interested in finding out your (individual) Marketing interests and how well you feel the RSA Higher Education system supports you to teach from these interests.

This is not a comparative study but one that seeks to find out the core and diversity of the Marketing diplomas across the country and thus provide opportunities for collaborations. The study covers all Comprehensive Universities and Universities of Technology.

I will be at your university on the … DATE … and would like to request to meet you for about 45mins.

Kind Regards,

Kevin Ncube

Senior Lecturer: Marketing

Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Email: NcubeK@cput.ac.za

Cell: 079 319 5759

Tel: 021 460 3750

Appendix H : Question Schedule

Question Schedule

Interview PREP

(1) Check FLIGHT mode is on
(2) Set up RECORDING
(3) Consent form

When did you start teaching (in) Marketing?

Which subject(s) do you teach?

Why? How did you get to teach the subject(s)?

Would you teach this subject if you had a choice?

What are the most important (and or your favourite) aspects/part of your subject?

WHY?

Which SOURCES do you use?

Why

Have you changed or added something? Did you find this easy

BACKGROUND OF STUDENTS

- Are the materials relevant,
- Can you change the materials?
- Do you change the materials, how, why, why not?

KNOWLEDGE STRUCTURES

What constitutes **success** in Marketing?

What do you want students to be able to do or to be?

(Can you tell me about your successful graduates …)

INVOLVEMENT OUTSIDE THE UNIVERSITY

- Business and none business activities.

What do you think is good/bad about marketing education in SA?

What do you think needs to be done differently?

Do you think the marketing curriculum is theoretical/practical enough? Why?

Graduate attributes

– the picture of the graduate when the Diploma has “succeeded”

Views on regulator body for Marketing (Accounting & Engineering)

Universities producing “OBEDIENT EMPLOYEES” – Noam Chomsky

Is there room for disobedience for “disruptive innovation”

Appendix I : Subjects Taught in the Marketing Diploma

	Marketing 1	Accounting	Personal Selling	English	Economics	End User Computing	Business Management	Marketing II	Law for Marketers	Advertising & Sales Promotion	Consumer Behaviour	Quantitative Techniques	Marketing III	Marketing Research III	Sales Management	Marketing Experiential Training	
CPUT	1	1	1	1	1	1		2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	
CUT	1	1	2	1-E	3	3	1	2	1	4	2	2	4	4	3	4	
CUT				3-E													
DUT	1	1	1	1	2	1		2	2	3	3	2	3	3	2-S	0	
TUT	1	1	1	1	1	2		2	2	3	2	2	3	3	3		
MUT (Levels	1	1	1	1-C	1	1		2	2-M	2	2	2	3	3	3		
VUT	1	1	2	1-A	2	1-I		2	3	2	1	2	3	3	3-S		
VUT				1-E													
WSU	1	1	1-M	1-C	2	2		2	1	0	2	2-M	3	3	3	3	
NMMU	1-I	1-B		2-C	1-I	1	1-I	2	2-C	3	4		3-I		2-S		
NMMU		2-F							2-C				3-S				
UJ	1	1-A	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	3-M	2	2	3	3	2-S		
UNISA	1-I	1-I	1				1-M	2-M		2	1-I		3-B	3	3	3-Marketing Project	
		2-F	2-S				2-M	2-Busines			2-Cons		3-Marketi			3-Marketing Applications	
							3-General Management										
							3-Production and Operations Management										
							3-Supply Chain Management										
IMM	1	1-Fina		1-E	1		2-E	2					3	2-E	1	3-Work Integrated Learning	
		2-Financial Management 2															

Appendix J : Electives in the Marketing Diploma

Electives from various institutions (with levels)

Electives from NMMU
1-Introduction to Logistics
1-Introduction to Tourism
2-Public Relations
3-Customer Relationship Marketing

Electives from UNISA
1-Customer Service
1-Intro to Retailing
1-Merchandising
1-Sustainability and Greed
2-Public Relations
2-E-Commerce in Business
3-Intro to Entrepreneurship and Small Business Management

Electives from IMM
2-Marketing Communications
2-Elective
3-International and Africa Marketing

Electives from IMM (Mostly level 2)
- Business Law 1 (20 credits)
- Business-to-Business Marketing (20 credits)
- e-Commerce (20 credits)
- Entrepreneurship (20 credits)
- Human Resource Management (20 credits)
- Product Management (20 credits)
- Retail Marketing (20 credits)
- Services Marketing (20 credits)
- Sponsorship Management (20 credits)
- Tourism and Hospitality Marketing (20 credits)

Appendix K : Marketing Modules in the BCom Marketing at UKZN

1.2.3.4. The Discipline of Marketing at UKZN [17]

The Discipline of Marketing at UKZN offers five undergraduate modules: an introductory eight-credit-points module at level two (a level-one general management module serves as a prerequisite), and four level-three sixteen-credit-point modules (which together comprise the major in Marketing). These are shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Marketing modules offered by the Discipline of Marketing, UKZN, 2010

	FIRST SEMESTER	SECOND SEMESTER
LEVEL 1	No Marketing modules	No Marketing modules. Students must pass a 16-credit-point Management module in order to gain entry to *Introduction to Marketing*.
LEVEL 2	***Introduction to Marketing*** 8 credit points	No Marketing modules
LEVEL 3	***Consumer Behaviour*** 16 credit points	***Marketing Communication*** 16 credit points
	Marketing Research 16 credit points	***Special Topics in Marketing*** 16 credit points

Approximately 1 400 students take *Introduction to Marketing*, and approximately 450 take each of the level-three Marketing modules (in total across the three campuses, including Pietermaritzburg). However, the majority of these students (approximately 1 125 at second year and 300 at third year) are based on the two Durban campuses that form the focus of this study

Source: (Arbee, 2012:11)

Appendix L : University of Pretoria (UP) – B. Com Management Sciences

BCom Management Sciences study programmes

BCom (Business Management)

Admission requirements	Afrikaans or English	Mathematics	APS
	5	4	30

BCom (Business Management) is a three-year full-time study programme, and provides students with knowledge of business management principles, to familiarise them with the basic functions of management at all levels, to introduce students to contemporary issues in management, and to familiarise them with the processes and systems available for the successful operation of any business. Graduates have a wide variety of opportunities in administration, finance, marketing and human resource management. The training covers a broad spectrum of managerial and organisational functions that will benefit the student in any career in business.

Fundamental modules (compulsory)

1st year	2nd year
Academic Information Management	Introduction to Moral and Political Philosophy
Academic Literacy for EMS	

Core modules (compulsory)

1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Business Management	Business Management	Business Management
Marketing Management	Marketing Management	Marketing Management
Economics	Business Law	
Financial Accounting	Financial Management	
Statistics		
Communication Management		
Informatics		

Elective modules

(See the Yearbook of the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences)

3rd year
E-Business
E-Commerce
International Business Management

Please note: See the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences Yearbook, Regulation 1.2, "Requirements for

Source: (University of Pretoria, 2014:11)

Appendix M : UP – B. Com Marketing Management

BCom (Marketing Management)

Admission requirements	Afrikaans or English	Mathematics	APS
	5	4	30

BCom (Marketing Management) is a three-year full-time study programme. Customers constantly pressurise organisations to act responsibly, to provide quality products and services, and to offer exceptional customer service. BCom (Marketing Management) equips students with the knowledge and skills to address decisions regarding product, price, distribution and promotion. Students are also exposed to the principles of services marketing. Attention is given to consumer behaviour, marketing research, personal selling, brand management, marketing issues and strategic marketing. Graduates can pursue careers in the following fields: product management, customer service management, customer relationship management, strategic marketing, planning management, sales management, distribution management, brand management, advertising management, media planning, marketing research management and promotions management.

Fundamental modules (compulsory)

1st year	2nd year
Academic Information Management	Introduction to Moral and Political Philosophy
Academic Literacy for EMS	

Core modules (compulsory)

1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Marketing Management	Marketing Management	Marketing Management
Business Management	Business Management	Business Management
Economics	Financial Management	International Business Management
Financial Accounting	Business Law	
Statistics		
Communication Management		

Please note: See the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences Yearbook, Regulation 1.2, "Requirements for specific modules", for information regarding the prerequisites of individual modules.

Contact information

Department of Marketing Management
Tel: +27 (0)12 420 5236

Student Administration
Tel: +27 (0)12 420 3498
Fax: +27 (0)12 420 3063
Website: www.up.ac.za/bcom

Source: (University of Pretoria, 2014:13-14)

Appendix N : UP – B. Com General

BCom study programmes

BCom

Admission requirements	Afrikaans or English	Mathematics	APS
	5	4	30

BCom is a three-year full-time study programme. The study programme is aimed at training students in economic and management sciences. The study programme does not lead to a specific vocational outcome. However, students are able to compile their own curricula with the aim of finding work in numerous sectors.

Fundamental modules (compulsory)

1st year	2nd year
Academic Information Management	Introduction to Moral and Political Philosophy
Academic Literacy for EMS	

Core modules (compulsory)

1st year	2nd year
Economics	Business Law
Financial Accounting	
Commercial Law (first-year level) **or** Business Law (second-year level)	
Statistics or Mathematical Statistics	
Communication Management	

One of the following modules:

(See the Yearbook of the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences)

1st year
Business Management
Marketing Management
Industrial and Organisational Psychology
Public Administration

Elective modules

(See the Yearbook of the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences)

1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Business Management	Business Management	Business Management
Marketing Management	Marketing Management	Marketing Management
Industrial and Organisational Psychology	Industrial and Organisational Psychology	Industrial and Organisational Psychology
Public Administration	Public Administration	Public Administration
Mathematics	Statistics **or** Mathematical Statistics **or** Mathematics	Statistics **or** Mathematical Statistics **or** Mathematics
Informatics	Informatics	Communication Management
	Economics	Economics
	Financial Accounting	Financial Accounting
	Communication Management	Taxation
	Taxation	Entrepreneurship
	Financial Management	Labour Law
		Labour Relations

Please note: See the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences Yearbook, Regulation 1.2, "Requirements for specific modules", for information regarding the prerequisites of individual modules.

Contact information

Student Administration
Tel: +27 (0)12 420 5394
Fax: +27 (0)12 420 3063
Website: www.up.ac.za/bcom

Source: (University of Pretoria, 2014:6)

Appendix O : UP – BCom Informatics

BCom (Informatics)

Admission requirements	Afrikaans or English	Mathematics	APS
	5	5	30

BCom (Informatics) is a three-year full-time study programme that focuses on the application and use of computer and information systems in organisations. The superiority of our students lies in their broad background in the field of economic and management sciences, which implies that the world of business is not strange to them. The use of information technology by organisations is growing exponentially, and new, more complex and challenging applications are explored and developed on a daily basis. It has the benefit that, in addition to the obvious fact that the work environment of the informatics specialist is particularly interesting, there is also the advantage that many job opportunities are available for the well-qualified informatics specialist. Informatics specialists have the knowledge to analyse the information needs of organisations, be it businesses, government departments, non-profit organisations or any other organisation where information is crucial. They not only analyse the needs, but also address those needs by designing and implementing information systems. Information systems nowadays refer to computer-based systems (including mobile applications) that store and manipulate data, so that people can understand, use, interpret and make decisions based on the information. BCom (Informatics) offered by the University of Pretoria is the only degree in South Africa that is internationally accredited by the Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology (ABET) of the USA.

Fundamental modules (compulsory)

1st year	2nd year
Academic Information Management	Introduction to Moral and Political Philosophy
Academic Literacy for EMS	

Core modules (compulsory)

1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Informatics	Informatics	Informatics
Financial Accounting	Business Law	Community-based Project
Economics		
Business Management		
Statistics		
Communication Management		
Discrete Structures		

Elective modules

(See the Yearbook of the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences)

1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Marketing Management	Marketing Management	Marketing Management
	Communication Management	Communication Management
	Business Management	Business Management
	Internal Auditing	Internal Auditing
	Statistics	Statistics
	Financial Accounting	Financial Accounting
	Taxation	Taxation
	Informatics	
	Financial Management	

Please note: See the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences Yearbook, Regulation 1.2, "Requirements for specific modules", for information regarding the prerequisites of individual modules.

Contact information

Department of Informatics
Tel: +27 (0)12 420 3798

Student Administration
Tel: +27 (0)12 420 3347
Fax: +27 (0)12 420 3063

Source: (University of Pretoria, 2014:18)

Appendix P : UP – B. Com Recreation and Sport Management

BCom (Recreation and Sports Management)

Admission requirements	Afrikaans or English	Mathematics	APS
	5	4	30

BCom (Recreation and Sports Management) is a three-year full-time study programme. This programme aims to equip potential managers with specific and applied knowledge and competencies to manage sport and recreation in both the private and public sectors. This study programme enables students to work in diverse management positions in the sport and/or recreation industry, for example, sport facility managers, event managers, sport club managers and sport marketers.

Fundamental modules (compulsory)

1st year
Academic Information Management
Academic Literacy for EMS

Core modules (compulsory)

1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Marketing Management	Marketing Management	Marketing Management
Business Management	Business Management	Business Management
Foundation of Recreation and Sport Management	Sport Facility and Event Management	Economics of Sport and Leisure
Economics	Business and Governance of Sport	Value-based Decision-making in Sport and Recreation
Leadership in Sport and Recreation	Sport Tourism	
Financial Accounting	Business Law	
Statistics	Sport Development	

Please note: See the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences Yearbook, Regulation 1.2, "Requirements for specific modules", for information regarding the prerequisites of individual modules.

Contact information

Department of Biokinetics, Sport and Leisure Sciences/Department of Sport and Leisure Studies
Tel: +27 (0)12 420 6040

Student Administration
Tel: +27 (0)12 420 3498
Fax: +27 (0)12 420 3063
Website: www.up.ac.za/bcom

Source: (University of Pretoria, 2014:20)

Appendix Q : UP – Marketing Management (UP 2017 Yearbook)

	Credits	
UP BCom Marketing Management (2017)	373	143/373

Year 1	150	10/150
Fundamental modules		
Academic information management 101 (AIM 101)	6	
Academic literacy for Economic and Management	6	
Academic orientation 107 (UPO 107)	0	
Core modules		
Marketing Management 120 (BEM 120)	10	10
Economics 110 (EKN 110)	10	
Economics 120 (EKN 120)	10	
Financial accounting 111 (FRK 111)	10	
Business management 114 (OBS 114)	10	
Business management 124 (OBS 124)	10	
Statistics 110 (STK 110)	13	
Statistics 113 (STK 113)	11	
Statistics 120 (STK 120)	13	
Statistics 123 (STK 123)	12	
Financial accounting 122 (FRK 122)	12	

Year 2	143	53/80
Fundamental modules		
Introduction to moral and political philosophy 251	10	
Core modules		
Business law 210 (BER 210)	16	
Business management 210 (OBS 210)	16	
Business management 220 (OBS 220)	16	
Financial management 212 (FBS 212)	16	
Financial management 222 (FBS 222)	16	
Consumer behaviour 212 (BEM 212)	16	
Integrated brand communications 224 (BEM 224)	16	
Market offering 256 (BEM 256)	16	
Communication management 281 (KOB 281)	5	53

Year 3	120	80/120
Core modules		
Marketing management 321 (BEM 321)	20	
Integrated practical marketing project 356 (BEM 3	20	
Business management 320 (OBS 320)	**20**	
International business management 359 (OBS 35	**20**	
Marketing research 314 (BEM 314)	20	
Personal selling and accountmanagement 315 (B	20	80

Appendix R : University of Cape Town – Bachelor of Business Science

Bachelor of Business Science
specialising in MARKETING (CB004BUS07)

			NQF Credits	HEQSF Level
YEAR 1	ACC1006F	Financial Accounting	18	5
	BUS1036F	Evidence-based Management	18	5
	ECO1010F	Microeconomics	18	5
	INF1002F	Information Systems I	18	5
	MAM1010F	Mathematics 1010	18	5
	ACC1012S	Business Accounting **OR**		5
	ACC2011S	Financial Reporting I	18	6
	ECO1011S	Macroeconomics	18	5
	MAM1012S	Mathematics 1012	18	5
	STA1000S	Introductory Statistics	18	5
	TOTAL		**162**	
YEAR 2	BUS2010F/S	Marketing I	18	6
	ECO2003F	Microeconomics II	18	6
	FTX2020F	Business Finance **OR**		6
	FTX2024S	Corporate Financial Management	18	6
	STA2020F/S	Applied Statistics	24	6
	CML1004S	Business Law I	18	5
	ECO2007S	Co-operation and Competition	18	6
	ECO2004S	Macroeconomics II	18	6
	PHI2043S	Business Ethics	18	6
	TOTAL		**150**	
YEAR 3	BUS3039F	People Management	18	7
	BUS3041F	Marketing IIA	18	7
	ECO3020F	Advanced Macro & Microeconomics	18	7
	STA3022F	Research and Survey Statistics	36	7
	BUS3008W	Research in Marketing	36	7
	BUS2033F/S	Professional Communication	18	6
	BUS3038S	Introduction to Project Management **OR**		7
		An approved 3000 level course	18	7
	BUS3043S	Marketing IIB	18	7
	Plus 1 course from:			
	ECO3009F	Natural Resource Economics	18	7
	ECO3016F	History of Economic Thought	18	7
	ECO3021S	Quantitative Methods in Economics	18	7
	ECO3022S	Advanced Labour Economics	18	7
	ECO3023S	Public Sector Economics	18	7
	ECO3024F	International Trade & Finance	18	7
	ECO3025S	Applied International Trade Bargaining	18	7
	TOTAL		**198+**	
YEAR 4	BUS4026W	Marketing III	72	8
	BUS4050W	Strategic Thinking	36	8
	BUS4052H	Marketing Research Project	36	8
	BUS4058F	Business-to-Business Marketing	18	8
	TOTAL		**162**	

Source: (University of Cape Town, 2020)

Appendix S : University of Zululand – National Higher Certificate in Marketing

.unizulu.ac.za/course/national-higher-certificate-in-marketing/ 67%

UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND
RESTRUCTURED FOR RELEVANCE

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National Higher Certificate in Marketing

A graduate who has achieved this qualification will be able to understand and apply fundamental principles of marketing, apply consumer behavior, communicate marketing information effectively using different media, distinguish the different product and services, marketing characteristics and strategies and be able to identify the contemporary environment, problems and practices of consumer marketing. Career opportunities include Marketing Administration Officer, Sales Administration Assistant, Advertising/Promotions Planner, Advertising Account Co-Ordinator, Marketing Research Assistant, Marketing Representative, Assistant Merchandising Manager, Direct Marketing Planner or any marketing-related career.

Faculty:	Commerce, Administration and Law
Department:	Business Management
Degree:	N/A
Qualifier:	National Higher Certificate in Marketing
Majors:	Marketing
Abbreviation:	
UNIZULU Code:	CBCTM1
NQF EXIT Level:	5
Admission Requirements:	1. NSC **OR** Matric Exemption and an achievement rating of 24 points 2. English level 4 and Mathematical Literacy level 4 or Mathematics level 3 3. English SG level D or HG level E and or Mathematics SG level D or HG level E
Minimum Credits for Admission:	24 Points
Minimum duration of studies:	2 Years
Presentation mode of modules:	Day Classes
Intake for the qualification:	January
Registration Cycle for the modules:	January
Total credits to Graduate:	240

Appendix T : Marketing 1 Subject Guide (EXTRACT)

EXTRACT from Marketing 1 subject Guide from Institution 1 (CPUT)

NPD – Marketing One, Institution for Respondent 1 (Page 6 – 3.6 Academic Schedule)

7 *(Ch8+9)*	Product strategy.	• Identify product concepts • Describe factors influencing branding • Explain brand familiarity • Identify the **new product development** process • Explain and describe the product life cycle	Semester 2 20 July-31 July	Forms part of test three (30%)

NPD – Marketing One, Institution for Respondent 1 (Page 7 – 3.6 Academic Schedule)

Learning outcomes (What students should be able to know and do in terms of knowledge, skills and competence at the end of a learning unit.)	**Teaching & learning activities** (What activities will be used to achieve the outcomes? What will students *do* to learn?)	**Assessment criteria** (How should students demonstrate knowledge, skills and competencies?)	**Assessment task** (How will students be assessed, incl formative and summative assessments?)
• Identify product concepts • Describe factors influencing branding • Explain brand familiarity • Identify the new product development process • Explain and describe product life cycle	Core lectures, class discussions, articles case studies and project.	Explain terminology used in the brand mix Explain the purpose of branding goods. Evaluate implications for **new product development** and *modification of existing products* are explained and described. Identify and describe phases of **product life cycles** and implications for marketing programs. Product life cycle phases are evaluated and **implications for new product development** and ***modification of existing products*** are explained and described.	Class test, term test and project