Knowledge and knowers in the discipline of Marketing at the University of KwaZulu-Natal

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of KwaZulu-Natal by Aradhna Arbee

March 2012
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As the candidate's Co-supervisor I agree to the submission of this thesis.

Signed: .................................. Date: 12/1/2012

Professor Wayne Hugo
Declaration

I, Aradhna Arbee, declare that

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ii. This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.

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Abstract

This study, which is set in a Faculty of Management Studies at a higher education institution in South Africa, is concerned with facilitating students’ epistemological access to the discipline of Marketing. It takes the position that each discipline has its own Discourse or ‘ways of being’ (Gee, 2005), and that this is influenced by the discipline’s underlying knowledge structure (Maton, 2003). The ability of Marketing lecturers to help students to become effective participants in the Discourse of Marketing rests on an understanding of what legitimate participation in the Discourse of Marketing entails. However, because such understandings are often tacit and contested, inducting students into disciplinary Discourses is made difficult.

Thus the first research question that this study seeks to address is: What constitutes epistemological access to the discipline of Marketing? The second question is: How do educational practices in Marketing at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) impact on the achievement of epistemological access to the discipline?

Theoretically, the study draws on Maton’s (2005a) Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) and work undertaken from a New Literacy Studies (NLS) perspective, such as Gee’s theory of Discourse (2005) and ‘academic literacies’ research. LCT allows for an analysis of the underlying principles that structure the discipline of Marketing, thus conceptualising the ‘rules of the game’ of the discipline and highlighting what counts as relevant meaning in Marketing. This analysis is therefore pertinent in addressing the first research question. NLS allows for an understanding of how lecturers and students operate in the discipline to construct legitimate meaning by engaging in appropriate practices and communication. Methodologically, the analysis of data also draws on Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). An understanding of the ‘rules of the game’ of Marketing, given by the LCT analysis, provides a backdrop against which educational practices in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN are explored. The analysis using CDA gives insight into how students’ Marketing identities are being built in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN and what the ramifications are for their epistemological access to the discipline, thus addressing the second research question.

In combination, these analyses reveal that students’ Marketing identities are not being specialised in ways that are appropriate to the disciplinary Discourse. Possible reasons for the inconsistency between the type of knower espoused and the type of knower actually produced in the discipline are explored.
Acknowledgements

I began my PhD journey with Professor Sioux McKenna as my supervisor; when she left UKZN, Dr Carol Thomson took over this role; and when it became clear as the study progressed that it would need to expand beyond what was originally envisaged, Professor Wayne Hugo joined the team as co-supervisor to help navigate the new and unfamiliar territory. Most people, upon hearing that I have worked with three supervisors over the past three years, comment that they would have found the adjustments difficult. I, on the other hand, consider myself very fortunate to have been able to benefit from the wisdom and guidance of not one, but three exceptional supervisors – each of whom has challenged, encouraged and inspired me in different ways at different points of the study. Their influence in my life extends beyond this particular thesis – in them, I have found models of the type of supervisor I would one day like to be.

Thanks are also due to the students and lecturers who participated voluntarily and enthusiastically in the study. I really enjoyed my conversations with them and am grateful for the thoughtful input and insights that they provided.

The support of my Head of School, Professor Kantiyal Bhowan, and other colleagues in the School of Management has been much appreciated. In particular, being granted a year-long sabbatical has been instrumental to the completion of the study.

The facilitators and students of the Faculty of Education’s doctoral cohort programme on the Edgewood campus provided much encouragement, feedback and support over the three years of the study.

Finally, thanks go to my family and friends for allowing me the time and space I needed to complete this thesis. To my parents in particular, for all they did to ensure that my brother and I had the sorts of educational opportunities that they did not, and for always supporting and encouraging us in our efforts to make the most of those opportunities: in the end, it all comes down to you.
### Abbreviations

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<tr>
<td>ADO</td>
<td>Academic Development Officer</td>
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<tr>
<td>AMA</td>
<td>American Marketing Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDA</td>
<td>Critical Discourse Analysis</td>
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<td>CHE</td>
<td>Council on Higher Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>DA</td>
<td>Discourse analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMI</td>
<td>Division of Management Information</td>
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<td>DoE</td>
<td>Department of Education</td>
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<td>ER</td>
<td>Epistemic relations</td>
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<td>FTE</td>
<td>Full time equivalent</td>
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<td>HEQCO</td>
<td>Higher Education Quality Committee</td>
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<td>HESA</td>
<td>Higher Education South Africa</td>
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<td>HG</td>
<td>Higher grade</td>
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<td>IBS</td>
<td>Integrated Business Studies</td>
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<tr>
<td>LAN</td>
<td>Local Area Network</td>
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<td>LCT</td>
<td>Legitimation Code Theory</td>
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<td>LO</td>
<td>Life Orientation</td>
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<td>MaD</td>
<td>Material density</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoD</td>
<td>Moral density</td>
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<tr>
<td>NLS</td>
<td>New Literacy Studies</td>
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<td>NPHE</td>
<td>National Plan on Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NQF</td>
<td>National Qualifications Framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSC-DEG</td>
<td>National Senior Certificate, with entry to university degree studies</td>
</tr>
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<td>PA</td>
<td>Positional autonomy</td>
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<tr>
<td>QPA</td>
<td>Quality Promotion and Assurance</td>
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<td>RA</td>
<td>Relational autonomy</td>
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<tr>
<td>SAAAD</td>
<td>South African Association for Academic Development</td>
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<td>SAQA</td>
<td>South African Qualifications Authority</td>
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<td>SD</td>
<td>Semantic density</td>
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<td>SFL</td>
<td>Systemic Functional Linguistics</td>
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<td>SG</td>
<td>Semantic gravity</td>
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<td>SG</td>
<td>Standard Grade</td>
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<td>SMS</td>
<td>Student Management System</td>
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<td>SR</td>
<td>Social relations</td>
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<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<tr>
<td>UKZN</td>
<td>University of KwaZulu-Natal</td>
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<td>USA</td>
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CHAPTER 1
Contextualising the study

1.1. Introduction

The position I take in this study is that each discipline has its own norms, values and literacy practices (McKenna, 2004b) – or Discourse/‘ways of being’ (as understood by Gee, 2005) – and that this is influenced by the discipline’s underlying knowledge structure (Maton, 2003). Students will therefore best acquire ‘academic literacy’ when it is embedded in specific disciplines (Jacobs, 2005). Lecturers in the disciplines accordingly have a role to play in helping students to acquire the discipline-specific academic literacies that enable them to participate in particular disciplinary Discourses; failure to do so works to the disadvantage of students in their endeavour to gain epistemological access to these disciplines.¹

In this thesis, ‘epistemological access’ is understood as the ability to take on the characteristic ‘ways of knowing’ and ‘ways of being’ that are associated with particular academic disciplines (Morrow, 2003; Gee, 2005).

This study is concerned with facilitating students’ epistemological access to the discipline of Marketing in a Faculty of Management Studies at a higher education institution in South Africa.²

The research questions that this study seeks to address are:

- What constitutes ‘epistemological access’ to the discipline of Marketing?
- How do educational practices in Marketing at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) impact on the achievement of epistemological access to the discipline?

Epistemological access has been identified as an area that is under-researched in South Africa (Boughey, 2005). It is also considered to be under-researched in relation to business and management disciplines. A little over ten years ago Pearse & Amos (2000), writing in the South

¹ The concepts of ‘Discourse’, ‘academic literacy’, ‘discipline-specific academic literacies’ and ‘epistemological access’ will be discussed in some depth in Chapter 2, in which I consider the literature and theory that informs the position I have just outlined. Thus in this contextualising chapter I provide only very brief descriptions of these concepts, where necessary, in order to help ‘set the scene’ for the study.

² In this thesis, ‘Marketing’ (with a capital M) is used to denote the academic discipline of Marketing (which is the focus of the study), while ‘marketing’ (with a small m) is used to denote the practice of marketing. Where authors have been quoted verbatim, however, the term is given as it appears in their work.
African Journal of Higher Education, called for research investigating ‘academic literacy’ specifically in the context of management education (which includes the discipline of Marketing).³

The international Marketing literature at that time, and subsequently, also reflected a related concern with the question of how Marketing academics ‘make’ Marketing; in other words, “the practices by means of which we reproduce ourselves as academic practitioners in marketing, and…the activities that bind us together as a tribe, as a collective, as an invisible college, as an academy, as a discipline” (Brownlie, 2007, p.663). Furthermore, it has been asserted quite recently that, despite the growing popularity of Marketing as an area of study at universities across the world, “very little is known about the marketing academy culturally speaking, its people, processes or knowledges” and that consequently Marketing remains “reflexively impoverished in terms of disciplinary self-understanding” (Ferguson, 2008, p.10).

Thus, in engaging with the question of what constitutes epistemological access to Marketing, this study makes a contribution to knowledge by engaging with issues that have fairly recently been highlighted in literature, both in South Africa and internationally, as being of importance to the discipline of Marketing. Additionally, exploring how epistemological access to Marketing may be facilitated is relevant in light of current concerns and priorities in the South African higher education context, which will be discussed in Section 1.2.1.

Theoretically and methodologically, the study’s contribution relates to adopting approaches which are generally not well represented in the Marketing education literature. Theoretically, the study is framed by work falling under the ambit of the New Literacy Studies (NLS), such as Gee’s theory of Discourse (2005), and ‘academic literacies’ research; as well as by Maton’s (2005a) Legitimation Code Theory (LCT). LCT is a very recent development in the sociology of education that has not previously, as far as I am aware, been applied to the study of the Marketing discipline. Methodologically, the analysis of data draws on both LCT and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). Critical approaches are seldom adopted by Marketing academics, something that has led to extensive criticism from both inside and outside the discipline (Burton, 2001; Shankar, 2009). Literature also reveals that studies in Marketing education often focus on the outcomes of Marketing education in relation to the needs of the workplace, thus privileging the voices and perspectives of marketing practitioners and employers (Hunt, 2002). In this study, it is the voices of students and lecturers which are highlighted.

³ McKenna (2004a, p.23) states that academic literacy “requires that students take on particular vocabularies, ways of reading, writing, speaking and listening, and also ways of seeing the world and ways of behaving in it”.

2
1.2. Rationale for the study

In this section, I provide an overview of issues in a number of contexts that relate to the rationale for the study, beginning with those at a broad, macro level, and progressively narrowing the focus to hone in on my personal interest in the study.

1.2.1. South African higher education context

There has long been concern about, and criticism of, the outputs of higher education. Given that higher education is seen to be crucial for national socio-economic development (Ncana, 2009), especially in developing countries, the extent to which higher education outputs meet national needs is of great significance. Thus the reporting of a 'significant' mismatch between the output of the South African higher education sector and the needs of the economy as well as ‘disturbingly’ low performance levels in the sector (Scott et al, 2007, p.vii) is of great concern. In South Africa, transformation is high on the educational agenda (Bloch, 2009) and the need for competent graduates in the workplace is interwoven with the need for representivity and social inclusion; thus in addition to quality, issues of equity (related not just to access, but also to outcomes) come to the fore. White students comprised the majority of higher education headcounts in South Africa until 1994 (the year in which the first democratically elected government assumed power), but by 1998 African students constituted 57% of the total (Cooper and Subotzky, 2001). From an intake of 190 000 black students in 1993, by 2009 there were approximately 450 000 black students in South African universities and Higher Education South Africa (HESA) reported that black students comprised about 65% of tertiary students (Bloch, 2009). While the enrolment of African students rose by 268% in the decade to 2006, low pass rates have meant that the debate in South Africa has moved on from access to success (MacGregor, 2009).

HESA (2007) identifies the low throughput rate as an area of great concern and as a challenge in renewing the higher education system. Although the sector as a whole does not perform well in terms of throughput, with the majority of students entering the system not completing their

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4 This section aims to broadly contextualise and provide a rationale for the study. In Chapter 4 (Section 4.3.6.3) there will be further discussion of higher education in South Africa, in relation to issues of legitimacy, status and value.

5 However, African students (see Note 6) were still under-represented at universities in 1998, compared to 1996 population census data, and relatively few were enrolled in the field of commerce (Cooper & Subotzky, 2001).

6 The term ‘black’ can be used broadly to refer to any non-white racial group, or narrowly to refer “the indigenous population of Southern African that is associated with Bantu languages” (Parmegiani, 2008, p.8). I use ‘black’ in the narrower sense. This is in line with the racial categories adopted by Statistics South Africa, and follows how the term is used by authors whose research has also been based at UKZN (for example, De Kadt & Mathonsi, 2003; Parmegiani, 2010; Pattman, 2010). However, some authors use the term ‘African’ instead of ‘black’. When drawing on the work of such authors, I retain their term.
studies, black students perform much worse than their white counterparts (Scott et al, 2007). Given that the students who do enter higher education represent the top performers from schools, it is important to investigate the reasons for poor performance and to address these, so as to facilitate the success of the diverse student population and ultimately the achievement of the country’s socio-economic goals. Additionally, in order to fulfill their responsibility to help students succeed in their studies, lecturers must have a clear idea of why some students succeed in their studies and others do not (Fraser & Killen, 2005).

The significance of the mounting challenges facing the higher education sector is perhaps reflected in the government’s decision to split the education portfolio into separate Basic Education and Higher Education portfolios. In May 2009 Dr Blade Nzimande was appointed Higher Education and Training Minister for a five-year term (Davis, 2011). The newly appointed minister identified as a cause for concern “the lack of both access and success of black students in certain disciplines of higher learning” (Ncana, 2009, p.5).

More recently, a consultation document published by the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) of the Council on Higher Education (CHE) identifies a number of ‘salient features’ of the South African higher education system (CHE, 2011). Of these, the following teaching and learning related features are particularly relevant to this study:

- “All public higher education institutions have increased their enrolment. At most institutions, the student demographic profile is more representative of South Africa’s demography than 15 years ago.
- The increase in formal access to higher education has not been accompanied by a proportional increase in epistemological access. Most institutions have low throughput rates and student success rates continue to be skewed along racial lines.\(^7\)
- Teaching and learning philosophies, when articulated or documented, suggest that at many institutions students are seen as a-social, a-cultural, autonomous beings whose ability to succeed in higher education depends on factors inherent in the individual, such as ‘motivation’ and ‘potential’. Parallel to this is the assumption by many academic staff that academic practices are accessible to all types of students and are, therefore, unproblematic for student learning and success.
- The notion of ‘disadvantage’ is understood as expressing the relationship between socio-economic context and lack of preparedness for the demands of higher education. This, however, has not always resulted in the development of approaches to curriculum and the overall educational process which systematically factors in ‘disadvantage’ or in the

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\(^7\) The documents notes that “The HEQC is aware that this statement needs careful explanation as the new democratic dispensation and social mobility among the middle classes render apartheid race categories progressively less useful to explain social phenomena” (CHE, 2011, p.9).
professional development of academics to be able to deal appropriately with the needs of a new and different generation of students”.

(CHE, 2011, pp.8-9)

In light of the above, the second cycle of quality assurance of South African higher education programmes (scheduled to take place between 2012 and 2017) will focus on improving the quality of undergraduate teaching and learning. A specific objective of this cycle will be “to support epistemological access and student success” (CHE, 2011, p.15), particularly in relation to students from disadvantaged backgrounds (Du Plessis, 2011).

1.2.2. Business/management education context

This study is also relevant because of the growing interest in business and management education worldwide (see Pauw et al, 2006; Bloor & Bloor, 2007; Gallos, 2008). Across the globe, there has been a disproportionate increase in student numbers in business studies (O’Brien & Deans, 1995; Ng, 2006). Yet, given the power that commerce graduates hold to potentially influence current global realities, there is increasing dissatisfaction amongst stakeholders about the effectiveness of such education, with low levels of pass-rates, student commitment and ‘fit’ between employer needs and graduate attributes being experienced internationally (Hesketh et al, 2008). The importance and status of the scholarship of teaching and learning in management is thus growing. According to Gallos (2008) this is being driven by a variety of trends such as the increasing pressure for accountability, a growing awareness of the limits of conventional thinking about teaching and learning as well as the purposes of management education (see also Hesketh, 2006) and rapid change that makes content knowledge outdated virtually as soon as it is taught – all of which means that it is now more important than ever to understand how to promote deeper self-regulated learning, complex thinking, sound judgment, and reflective action.

Research into management education is particularly relevant in the South African context because of the role of effective management in socio-economic development (Pearse & Amos, 2000). In 2001, the Department of Education’s (DoE’s) National Plan on Higher Education (NPHE) aimed for 30% of all headcount student enrolments to be in Business and Commerce within five to ten years (compared to the figure of 26% that applied at the time the plan was released); this was in an attempt to address the identified shortage of high-level professional and management skills in economic-based fields, where future demand was projected to be the greatest (DoE, 2001). By 2005, 29.1% of all students at South Africa’s higher education institutions were enrolled in Business and Commerce, almost meeting the specified target (Scott et al, 2007, citing DoE, 2006). However, this figure masks the under-representation of black
students and the differential performance of black and white students. With regard to undergraduate Business and Commerce studies at contact universities in South Africa:\(^8\)

- 33% of black students graduate with professional first degrees after five years, compared to 83% of white students;
- for general first degrees the proportion of black and white students graduating after five years is 33% and 72% respectively;
- only 22% of black students and 70% of white students completed professional first degrees in regulation time;
- for general first degrees the proportion of black and white students completing in regulation time is 11% and 43% respectively.\(^9\)

(Scott et al, 2007)

As Marketing is offered as a major in a general commerce undergraduate degree at UKZN, this study is located within a general first degree. As the figures just cited indicate, graduation rates within regulation time for such degrees are generally poor, for both black and white students.

### 1.2.3. Institutional context

#### 1.2.3.1. The University of KwaZulu-Natal

This study is located at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), which was formed on 1 January 2004 as a result of the merger between the University of Natal and the University of Durban-Westville (www.ukzn.ac.za, 2009). Comprising five campuses across two cities, UKZN is a contact university with a total student population of approximately 42 000 (80% of whom are undergraduates) and a staff complement of approximately 4 300 (www.ukzn.ac.za, 2011).

The research conducted for this study is institutionally relevant in light of UKZN’s access policy which stresses the need to increase the probability of success for all students who have gained access (Jackson et al, 2006), and especially black students (UKZN, 2005). The fact that higher education funding is now linked to throughput (Scott et al, 2007) provides additional incentive for investigating curricula to ensure their quality and contribution to students’ learning, so as to facilitate throughput. A report following an audit of student failure at UKZN identifies several possible contributing factors to student failure, some of which are “the curriculum; the size of classes; limited system of tutorials; limited research into institutional issues; language proficiency; teaching styles; [and] large/small group teaching methodologies” (Africa, 2005, pp. 24-25).

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\(^8\) These 2006 DoE figures cited by Scott et al (2007) reflect the situation as at 2005, for the cohort of students who entered universities in 2000.

\(^9\) These figures are for a five-year completion rate, but represent three- and four-year qualifications.
1.2.3.2. The Faculty of Management Studies

The study is also relevant from an institutional perspective because of the prominence of business and management studies in the university. The Faculty of Management Studies is UKZN’s largest faculty in terms of student numbers, with over 8,500 enrolled students for the 2009 academic year (UKZN, 2009a). Its student to staff ratio is also the highest of any Faculty, and is twice the DoE norms (UKZN, 2009b). The Faculty comprises the Schools of Accounting, Economics and Finance, Information Systems and Technology, Public Administration, Management, and the Graduate School of Business. Of the qualifications offered by the Faculty, the most popular include the three-year general Bachelor of Commerce and specialised Bachelor of Commerce (Accounting) degrees and the four-year Bachelor of Business Science degree. The Faculty straddles the Westville and Pietermaritzburg campuses of UKZN, at which the above qualifications are offered. In addition, the Faculty offers some of its modules as electives to students on the Howard College campus, who are registered mainly for Bachelor of Social Science and Bachelor of Arts degrees in another faculty. These students may, for example, choose to major in Marketing.

The findings of annual graduate opinion surveys among the Faculty’s graduates conducted by the university’s Quality Promotion and Assurance unit (QPA), highlights the need for research into undergraduate teaching, learning and assessment practices in the Faculty of Management Studies. While the findings indicate that most graduating students report satisfaction with the overall quality of their undergraduate studies in the Faculty (Walker, 2005; Walker & Zank, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011), a closer look reveals that the aspects that received the lowest average ratings in all years were teaching and assessment. In the 2009 survey, for example, the proportion of positive responses on teaching-related items ranged from just 39% to 49% (compared to positive responses of up to 82% on other items). Worryingly, 37% of students thought that a good memory was all that was required to do well and that it was possible to pass

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10 According to the draft Faculty Strategic Document of July 2009 (UKZN, 2009b), the full-time equivalent (FTE) student to staff ratio in the Faculty is 54.4 to1, whereas the DoE norm for Business Management and Law is 27 to1.

11 While I was engaged in the final stages of writing this thesis towards the end of 2011, UKZN was engaged in the final phases of a college restructuring process. As a result of this process, there will be changes to the number and names of Schools in the Faculty of Management Studies with effect from 1 January 2012. For example, the three Schools of Management, Public Administration, and Information Systems and Technology will merge to form the new single School of Management, Information Technology and Governance. However, this study refers to structures as they existed when the study was undertaken (2009-2011).
modules just by working hard close to examinations (Walker & Zank, 2009). Additionally, attendance at lectures is generally poor across the Faculty (McKenzie, 2007), an issue that has been raised several times at Faculty meetings, along with the issue of an apparent lack of a culture of learning among students.

There are a number of faculty initiatives in place to address these, and other, issues. These initiatives fall under the ambit of the Faculty’s small Education Unit. The Unit hosts a number of workshops for staff and students in the Faculty, as well as an annual teaching day where staff can report on research they have undertaken into teaching and learning. Its primary initiatives relating to academic literacy development, however, are:

- developing and teaching Integrated Business Studies (IBS), an academic/business literacy module, which is compulsory for the approximately 150 first-year students on the Faculty’s flagship programme, the Bachelor of Business Science. A version of IBS is also compulsory for students on the Faculty’s Access programme (approximately 130 are accepted each year into first year). Although the intention was to roll out IBS to all (roughly 1 000) first-year students in the Faculty from 2006, resource constraints have meant that this has not yet occurred;

- overseeing The Writing Place, a writing centre staffed by postgraduate and senior undergraduate students drawn from the range of disciplines offered in the Faculty, who assist students to develop their writing in these disciplines by providing feedback on their assignment drafts during individual or group consultations. Because of the limited number of tutors available, however, consultation sessions are short and students are generally limited to one session per piece of work. Even so, not all

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12 Although the student evaluation literature highlights that such evaluations be treated with caution for a range of reasons (see, for example, Emery et al, 2003), student evaluation remains a valuable tool. The student evaluation findings that are presented here are offered as contextual information and because of their relevance to broader concerns about undergraduate teaching and learning in South Africa (CHE, 2011), as noted in section 1.2.1.

13 This is not just seen to be a faculty-specific issue; UKZN’s Institutional Audit Portfolio (UKZN, 2008a) indicates that ‘student apathy’ is a growing problem across the institution.

14 IBS is a content-based course that integrates knowledge of business subjects with the development of competencies that are important to academic and professional literacy for Management Studies students. Taught in small groups, IBS provides students with regular opportunities to practice the appropriate discourse. This is considered important because “the social practices of the discourse community require students to write, read and talk in particular ways, i.e. to use particular genres of the workplace (like business presentations, reports and meetings) and of the academic context (such as research papers). Engaging in the typical activities of the discourse community and employing these genres assists students to grasp the values and culture of the field and also to be able to critique them” (Goodier, 2005, p.5).
students can be accommodated because of the large numbers involved and bookings are made on a ‘first-come, first-served’ basis;

- overseeing the Academic Development Officer (ADO) programme, whereby each school in the Faculty appoints an ADO (a postgraduate student in a discipline offered by the school, who is available to assist students who need help with their courses during individual or group consultations).\(^{15}\) The assistance offered by the ADOs relates not just to helping students to understand the content knowledge of particular management disciplines, but also the appropriate ways of communicating in these disciplines, for example, how to respond to assessment tasks. As students themselves, and with office space in the schools they are appointed to, ADOs are intended to be approachable and easily accessible to students who may sometimes not approach the lecturing staff with problems. In situations where tutorials are not offered to supplement large class teaching (as is the case in the School of Management), the role of the ADO takes on greater significance. However, the effectiveness of the ADO depends to a large extent on the support and buy-in from the lecturing staff in the School in terms of providing the ADO with access to course resources (such as the required texts, assessment criteria, marking memos, registration on course websites and so on) and in making the ADO aware of their expectations of students in their courses. In addition, because many lecturers often only refer students who have failed tests to the ADO, many students perceive the ADO to be a ‘remedial’ measure for struggling students; this stigma may discourage some students from consulting with the ADO.

Although there are many initiatives in place at the Faculty level, it can be argued that there is also a need for extending the responsibility for the development of academic literacy by involving disciplinary courses and lecturers to a greater extent. This is because the measures currently in place are sometimes available only to selected groups of students, either because of degree structures and rules (as in the case of IBS) or because of a lack of capacity to handle large numbers of students (as in the case of the Writing Place); are sometimes located outside of particular schools or disciplines (such as the Writing Place) and are thus seen by students as separate to and unnecessary for their progress in their specific disciplinary contexts; and are sometimes perceived by students to be remedial (as is the case with the ADOs, and the version of IBS offered to Access students).

\(^{15}\) The ADO for the School of Management (Westville and Howard College campuses) completed a Masters degree in Marketing in 2010, and is currently engaged in Masters level studies in Education.
1.2.3.3. **The School of Management**

The School of Management is the largest of the six Schools in the Faculty of Management Studies. It operates across the Westville, Howard College and Pietermaritzburg campuses and offers a variety of modules in the disciplines of Marketing, Management, Entrepreneurship, Human Resource Management, Industrial Relations and Supply Chain Management (UKZN, 2008b). In 2007, the School had over 17 000 (module count) students registered for its modules across these campuses and disciplines (UKZN, 2007).

As is the case with the Faculty, the School faces a number of challenges related to teaching and learning. One of these is that the School is under-resourced in terms of the availability of full-time and qualified academic staff. In its Self-Evaluation Report, the School notes that it has just 45% of its full academic staff complement (UKZN, 2007). Partly as a result of the shortage of staff, as well as other resource and logistical constraints, no tutorials are offered in the School. All contact sessions with students take the form of large-group lectures, at which attendance is often poor. In the context of massification, with large numbers of students who are considered to be underprepared for higher education studies, this exclusive focus on large-group lectures presents a particular challenge to enabling epistemological access.

The nature of large-group teaching in the School has also come under scrutiny. Feedback from undergraduate students on their lecture experiences has highlighted areas of unhappiness that have likely had some impact on their motivation and approaches to learning. These include a lack of engagement between lecturers and students in class, ‘boring’ lectures, unchallenging modules and inexperienced lecturers who “read material to the class from transparencies, textbooks or notes” (informal personal communication with students; Faculty Teaching and Learning Committee meeting, 06 June 2008; School Board Meeting, 28 July 2009). Such feedback has been provided by students in a number of fora (e.g. during a meeting of staff and student representatives held in 2007 to address student concerns; to the panel conducting the external review of the School in November 2007; in response to Faculty surveys; and during informal conversations that I have had with undergraduate students in the School).

Additionally, based on his experience of working with 51 ‘at-risk’ students across a range of management disciplines, the School’s ADO identified the following factors as contributing to student failure (Chiweshe, 2009, no page):

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16 As mentioned earlier (see Note 11), the college restructuring process will result in the School of Management merging with two other schools in the Faculty as of 1 January 2012. The new merged School will comprise the following five divisions: Management and Entrepreneurship; Human Resources and Industrial Relations; Marketing and Supply Chain Management; Information Systems Management; and Public Governance. Again, however, in this thesis I refer to structures as they existed at the time that the study was undertaken.
• “Inconsistent lecture attendance.
• Subject materials are not read.
• Application of learnt theory is lacking.
• Case studies are overwhelming to students.
• Lack of right academic attitude.
• Incorrect style of question response”.

However, with the exception of the student evaluations of each module which are required by QPA for quality assurance purposes, there has not been any systematic research undertaken into teaching and learning issues in the School.

1.2.3.4. The Discipline of Marketing at UKZN

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL 1</th>
<th>FIRST SEMESTER</th>
<th>SECOND SEMESTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Marketing</td>
<td>No Marketing</td>
<td>Students must pass a 16-credit-point Management module in order to gain entry to Introduction to Marketing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEVEL 2</td>
<td>Introduction to Marketing</td>
<td>8 credit points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEVEL 3</td>
<td>Consumer Behaviour</td>
<td>16 credit points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Research</td>
<td>16 credit points</td>
<td>Marketing Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No Marketing modules</td>
<td>No Marketing modules</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

17 The information presented in this section will be supplemented in Chapters 3 and 4. In Chapter 3, which focuses on research methods and design, the student and lecturer populations in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN will be described, in the discussion around the selection of participants. Chapter 4, which presents some background to Marketing in general and at UKZN specifically before undertaking an LCT analysis of the discipline, includes information on the Marketing curriculum at UKZN.
(Westville and Howard College). These 2009 figures include students from other faculties who take the modules as electives.\textsuperscript{18}

The large number of students registered for Marketing at second year compared to third year is due to the fact that \textit{Introduction to Marketing} is not taken solely by students intending to major in Marketing. It is a required module for most students in the Faculty of Management Studies and is also a popular elective for students from the Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Sciences.\textsuperscript{19}

In the Faculty of Management Studies, the main programme on which Marketing is offered is the Bachelor of Commerce (General) degree. As the degree name indicates, this is a general degree that exposes students to a variety of business disciplines, such as Economics, Accounting, Management, and Information Systems and Technology. Students also have to take some law and quantitative modules offered by other faculties. The first year of study is fairly standard, with specialisation in terms of majors (such as Marketing) generally occurring from second year onwards. Students are required to take two majors. Management, Supply Chain Management and, to a lesser extent, Economics are popular choices as a second major among students who are majoring in Marketing. Students in the Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Sciences may take Marketing as an elective in their Bachelor of Social Science or Bachelor of Arts degrees. Like the Bachelor of Commerce (General) students, these students have a wide range of options in terms of disciplines to select from in constructing their degrees. Students in both faculties therefore have to acquire a range of academic literacy practices during their degrees, which may vary from discipline to discipline, pointing to the importance of their being made aware of the specific requirements and expectations in each discipline.

\subsection*{1.2.4. Personal context}

Aside from the diverse contexts sketched above in terms of the relevance of the research reported on in this thesis, it is also relevant for personal reasons. I joined the academic staff of the Faculty of Management at the former University of Natal in 1999, a few years after having

\textsuperscript{18}Specific class sizes for each module for the 2010 academic year (the year in which the empirical research took place) will be provided in Chapter 4.

\textsuperscript{19}According to the Faculty of Management Studies 2009 handbook (UKZN, 2009d), \textit{Introduction to Marketing} is required for students doing the following degrees: Bachelor of Administration, Bachelor of Commerce (Extended Curriculum), Bachelor of Commerce (General), Bachelor of Commerce (Accounting) and Bachelor of Business Science. Only the Bachelor of Business Administration and the Actuarial Science stream of the Bachelor of Business Science do not require the module – the former because the students take a different Marketing module and the latter because students have a structured degree which does not require Marketing.
obtained an undergraduate Commerce degree majoring in Marketing and an Honours degree in Marketing, and having taught in a department of Marketing and Management at another higher education institution. As a lecturer in the Faculty's Extended Curriculum/Enriched Management Studies programme (which later became the Faculty's Education Unit), I was responsible for teaching a business/academic literacy module to a small group of black first-year students from disadvantaged schooling backgrounds.

However, as a result of the institutional restructuring following the merger with the University of Durban-Westville in 2004, I was ‘redeployed’ to the School of Management in the new UKZN at the beginning of 2006, where I found myself teaching on large mainstream undergraduate modules in Management and Marketing. The dominant conceptions of teaching in the School at the time appeared to be teacher-centred and content-based, focusing on the transmission of material, and my different teaching experiences and beliefs made me feel somewhat an ‘outsider’, even though I had a relevant disciplinary background to be teaching in the School. Teaching and learning issues at the time did not feature to a great extent on either meeting agendas or in informal discussions among colleagues.

Since 2007, I have been teaching exclusively in the Discipline of Marketing in the School and have been responsible for a third-year second-semester undergraduate Marketing module on both the Westville and Howard College campuses. I have been struck by the difficulties that a large proportion of the students appear to have in satisfactorily achieving the module outcomes in what is for most of them the final semester of their degree. This has raised questions for me about the contribution and effectiveness of mainstream management studies curricula towards helping students gain epistemological access to their disciplines.

The situation described above stimulated my interest in undertaking research into undergraduate business and management studies education, with specific reference to the discipline of Marketing. Although my interest in the broad research area was sparked by my personal context and experiences, the sorts of issues and challenges identified above present a more general challenge for higher education today (Dyson, 2008). Teaching approaches (particularly in relation to large and diverse classes), generic skills and literacies, curriculum and programme design, and

20 Mainstream programmes are distinguished from ‘access’ or ‘extended curriculum’ programmes. Students on the Faculty’s access/extended curriculum programme have typically not met the academic requirements for entry onto ‘mainstream’ programmes. The access programme involves additional support modules and tutorials alongside the mainstream modules and thus extends the curriculum over an additional year compared to the mainstream programme.

21 Subsequently, each School in the Faculty was required to establish a Teaching and Learning Committee. In the School of Management, this committee was formed in 2010. However, only a few staff members opt to participate in its activities.
course design are also among the key areas of educational development identified as needing attention and research in the South African context (Scott et al., 2007). This study is thus highly relevant to a wider audience.

1.3. Overview and conclusion

This chapter has set out the focus and aims of the study. It has also provided a rationale for the study in terms of the institutional, disciplinary and wider social context in which it is located.

In Chapter 2, the literature and theories pertinent to the study are outlined, and their potential contribution to addressing the study’s research questions is discussed. The chapter first considers the nature and dimensions of epistemological access to academic disciplines, looking at both the knowledge and social dimensions. It then shows how a combination of work falling under the ambit of NLS, academic literacies and LCT can be used to give insight into how Marketing operates as an academic discipline and what counts as relevant meaning in the discipline, as well as how lecturers and students operate within Marketing to construct meaning through engaging in appropriate practices and communication.

Chapter 3 details the research design and methodology adopted and shows how the theoretical concepts that were identified in Chapter 2 as being of relevance to the study are operationalised in the empirical research that was undertaken at UKZN. It also outlines the two-stage process of analysis undertaken, with the first stage using LCT and the second CDA. These analyses are presented in Chapters 4 and 5 respectively.

Chapter 4 focuses on Marketing as an academic discipline, both generally and in the context of UKZN. It begins by providing some background to the discipline before undertaking an analysis of the discipline using LCT. This first stage of analysis allows for the ‘rules of the game’ of Marketing to be made explicit and thus for insight into what constitutes epistemological access to the discipline. Accordingly, the LCT analysis is relevant in addressing the first research question.

Chapter 5 hones in more sharply on educational practices in Marketing at UKZN, analysing a number of discourses that arise in the data, from a CDA perspective. CDA allows for a consideration of the contextual and power dimensions that may impact on the achievement of epistemological access to Marketing at UKZN. This second stage of analysis is thus pertinent to addressing the second research question.

Chapter 6 summarises and concludes the study, outlining its contributions, limitations and implications.
CHAPTER 2
Theoretical considerations and literature review

2.1. Introduction

In Chapter 1, the point was made that it is not sufficient for students to have only formal or physical access to higher education; in addition, they need epistemological access or ‘access for success’ (Cele & Menon, 2006). This entails acquiring the academic literacies required for success in the university (McKenna, 2010) and, I argue, specifically in particular disciplines.

This chapter begins by considering the notion of ‘epistemological access’. As the understanding of epistemological access emphasised in this study is a discipline-specific one, I then go on to discuss the nature of academic disciplines. This discussion highlights a view of disciplines (and of epistemological access to disciplines) as comprising both social and knowledge dimensions that are closely intertwined in practice (Becher, 1989).

The discussion of the social (especially discursive) aspects is framed by work done within the ambit of the New Literacy Studies (NLS), which views literacy (including ‘academic literacy’) as social practice and as contextual and ideological, in line with Street’s (1984) ideological model of literacy. Gee’s (2005) theory of Discourse and its relation to this study are therefore discussed. The literature on academic literacies, and particularly discipline-specific academic literacies, is then addressed.

The knowledge dimension of disciplines (and the relation between the social and knowledge dimensions) is addressed via Maton’s (2005a, 2007, 2008a, 2009, 2010a) Legitimation Code Theory (LCT), which builds on Bourdieu’s (1985, 1988, 1989, 1990) work on fields and Bernstein’s (1971, 1975, 1990, 1996, 1999, 2001) work on educational codes, the pedagogic device and knowledge structures. Together, the work of these theorists allows for disciplines to be analysed as knowledge structures, and for the implications of particular knowledge forms on curriculum and pedagogy to be explored.

Figure 2.1 provides an overview of the bodies of literature and the theories that inform this study.\textsuperscript{22}

\textsuperscript{22} A review of and background to the discipline of Marketing is not included in this chapter, as might be expected, but rather in Chapter 4, as a precursor to the LCT analysis of Marketing that is presented there. This consolidation is to enable more focused attention on Marketing in that chapter, and to avoid undue repetition across chapters, given that the LCT analysis in Chapter 4 also draws on the Marketing literature.
2.2. **Epistemological access**

As indicated in Chapter 1, higher education must provide students with not just formal access but also epistemological access, that is, access to the knowledge construction processes that sustain the university, so that they can successfully participate in academic practices (Morrow, 2007, 2009; Boughey, 2008; Mgqwashu, 2009a, 2009b). This is because university study requires particular forms of thinking, learning, literacy and knowledge depth (Slonimsky & Shalem, 2006). Teaching students to participate in the disciplined inquiry of the university involves them “learning and becoming committed to the grammar of inquiry in some field – epistemological access requires that they come to understand, and care about, the relevant epistemic values” (Morrow, 2003, p.11). Morrow’s conception of epistemological access as being related to particular fields (or disciplines) is important for this study, which focuses its attention on one disciplinary field (Marketing). In this study, the notion of gaining epistemological access to a discipline is also understood more broadly than as simply “access to knowledge” (Morrow, 2007, p.2). Because disciplines have knowledge and social dimensions (as will be discussed in Section 2.3), gaining

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23 In this study, disciplines are understood to be relatively autonomous social fields of practice (after Bourdieu, in Maton, 2005a) that comprise both knowledge structures and social agents (Freebody *et al.*, 2008). This understanding is explored further in Section 2.3 (which focuses on academic disciplines) and Section 2.6.1 (which focuses on Bourdieu’s conception of ‘field’).
epistemological access to a discipline must encompass both of these dimensions. Kotta (2006, p.9) describes epistemological access as enabling students “to become informed participants in a discourse”. For McKenna, a discipline’s academic literacy embodies “the things that each discipline values and the behaviours that it does not”, and can accordingly be seen to “construct its own cultural community” (2010, p.13). Thus, epistemological access can be said to relate both to the relevant knowledge and ways of knowing, as well as to the social norms, values and behaviours (ways of being), in the context of particular disciplines.

Although the term ‘epistemological access’ was coined by Morrow in 1992 (Slonimsky & Shalem, 2006), Boughey (2005) contends that what constitutes epistemological access remains a contentious and under-researched issue in South Africa. She outlines two competing understandings of epistemological access: first, as “the development of a set of skills which will allow students to engage with tertiary study” and second, relating to “the development of new identities” (2003, p.70). It may be argued, however, that these ‘competing’ understandings are in fact reflective of the two dimensions of epistemological access – the epistemic and the social – as outlined above.

Cultural and linguistic diversity in South Africa pose additional challenges to an understanding of what constitutes epistemological access (Boughey, 2005). Acquiring the academic literacy practices of higher education studies is a challenge for all students (Yeld, 2003), but especially for those from poor educational backgrounds whose epistemic practices and approaches to texts may impede their acquiring these practices (Scott et al, 2007; Mgqwashu, 2008). Students’ early literacy events appear to be a major determinant of their later educational success (McKenna, 2004b; Rose, 2004a, 2004b); however, there is often a mismatch between the literacy practices of university, and the home and school literacy practices that students use as a reference point (Heath, 1983; Boughey, 2005, 2008). Leibowitz’s (2004) examination of university students’ literacy biographies shows that it is not just speakers of English as an additional language who experience difficulty with the transition from school to university - students who are proficient in English, but who do not obey the key conventions of academic discourse, are also unsuccessful. Thus, in line with my observations and experiences of teaching mainstream undergraduate Marketing modules at UKZN (as outlined in Chapter 1), non-traditional or weak students are not alone in struggling with the demands of university study (Mgqwashu, 2001; Moll 2004; Jackson et al, 2006; Wingate, 2006; Soudien, 2009). Instead, it can be argued that for most students these demands can be likened to an “institutional practice of mystery” (Lillis, 2001, p.14). The aim of the second cycle of quality assurance of South African higher education programmes - “to support epistemological access and student success” (CHE, 2011, p.15) – is thus highly appropriate.
This brief introduction to the notion of epistemological access has highlighted the following important aspects: that epistemological access can be viewed as being discipline specific; that one gains epistemological access to a discipline by acquiring the academic literacies that enable one to participate in the discourse of that discipline; and that this involves both knowledge and social dimensions. These aspects will be addressed in more depth in the remainder of the chapter, in the sections outlined in Figure 2.2.

**Figure 2.2: Location of some key concepts in the chapter**

I begin by outlining an understanding of disciplines as knowledge communities and structures. Drawing on NLS, I then move on to explore the norms for participating in meaning making within disciplines, from the view of Discourse theory, before proceeding to consider the literacies that are necessary in order to be able to construct meaning and participate in disciplinary Discourses, via an ‘academic literacies’ perspective. Having thus far focused primarily on the social and discursive aspects of disciplines, I then explore the forms of knowledge underpinning disciplines, and their implications for practices in disciplines, via LCT.

**2.3. Academic disciplines**

This section considers the nature of academic disciplines; in particular it develops the notion of disciplines as both social constructs and knowledge structures or, in Becher’s (1989) well-known terms, as ‘tribes’ and ‘territories’. The literature on disciplinary influence on teaching and learning is also briefly reviewed.

Both the social and knowledge dimensions of disciplines are clearly represented in the definition put forward by Freebody *et al*, who view disciplines as “social fields of practice comprising both relatively formal structures of knowledge and practices, and actors who share interests and norms (whether explicit or tacit) of knowledge production and communication” (2008, p.191). Similarly, White and Hitt assert that academic disciplines comprise “a separate and distinct culture; a culture that exerts influence on the scholarly behaviours of the discipline” as well as “the structure of knowledge in which faculty members are trained and socialised; carry out tasks of teaching, research, and administration; and produce research and educational input” (2009, p.9). While in practice these two dimensions are inseparable, it is necessary to theoretically
distinguish between knowledge communities and knowledge structures in order to explore the connections between them (Becher, 1989).

**Territories: disciplines as knowledge structures**

The formation of relatively insulated disciplines is linked to the enormous growth in knowledge during the nineteenth century (Moore & Young, 2001) and to the need for academic division of labour (Foucault, 1966). From this perspective, disciplines can be seen as organisational structures for knowledge. Going a step further, a discipline can be viewed as “knowledge organised for instruction”, with the goal of simplifying understanding (Brown, 1997, p.24). This last point is in fact quite ironic, given the tacit nature of many disciplinary teaching practices and norms, as will be outlined in Section 2.5.1.

Disciplines contain levels of abstraction (Brown, 1997), and are “both the product of and the enabling condition for higher knowledge” (Morrow, 2009, p.134). The distinctive feature of studies in the academy is that they are “based in highly systematised forms of enquiry not synonymous with the practices in everyday life that they must prepare people for, inform and challenge” (Moll, 2004, p.6). Although access to disciplinary knowledge is important for epistemic reasons, students are often only provided with access to content but not to systems of meaning in disciplinary knowledge (Wheelahan, 2006). An academic discipline is thus not the same as the objects it studies (Collier, 1994; Wheelahan, 2006; Brownlie, 2007). Parker agrees that a distinction must be made between ‘discipline’ (academic profession, or community of practice) and ‘subject’ (the knowledge base which is taught), and sees a discipline as being a more complex structure than a subject – “to be engaged in a discipline is to shape, and be shaped by, the subject, to be part of a scholarly community, to engage with fellow students – to become ‘disciplined’” (2002, p.374). Kreber (2009b, p.4) also provides a useful distinction between “what is looked at” (subjects) and “what is looked through or with” (disciplines). The knowledge base of the discipline of Marketing in general, as well as the Marketing curriculum at UKZN specifically, will be outlined in Chapter 4.

However, Moje states that disciplines “are not simply bodies of knowledge to be handed down from expert to novice” (2008, p.342, in Baldwin, 2010, p.47), which are fixed and unchanging. Instead, disciplines are living bodies of knowledge (Brown, 1997), which are “contested in content and meaning over time” (Morrow, 2009, p.134) and which can accordingly be viewed as

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25 This study of the ‘academic discipline of Marketing’ will therefore focus on its manifestation in university practices, rather than on workplace or industry practices - although these latter practices may emerge as important in the construction of the Discourse of the academic discipline of Marketing.
epistemic and social constructs (Naude, 2003). For Wallerstein, a discipline is (in addition to a culture and an organisational structure for knowledge) a “claim to turf” (2011), encompassing intellectual claims about what subject matter is ‘ours’ and where the boundaries between ‘us’ and other disciplines lie. These issues will be explored further in Sections 2.6.2 and 2.6.3, drawing on the work of Bernstein and Maton respectively.

**Tribes: disciplines as knowledge communities**

For Becher (1989, 1994), a discipline is also an ‘academic tribe’, a cultural phenomenon that is embodied in a group of like-minded people with their own values, codes of conduct (and distinctive intellectual tasks), with membership manifested in artefacts, idols and most importantly in the language or discourse of the discipline. Of significance is that a tribe’s cultural aspects (“their traditions, customs and practices, transmitted knowledge, beliefs, morals and rules of conduct, as well as their linguistic and symbolic forms of communication and the meanings they share”) play an important role in defending its identities and turf, and in excluding outsiders (Becher, 1989, p.24). (This resonates with Gee’s notion of Discourse, and the concept of discourse communities, which will be addressed in Section 2.4.1).

Being accepted as an insider to a discipline thus involves more than familiarity with its knowledge base; it also requires acquisition of the disciplinary values and ‘ways of being’. Acceptance as insiders to an academic tribe is important not just for academics but also for students; epistemological access involves being inducted into a discipline and taking on its characteristic ways of knowing and being (see Smit, 2010). And because the social and epistemological aspects of disciplines are in practice so tightly bound together, lecturers often interpret students’ non-compliance with disciplinary social norms as cognitive deficit (Ylijoki, 2000).

**Disciplinary typologies**

A number of typologies of disciplines have been developed. These vary according to whether they focus on epistemological and/or social dimensions, as well as with regard to the methods used for collecting the data on which their development is based. Of these typologies, those developed by Biglan in 1973 (based on a questionnaire completed by academics) and Kolb in 1981 (based on students’ learning style inventories) are often cited in the literature, although Biglan’s is perhaps more frequently drawn on and has thus been very influential in subsequent work on disciplinary differences (see Becher, 1989; Hargens, 1996; Kreber, 2009a; White & Hitt, 2009). Focusing on the cognitive dimension, Biglan surveyed academics regarding similarities

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26 This statement was made at a seminar entitled “Disciplines, who art ye? That all our swains adore ye?” that was presented by Professor Immanuel Wallerstein of Yale University, at UKZN’s Howard College campus on 24 June 2011.
and differences among 36 disciplines and identified three dimensions along which responses could be mapped (Becher, 1989, p.11):

- hard versus soft – “the degree to which a paradigm exists” (with soft indicating the lack of a strong paradigm);
- pure versus applied – “the degree of concern with application”;
- life-system versus non-life system – whether they deal with biological or social areas, or inanimate objects.

Macfarlane (1995) describes Business/Management (which includes Marketing) as a ‘soft-applied’ domain, although Marketing amalgamates knowledge from a variety of disciplines that may be classified as soft pure (e.g. Psychology, Sociology) and hard applied (e.g. Statistics). This drawing on a number of disciplines has implications for both identity formation in, and the status of, Marketing - compared to ‘pure’ or ‘traditional’ disciplines – as will be discussed in subsequent sections and chapters. Becher provides the following overview of the nature of knowledge and disciplinary culture in soft-applied fields: “Functional, utilitarian (know-how via soft knowledge), concerned with enhancement of [semi-] professional practice, resulting in protocols/procedures; Outward-looking, uncertain in status, dominated by intellectual fashions, publication rates reduced by consultancies [sic], power-oriented” (1994, p.154). Given the concern with enhancing professional practice, curricula and research in soft-applied fields are often influenced by practitioners (Becher, 1994). It has also been asserted that soft areas attach greater significance to “broad general knowledge”, “student character development” and “effective thinking skills such as critical thinking” (Neumann, 2001, p.138).

While Biglan’s typology has been useful in stimulating further research into disciplinary differences, it has also been criticised for offering overly broad generalisations which ignore the changing nature of knowledge production (i.e. transdisciplinarity), for overlooking how lecturers and students themselves understand and interpret their disciplines, and for setting limits on what is seen to be possible in particular disciplines (Kreber, 2009b).

Influence of disciplines on teaching and learning

Becher (1994) expresses puzzlement at the lack of prominence of disciplines in educational research, given their significance as an organisational and social framework in higher education. Since then, a fairly substantial body of literature has emerged exploring disciplinary differences in teaching and learning (for example Smeby, 1996; Ylijoki, 2000; Neumann et al, 2002; Pace & Middendorf, 2004; Shulman, 2005a, 2005b; Lindblom-Ylanne et al, 2006; Kreber & Castleden, 2009; Kreber, 2009a).
This literature appears to bear out the claim that the variance between disciplines, in terms of their social and epistemological characteristics, gives rise to different curricula (Geirsdottir, 2008a, citing Bernstein, 2000) and teaching styles (Becher, 1994; Donald, 2009). Geirsdottir uses Bernstein’s concepts of ‘classification’ and ‘framing’ to explore the pedagogic discourses of three disciplines (Engineering, Anthropology and Physics) within the same university, and finds the existence of a local pedagogic discourse of each discipline, created by recontextualising a universal pedagogic discourse in a local socio-cultural context (Geirsdottir, 2008b). Ylijoki explores four disciplines (Computer Science, Library Science and Informatics, Public Administration, and Sociology and Social Psychology) in one university, and finds that teaching and learning at university have “remarkably distinct meanings for students in different fields” (2000, p.355). Unlike the studies of Geirsdottir (which focuses on lecturers only) and Ylijoki (which focuses on students only), the study on which this thesis is based includes both students and lecturers as participants.

The literature also indicates that some disciplinary cultures are not well documented because of the difficulty of separating them from the professional practice domains that surround them (Becher, 1989). Accordingly, Schmidt-Wilk (2010) raises the question of what might constitute ‘signature pedagogy’ (Shulman, 2005a, 2005b) in management disciplines (such as Marketing). Matthew and Pritchard assert that it is “how disciplines see themselves” that lead to signature pedagogies (2009, p.66), pointing to the importance of eliciting the views of students and lecturers in particular disciplines. However, Pace and Middendorf are of the opinion that this work is in its infancy and that “we have only begun to understand what thinking goes on in different disciplines” (2004, p.2). As noted in Chapter 1, Ferguson (2008) identifies Marketing as a discipline about which very little is known in this regard.

That there is not more of a focus on disciplines in educational research may partly be because much of the literature in this area is seen to be quite controversial, often putting forward unitary, unproblematic and deterministic conceptions of ‘discipline’; however, while ‘discipline’ encompasses shared practices and focus, it also encompasses great diversity (Trowler & Wareham, 2008). This could perhaps be related to the existence of ‘sub-specialisms’ within most disciplines (Becher, 1989), which may differ greatly in terms of their approaches and methods - and which may lead to contestations over what is accepted as legitimate in the discipline. Accordingly, “‘discipline’ brings with it tricky questions about access and boundaries…about who

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27 See Section 2.6.2 for an overview of the concepts of ‘classification’ and ‘framing’.

28 Shulman (2005a, p.52) defines signature pedagogies as “the characteristic forms of teaching and learning” in particular fields, particularly those preparing students for professional practice.
can be said [to be] practicing the discipline” (Parker, 2002, p.374). It is crucial for such issues to be debated within disciplinary communities and a good starting point for such debates is for disciplinary communities to model their discipline’s “essential pedagogic structure – the disciplinary processes and modes of communication that characterise it” (Parker, 2002, pp.382-383). The theoretical tools and concepts necessary to be able to do this will be addressed in subsequent sections of this chapter.

To conclude this section on academic disciplines, however, it may be useful to highlight Becher & Trowler’s (2001) identification of a number of factors that are likely to impact on (the significance of) disciplinary cultures and knowledge, some of which will be picked up on again later in the thesis:

- the growing number and strength of external forces that exert influence on academic cultures (one example of which is performativity);
- declining academic autonomy;
- a more differentiated and permeable higher education system, in which research is not a significant aspect of the work of many academics;
- the influence of the post-structuralist focus on agency and discourse on the way knowledge is conceptualised (knowledge forms seen as socially constructed and interpreted);
- a focus on local meanings and practices, as opposed to general understandings of practices in particular disciplines.

The notion of disciplinary influence on pedagogy appears to be quite well supported in the literature. However, cautions have also been raised about a number of issues, including: balancing specialised/disciplinary and generic/cross-cutting skills, knowledge and processes in curricula; the danger that signature pedagogies may work in an insular fashion to strengthen boundaries between disciplines and entrench accepted ways of doing things; the recognition that ‘ways of thinking and practising’ in disciplines evolve over time; and a concern that disciplinary structures may be seen to be the only influence in shaping pedagogy, whereas other factors may also play an important role in this regard (Kreber, 2009b). In particular, it has been asserted that specific ‘teaching and learning regimes’ arise out of the intersection between disciplines and local (institutional and departmental) contexts/cultures (Trowler, 2009). Accordingly, this study explores Marketing both as a discipline in general, as well as in the specific context of UKZN.

Having unpacked the notion of an ‘academic discipline’, I now move on to explore issues of meaning making in disciplines, drawing on perspectives and theories from NLS.
2.4. New Literacy Studies (NLS)


NLS is representative of the social turn in literacy studies which occurred approximately 25 years ago (Baynham & Prinsloo, 2009) in that it reflects a shift in perspective in the study of literacy from a cognitive model to a social approach. The ‘new’ in NLS is thus in contrast to traditional approaches to literacy that dominated at the time, which focused on individual minds and emphasised the cognitive effects of literacy, seeing literacy as “a powerful independent variable” that enabled cultures to move from ‘primitive’ to ‘advanced’ levels of development (Lankshear, 1999, no page). NLS, on the other hand, contends that “reading and writing only make sense when studied in the context of social and cultural (and we can add historical, political and economic) practices of which they are but a part” (Gee, 2000b, p.180).

Early literacy work undertaken from a sociocultural approach, such as that of Heath (1983), was seminal in the development of NLS. Lankshear (1999) notes that other influences on the emerging field included Freire and those working in the ‘new’ sociology of education such as Bernstein, Bourdieu and Passeron.

However, Street’s 1984 book, *Literacy in Theory and Practice*, is acknowledged as “the first explicit programmatic account of literacy studies from the sociocultural point of view” (Lankshear, 1999, no page). In this book, Street outlines his conception of two models of literacy: the autonomous and ideological models (summarised in Table 2.1), which are based on traditional and sociocultural views of literacy respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AUTONOMOUS MODEL OF LITERACY</th>
<th>IDEOLOGICAL MODEL OF LITERACY</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Views literacy as a technical skill</td>
<td>• Views literacy as a set of social practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Presents literacy as neutral, universal, benign</td>
<td>• Views literacy practices as varying from context to context, and from culture to culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Disguises cultural and ideological assumptions of literacy</td>
<td>• Views literacy as contested, ideological and rooted in particular world views</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Imposes a specific conception of literacy onto other cultures/groups</td>
<td>• Emphasises the power dimension of literacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Assumes that literacy in itself (i.e. autonomously) has effects on social and cognitive practices</td>
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The autonomous model of literacy sees language as a neutral, decontextualised and fixed body of knowledge (Street, 1984), or ‘grammar’, that can be learnt through drill and repetition (Thomson, 2008). Literacy is thus seen to relate to the mastery of certain basic, generic, technical skills that can then be easily transferred and universally applied (Kim, 2003; Mohamed & Banda, 2008) in order to decode and encode print (Boughey, 2008). In other words, literacy is understood to be “a single and universal phenomenon with assumed cognitive as well as economic benefits” (Lillis & Scott, 2007, p.11). Because this model views literacy as neutral, difficulties in acquiring literacy can simply be attributed to deficiencies in the acquirer (McKenna, 2010). This ‘deficit’ view leads to calls for separate add-on interventions in order to fix these deficiencies in students.

By contrast, the ideological model of literacy sees literacy practices as embedded in particular socio-cultural contexts and worldviews, and thus as multiple and contested (Street, 2001). This is because they are influenced by different values and ideologies, and have different meanings for different groups (Mohamed & Banda, 2008), such as different disciplinary communities. Acquiring a literacy therefore means acquiring the values that underpin it (McKenna, 2010). Street (2006, p.2) states that the ideological model “is always embedded in socially constructed epistemological principles. It is about knowledge: the ways in which people address reading and writing are themselves rooted in conceptions of knowledge, identity, being. It is always also embedded in social practices, such as those of a particular job market or a particular educational context and the effects of learning that literacy will be dependent on those particular contexts”. Thus, meaning here is understood as ‘situated’ (Gee, 1999a).

Challenging a mainstream skills-based view of literacy as a “socially neutral ‘technology of the intellect’”, which is rooted in the autonomous model of literacy, NLS instead offers a sociocultural view of literacy as “a socially-embedded practice, inseparable from the historically-specific ideologies and institutional frameworks within which cultural events of reading and writing are given shape and significance” (Collins, 2000, p.71). In accordance with this conceptualisation, which is based on the ideological model of literacy, NLS recognises that there are multiple literacies, “varying according to time and space but also contested in relations of power” (Street, 2003, p.77), and gives much attention to describing the literacy practices associated with everyday life (Stephens, 2000).

The social turn in literacy studies, referred to earlier, was representative of a broader trend in social science and humanities research dating from the 1970s, where attention across a range of disciplines was shifting away from individuals and towards social practices and interactions (Gee, 1999b). Several movements participated in this social turn; many of them either converged with or were incorporated into NLS. Of relevance to this study, Gee (2000b) identifies as one such movement the poststructuralist and postmodernist work on ‘discourses’ by scholars such as
Fairclough, Bakhtin, Foucault and Bourdieu. Some of this work, primarily that of Fairclough, will be discussed in subsequent sections and chapters.

Although NLS tends to dominate current literacy research, important contributions have also been made by the field of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), which has its origins in the 1960s work of Halliday and his colleagues (Thomson, 2008). Like NLS, SFL understands literacy as social practice and thus as being bound up in issues of power and identity. SFL gives attention to the relationship between text and context (the context of situation and the context of culture), the metafunctions of texts and how these functions are realised in the ‘grammar’ of texts (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). The metafunctions referred to are experiential (i.e. the representation of experiences), interpersonal (i.e. the representation of interactions) and textual (i.e. the creation of coherent, logical stretches of language). It is the emphasis placed on “grammar as a resource” [for meaning] that differentiates SFL from NLS (Thomson, 2008, p.62). Some of these concepts will be outlined in Chapter 3, in the discussion of CDA, given the strong links between CDA and SFL (Rogers, 2004b).

Critics of NLS assert that its emphasis on qualitative, ethnographic studies of local literacies means that broader social questions and policy-level issues are not addressed (Street, 2003). In addition to concerns around comparability and transferability, Kim cites as problematic the lack of specific suggestions for literacy practitioners, such as teachers, who “must decide whether and how to teach dominant literacies without becoming complicit in the reproduction of power” (2003, p.119). Bloome and Talwalker (1997) agree that the consideration of power relations tends to be implicit in NLS and that explicit exploration of power issues has been limited. Perhaps it is in response to some of the above criticisms that current developments in the field concern the linking of NLS to broader social theory (issues of text, power and identity are central in this regard), the development of practical educational strategies and the application of NLS in different fields and new areas, such as numeracy (Street, 2003) and new (multimodal and digital) literacies (Baynham & Prinsloo, 2009; Kress, 2010).

A basic tenet of NLS is that “reading, writing and meaning are always situated within specific social practices within specific discourses (Discourses)” (Gee, 1999b, pp.7-8). Therefore, in the next section, I discuss Gee’s conceptualisation of Discourse.

### 2.4.1. Gee’s theory of Discourse

Gee’s (1990, 2001, 2005) notion of Discourse has been very influential in NLS work and is of great relevance to this study. By ‘discourse’ (with a lower case ‘d’), Gee refers to “language-in-use” (2005, p.7) or “stretches of language” (2005, p.26). When this language-in-use is integrated with “non-language stuff” in enacting particular activities and identities, the term ‘Discourse’ (with
is used to signal these “ways of being in the world” (Gee, 2005, p.7). From this perspective, Discourses involve more than language (although they always include language) and can be thought of as ‘identity kits’ (Gee, 2001) or as “socially accepted associations among ways of using language, of thinking, valuing, acting and interacting, in the ‘right’ places and at the ‘right’ times with the ‘right’ objects (associations that can be used to identify oneself as a member of a socially meaningful group or ‘social network’)” (Gee, 2005, p.26). Therefore, successfully acquiring a Discourse means that one is able to ‘pull off’ a particular identity (Gee, 2005). The questions of how this can be achieved then arises.

Gee views literacy as “mastery or fluent control over a secondary discourse” (1990, p.153). Because it is “no one’s mother tongue” (Mgqwashu, 2001, p.62), academic discourse is an example of a secondary Discourse. Becoming academically literate in a discipline thus involves taking on its Discourse. Gee (1996, p.138) states that Discourses can be taken on through acquisition (modeling, trial and error) and/or learning (“conscious knowledge gained through teaching”) and that “we are better at performing what we acquire, but we consciously know more about what we have learned” (1996, p.139). This implies that we need to provide students with pedagogic environments that enable both acquisition and learning, so as to facilitate the potential for maximising both performance and knowledge (Thomson, 2008). One of the concerns of this study is to explore the extent to which such provision is the case in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN.

In conceptualising literacy more broadly than as the use of language, Gee’s notion of Discourse enables a move away from deficit models towards an understanding of students as “outsiders to the discourses of academia” who need access to “the ‘ways of being’ in the disciplines” (Smit, 2010, p.3). Instead of problematising students, the attention shifts (as is the case in this study) towards exploring practices in the disciplines and how these may serve to facilitate or deny outsiders access to the disciplinary Discourse (and thus epistemological access). It also enables the understanding that helping students to gain access to disciplinary Discourses is a ‘mainstream’ issue and that mainstream lecturers have an important part to play in this process. According to Morrow, “teaching...is the practice of enabling epistemological access” (2007, p.2).

In accordance with the understanding of Discourse outlined above, this study does not confine its attention to academic writing (which is often the focus of studies in the area of academic literacy

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29 Later in this chapter, I show how Breier (2004a) extends Gee’s notion of Discourse as ‘ways of being’ by incorporating knowledge and power dimensions.

30 A secondary discourse refers to any discourse that is not the ‘home’ or ‘primary’ discourse (Boughey, 2002).
and epistemological access), but considers more broadly the ‘ways of being’ in the discipline of Marketing. This broader view of literacy as enabling participation in disciplinary ways of being is akin to Bernstein’s ‘regulative discourse’ and Morrow’s ‘epistemological access’ (Smit, 2010).

**Discourse communities**

Academic disciplines (such as Marketing) can be seen as Discourse communities into which students are socialised (Gee, 2005).

Goodier and Parkinson agree that taking on the academic literacy practices of a particular discipline may be viewed as “entry into a new discourse community, where the content is intimately bound up with how to read, write and speak about the discipline” (2005, p.66). However, although discursive practices are the starting point for the ‘Discourse community’ concept, not all social practices are discursive in nature (Fairclough, 1992). In addition to shared language and discourse, academic Discourse communities share “practices of thinking, research and learning, which are expressed in the processes of changing, producing, disseminating and sharing knowledge” (Pogner, 2005, p.5).

Through their interaction, the members of a Discourse community construct, reproduce and alter the community’s expectations, norms and conventions; these in turn constrain and enable members’ options (Pogner, 2005) in line with what is considered to be accepted in the community. Thus, as Discourse communities, academic disciplines are not ‘immutable’ or ‘unchangeable’ (Baldwin, 2010, drawing on Moje, 2008).

As Gee’s (2005) explanation of Discourse indicates, in order to be accepted as legitimate members of a Discourse community (such as the discipline of Marketing), students’ ‘ways of being’ must be seen (by community insiders, such as Marketing lecturers) to be ‘socially acceptable’ or ‘right’. In other words, the “key to Discourses is ‘recognition”’ (Gee, 2005, p.27). Slonimsky and Shalem (2006) also point to the role that curricula and pedagogic practices have to play in facilitating students’ membership of academic communities.

In terms of this study, Gee’s theory of Discourse raises the following questions:

- What is the Discourse of the discipline of Marketing?;
- What impacts upon what is recognised by Marketing students and lecturers as ‘acceptable’ or ‘legitimate’ in this Discourse?;
- To what extent do educational practices in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN facilitate students’ acquisition and learning of the disciplinary Discourse?
However, Discourse theory alone cannot address these questions. A limitation of NLS and Gee’s theory for this study could be said to be the lack of focus on the knowledge dimension. Breier, however, extends the notion of Discourse offered by Gee, drawing on Bernstein and Foucault to incorporate knowledge and power dimensions. She provides a definition of discourse as “disciplinary content as well as ways of being and power relations with which a particular discipline is associated” (2004a, p.8). Collins argues that Gee’s understanding of ‘literacy-as-discourse’ requires “the vision of the field-differentiated institutional dynamics, symbolic resources mediating the cultural and economic, and subject-forming socialisation found in the sociological projects of Bernstein and Bourdieu” (2000, p.72). The relevance of the work of Bourdieu and Bernstein to this study is therefore quite clear and will be discussed in Sections 2.6.1 and 2.6.2 respectively.

Furthermore, work conducted under the banner of NLS, such as Gee’s theory of Discourse, is broadly concerned with issues of meaning as they arise in a wide range of contexts. As Stephens (2000) has pointed out, such research tends to give much attention to the literacy practices of everyday life. Street agrees that much NLS work focuses on “everyday meanings and uses of literacy in specific cultural contexts” (2005, p.417). However, this study is located in an educational context, and more specifically in a particular academic discipline. Thus, although NLS and Gee’s theory have also been used to frame work undertaken in educational settings (and have been useful for me in developing an understanding of literacy as more than the use of language, but rather as the ability to participate in the Discourses or ‘ways of being’ associated with particular groups in particular contexts), for the specific purposes of this study I need to explore literature and theory that more narrowly focuses on literacy in academic, and particularly disciplinary, communities and contexts.

In relation to Figure 2.3, NLS and Gee’s work can be said to be located primarily in the first (outermost) layer, whereas this study focuses primarily on the third layer. Additionally, Becher (1989) points to the fragmentation within disciplines, stating that most disciplines comprise a range of ‘sub-specialisms’ which may differ greatly in terms of their methods and approaches – and thus, in relation to this study, in terms of their required literacies.
In the next section, I discuss work on academic literacies generally (level 2) before honing in on academic literacies in the context of specific disciplines (levels 3 and 4).

**2.5. Academic literacies**

As mentioned in the previous section, NLS has tended to give much attention to literacy in everyday contexts. However, the specialised literacy practices of higher education settings are quite different from those of everyday life, as indicated in Section 2.2. Thus, while literacy involves “knowing how to speak and act in a discourse”, academic literacy involves “knowing how to speak and act in academic discourses” (Boughey, 2000, p.281, emphasis added).

The area of study known as ‘academic literacies’ developed in the mid-1990s (Lea, 2004). Academic literacies may be described as a field of enquiry that constitutes a specific epistemology (literacy as social practice) and ideology (transformation), and that draws on NLS, critical discourse studies and the sociology of knowledge (Lillis & Scott, 2007). Its close association with NLS means that academic literacies research is generally qualitative and ethnographic, uses language-based methodologies, and has been conducted in a variety of settings (Lea, 2004). While Lillis and Scott argue that an academic literacies approach privileges practice over text, the literature reflects a tendency to use the term to refer to “reading/writing/texts in academic contexts” (2007, p.7).
This may be because the model upon which academic literacies research is based has its origins in work on student writing. Lea & Street (1998, 2006) outline three overlapping models for conceptualising student writing and literacy in educational settings:

- the **study skills** model views literacy as an individual and cognitive skill that can be transferred from context to context;
- the **academic socialisation** model views literacy as socialisation into (relatively stable) subject or disciplinary communities, discourses and genres;
- the **academic literacies** model is similar to, but extends, the academic socialisation model in that it “foregrounds the institutional nature of what counts as knowledge in any particular academic context” and views literacy acquisition as “more complex, dynamic, nuanced, situated, and involving both epistemological issues and social processes, including power relations among people, institutions, and social identities” (2006, p.369).

While the academic socialisation model relates to disciplinary communities and discourses, its assumption that these are relatively stable is problematic. Viewing them as such is likely to result in taken-for-granted and uncontested understandings of these communities and discourses, with socialisation into them that amounts to nothing more than uncritical assimilation. However, as mentioned in Section 2.4.1, disciplinary communities and discourses are not static, but evolve over time; this may be due to contestations over what should be accepted as their ‘legitimate’ norms and conventions. Because it adopts a more nuanced and critical view and conceptualises literacy as encompassing both social and knowledge dimensions, it is the academic literacies model that is most pertinent to this study. However, with the study skills and academic socialisation models currently dominant in higher education (Lea & Street, 2006), the status of the academic literacies model is oppositional. In order to transcend this status, it needs to move beyond its oppositional frame (i.e. critiquing dominant conceptualisations and practices) towards a design frame that is able to inform theory and practice by showing how we might “enact understandings generated from an academic literacies’ stance within disciplinary areas of the curriculum in higher education more broadly” (Lillis, 2003, p.195).

Because of their specific, ideologically based and contextualised nature, literacy practices should always be understood as contested and complex – which is why there might exist a lack of shared understanding between academics and students as to the nature of academic discourse and a mismatch between the purposes of literacy activity as defined by academics, the institution and students (Haggis, 2003). Such a mismatch or lack of shared understanding may account in part for the criticism that is often levelled at students related to low motivation, lack of study or other skills, inappropriate approaches to learning and lack of proficiency in writing or language (Smart, Kelley & Conant, 1999; Parker, 2002; McKenna, 2004b; Boughey, 2008). Scott et al
report that “there is a body of opinion in the academic community that a significant proportion of the intake are not fit to be in higher education” (2007, p.11). Studies undertaken at two South African universities confirm this viewpoint – in both studies, “there was a strong tendency for the lecturers to ‘blame’ students for failure” (Fraser & Killen, 2005, p.33). However, Haggis (2004) indicates that an ‘academic literacies’ approach sees such assumptions as problematic, and argues for a shift from deficit models to context-specific investigations of pedagogical and discursive practices, as will be undertaken in this study.

A criticism of academic literacies research is that it has tended to focus primarily on student writing and on non-traditional students, thus masking the broader relevance of findings for ‘mainstream’ higher education teaching and learning (Lea, 2004). The focus on non-traditional students also carries the danger of recreating a study skills or deficit model (Lea & Street, 1998, in Lea, 2004). In this study, as previously outlined, I consider academic literacies in Marketing to be broader than writing, in line with Gee’s notion of Discourse or ‘ways of being’. Additionally, while participants in this study included both traditional and non-traditional students, the majority were registered on ‘mainstream’ programmes.

Although an understanding of ‘literacy as access to Discourse’ signifies more than being able to read and write (Barton, 2001), in the ‘academic literacies’ literature much attention has been given to student writing (Lea, 2004; Lillis & Scott, 2007), as indicated above. This may be due to the importance of writing as a literacy practice and dominant assessment tool in higher education (Hewings, 2001; Lillis, 2001; Richardson, 2004; Hussein, 2005). Because it is often via writing that students demonstrate “alignment with the discourses and content” of subjects (Richardson, 2004, p.518), their performance on academic writing tasks determines whether they pass or fail courses (Lillis, 2001). Thus it can be said that writing plays a gate-keeping function in higher education.

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31 Warren (2002, pp.86-87, cited in Van Schalkwyk, 2008, p.49) offers the following differentiation between ‘traditional’ and ‘non-traditional’ students: traditional students are those who “enter university shortly after completing their secondary education, and who, owing to their prior socialisation, schooling and attainment, are relatively well-prepared for academic study”; non-traditional students are those who “are far more mixed in terms of age and educational, class, cultural and linguistic background”.

32 Only one of the nine student participants in this study was registered on an access programme in the Faculty of Management Studies. This is in line with the focus of the study on mainstream teaching and learning.

33 Therefore, although this study adopts a wider understanding of academic literacies as enabling participation in the Discourse or ‘ways of being’ of a discipline, it is unavoidable that a review of the academic literacies literature will devote considerable attention to academic writing.
Notwithstanding the prevalent focus on academic writing in academic literacies research, there are moves in the field towards addressing this bias. One emergent strand of interest is concerned with disciplinary practices and conventions and the implications of these for “student participation and access to dominant academic practices and genres” (Lillis & Scott, 2007, p.18). This may be because disciplines are considered to be “critical centres of meaning” (Clark, 1989, p.7).

2.5.1. Discipline-specific academic literacies

The importance of engaging in discipline-specific research and developing discipline-specific strategies relating to students’ acquisitions of academic literacies has been advocated by several authors (see, for example, Hewings, 2001; Lillis, 2001; Parker, 2002; McKenna, 2004b; Zhu, 2004a; Boughhey, 2005; Goodier & Parkinson, 2005; Hussein, 2005; Jacobs, 2005; Wingate, 2006; Duff, 2007; Paxton, 2007). This is because the Discourses of different disciplines differ according to the ‘meanings’, values and beliefs inherent to them. In other words, it is not just ‘writing’ or ‘reading’ as two distinct and generic language skills that are at issue here – as so many students and lecturers assume. Instead, disciplinary communities “bestow meaning, legitimacy and appropriacy on discourse forms” (Hyland, 1998, p.448; see also Richardson, 2004).

Jacobs thus defines academic literacies as “the fluent control and mastery of the discipline specific norms, values and conventions for reading and writing as a means of exploring and constructing knowledge in HE” (2005, p.485, emphasis added) and asserts that “social practices in general – and literacy practices in particular – are often very different across disciplines” (2005, p.484). Goodier and Parkinson (2005, p.75) agree that academic literacy is “always discipline specific” and Braine states that “separate disciplines are singular discourse communities with their own writing conventions” (1995, p.114). Facilitating epistemological access must thus move beyond providing a set of a-social, a-cultural skills and strategies, towards engaging with the content and ways of knowledge construction in particular disciplines (Boughhey, 2005), as well as with students’ identities (De Kadt & Mathonsi, 2003; McKenna, 2004b; Boughhey, 2008). We thus need to analyse what discourse practices are expected of students in particular disciplines in order for them to succeed in those disciplines (McKenna, 2004a). Parker feels that it is crucial for every discipline to participate in “modeling its processes – of how the subject area is engaged with and the range of effects of that engagement” (2002, p.384). This is important because many students do not develop the sound academic foundations that are required to facilitate depth of understanding in their disciplines (Scott et al, 2007). As noted in Chapter 1, Pearse & Amos (2000) call specifically for research to investigate academic literacy in management disciplines.
The generic and decontextualised nature of most academic literacy courses in South Africa suggests an autonomous view of literacy (Jacobs, 2005). In contrast, and in line with a view of literacy as social practices embedded in context and as ideological, the position taken in this study is that each discipline has its own norms, values and literacy practices (McKenna, 2004b).

One implication of this is that students have to learn to negotiate diverse, and sometimes contradictory, academic cultures (Haggis, 2003). This point is particularly pertinent in the context of this study. As outlined in Chapter 1, at UKZN Marketing is offered as an elective major in general Commerce and Social Science degrees in which students typically take modules from a range of disciplines which are offered by different faculties. Yet even disciplines within the same faculty reflect fundamental differences in terms of their epistemological and social conventions (Lung, 2008). As Zhu (2004b) has pointed out, the variance among different business disciplines means that each of these disciplines can be viewed as constituting a different discourse community.

A second implication is that students will best acquire ‘academic literacy’ when it is embedded within particular disciplines (Jacobs, 2005). As ‘insiders’, mainstream subject lecturers are a part of the discourse community of their discipline and are best placed to induct students into this community by modelling appropriate disciplinary practices.

However, this is complicated by the frequent lack of explicitness within mainstream teaching of the literacy norms of specific subjects (Christie, 2001; McKenna, 2004b; Richardson, 2004; Jacobs, 2005; Morrow, 2009). In part, this may be due to the fact that most academics, as subject specialists whose primary concern is course content (Lea, 2004), are not very knowledgeable in teaching and learning matters (Jacobs, 2005; Jansen, 2011). Also contributing to this lack of explicitness is the tacit nature of lecturers’ disciplinary practices, knowledge and discourses (Russell, 1997; Graff, 2002; Hussein, 2005). Unlocking the tacit knowledge that academics have of the discourses of their disciplines can thus facilitate more effective teaching (Jacobs, 2005).

Habits of thinking and writing, which are so familiar to academics that they hardly recognise them, often seem counter-intuitive to students; the most productive way to help students deal with these, therefore, is to identify and discuss them – otherwise students are in effect “forced to play the academic game with one hand tied behind their backs” (Graff, 2002, p.37). Indeed, research investigating the high dropout rate at South African universities revealed that one contributing factor to this problem was that students “struggled to ‘think’ in their chosen fields of study”, and that they were not adequately supported academically to address this or to ‘fit in’ to the

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34 Later in this chapter, the contribution that LCT can make in this regard will be specified.
institutional and disciplinary cultures (Letseka, 2009). While all students will benefit from making the demands of academic discourse explicit (Hewings & Hewings, 2001), this is especially important for students who have been poorly prepared for higher education. Not helping such students with academic discourse “is simply to leave a power vacuum and thereby reward privileged students who have already learned academic discourse at home or in school – or at least learned the roots or propensity for academic discourse” (Elbow, 1991, p.135).

Very often, however, “lecturers expect students to come onto campus and know what the deal is” (Soudien, 2009). In other words, lecturers may view academic literacy as a starting point for, rather than as a goal of, university study (Bock, 1988). Perhaps this helps to explain why lecturers often tend to see the development of students’ academic literacy skills as somebody else’s responsibility (Lea, 2004; Jackson et al, 2006; Mohamed & Banda, 2008; Thomson, 2008). However, Zhu (2004a) asserts that because much writing happens in content courses, and because ‘mainstream’ student profiles are changing, the responsibility for improving academic literacy skills needs to be extended to mainstream lecturers – making it important to examine their views on academic literacy and their role in literacy instruction. Scott et al (2007) agree that ‘mainstream educational development’ is crucial to improving higher education performance and output in South Africa and others have supported the call for academic development to be “infused in mainstream academic teaching” (Smit, 2010, p.5). Mainstream subject lecturers have three roles to play in this regard: “lending the capacity to participate in meaning, designing well planned excursions into unfamiliar discursive terrain and coaching students in speaking the academic discourse” (Northedge, 2003, p.169).

However, being able to undertake these roles effectively rests on an understanding of what legitimate participation in the Discourse of a discipline entails – and what literacies are required in order to enable this participation - a question that is central to this study. With regard to Marketing, one broad example of what may be required arises in several studies in both the marketing practice and Marketing education literatures, which have pointed to the importance of written communication skills for marketing practitioners and Marketing students (Gray et al, 2002; Stringfellow et al, 2006; Melaia et al, 2008; Treleaven & Voola, 2008).

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35 This finding was presented at a seminar entitled ‘Why do university students drop out?’, which was delivered by Moeketsi Letseka of the University of South Africa (UNISA) at UKZN’s Howard College campus, on 20 March 2009.

36 This statement was made at a public lecture entitled ‘The state of transformation in South African higher education’, which was delivered by Professor Crain Soudien of the University of Cape Town (UCT) at UKZN’s Westville campus, on 30 June 2009.
Of particular relevance to this study, research undertaken in the Faculty of Management Studies at UKZN (Goodier & Parkinson, 2005) revealed that third-year students (such as those participating in this study) are expected to engage in much more writing than students in earlier years of study (in which multiple-choice assessments tend to be more prevalent). Table 2.2 provides an overview of the extent of the increase in writing tasks across the years of study in the Faculty, as well as an indication of the genres of writing tasks set.

Table 2.2: Written genre types set for undergraduate students, Faculty of Management Studies, UKZN, 2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR OF STUDY</th>
<th>FIRST YEAR</th>
<th>SECOND YEAR</th>
<th>THIRD YEAR</th>
<th>TOTAL OF WRITING TASKS SET (BY GENRE TYPE)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Research paper/project</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Report</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summaries of readings</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL OF WRITING TASKS SET (BY YEAR)</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from Goodier & Parkinson (2005, p.68)

Given the substantial increase in writing in the third year of study, the Faculty is keen to explore ways of developing student writing more consistently across all years of its programmes within mainstream modules in the various disciplines. Writing practices in the disciplines are thus becoming a focus of attention; for example, in 2010, the Faculty hosted a workshop on Writing Intensive Teaching.

As indicated in Chapter 1, The Writing Place is one of the primary initiatives in place in the Faculty to help students develop their writing in its constituent disciplines. Indeed, writing centres are “a main form of support” in South Africa (Lillis, 2001, p.22). According to Lillis (2001), this sort of institutional response indicates a particular theory of language and frame of reference, characterised by three things:

- the construction of the problem and solution as textual rather than related more broadly to issues of contexts, participants and practices – hence a focus on developing writing outside mainstream disciplinary modules;
- the ‘institutional claim to transparency’, where “whilst the language of students is made visible and problematised, the language of the disciplines and the pedagogic practices in which these are embedded usually remains invisible, taken as ‘given’” (p.22);
- the perception that the problem, being textually based, is simple to identify and resolve.

To the aforementioned might be added a fourth characteristic: the assumption that the problem lies within the student.
While I do not believe that this frame of reference underpins The Writing Place, the location of this support outside students’ mainstream disciplinary modules does present some challenges in terms of facilitating students’ acquisition of discipline-specific academic literacies, as indicated in Chapter 1.

In their study, Goodier and Parkinson (2005) noted that two types of genre are set for students in the Faculty: a general academic genre (represented by the research essay/paper/project, which Table 2.2 reveals is the prevalent genre type set in the Faculty), and business genres that are specific to management studies disciplines (represented by the report and case study). Following his study of writing in a range of disciplines in a business faculty in the USA, Zhu noted that business genres are oriented towards decision making, problem solving and team work; require students to take on business roles and write for a business audience (while simultaneously demonstrating learning to an academic audience); involve the synthesis, analysis, application and evaluation of a range of information sources; and require strong persuasive and rhetorical skills (2004b). However, the existence of different disciplinary preferences (in terms of problem-solving and decision-making tools and information sources) led Zhu to suggest that “business’ may not constitute a single and unified discourse community” (2004b, p.131) - a suggestion that has been supported by other authors (for example Brown, 1997; Ottewill et al, 2005). As previously mentioned, this study views Marketing as a Discourse community in its own right.

As noted in the previous section, the work done under the umbrella of ‘academic literacies’ is of use to this study, but also poses some limitations. While it does bring the focus more onto academic settings and on disciplines - which is in line with the interests of this study - the main focus is still on meaning (and especially on writing) within the context of disciplines, rather than on the disciplines themselves. As indicated earlier, for the purposes of this study, it is necessary for me to show how Marketing operates as a discipline. Important in this regard is to explore what influence the form or structure of knowledge underpinning Marketing might have on lecturers’ and students’ practices. An academic literacies framework does not allow for this sort of exploration. However, Legitimation Code Theory, which focuses on the study of knowledge and education and which has been applied extensively in disciplinary settings, does enable this work to be done, and will thus be discussed in the next section.

2.6. Legitimation Code Theory (LCT)
Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) has been described as “a development in the study of knowledge and education” that provides a toolkit for analysing socio-cultural practices along a number of dimensions, which provide “the organising principles underlying practices and their contexts” (www.karlmaton.com, 2011). Maton states that his framework “both offers a social
realist approach to education…and bridges a divide between what Basil Bernstein describes as analyses of ‘relations to’ and ‘relations within’ education” (2010a, p.35).

As previously indicated, LCT builds on concepts developed by Bourdieu and Bernstein (whose work can be described as focusing primarily on ‘relations to’ and ‘relations within’ knowledge respectively). Because their work is integrated into Maton’s theory, which is discussed in Section 2.6.3, at this stage I provide only a brief and broad overview of those concepts from the theories of Bourdieu and Bernstein that are most relevant to LCT and/or to this specific study.

2.6.1. Bourdieu’s ‘field’ theory
Bourdieu views society as being made up of a number of “relatively autonomous ‘worlds’” (1994, p.73) or overlapping social fields of practice, which have structuring effects on their members’ dispositions, beliefs and practices (Maton, 2003). Of relevance to this study, as noted earlier in this chapter, is that disciplines may be viewed as fields. For Freebody et al disciplines are “social fields of practice comprising both relatively formal structures of knowledge and practices, and actors who share interests and norms (whether explicit or tacit) of knowledge production and communication” (2008, p.191). Disciplinary fields can thus be said to comprise both knowledge and knowers.

Grenfell and James state that “(w)hat is thinkable and unthinkable, expressible and inexpressible, and valued or not, is the product of the field structures within which they arise and the principles of legitimation operating there. This legitimation establishes an orthodoxy - or doxa” (2004, p.509; emphasis in original). Thus each field has a doxa, a “set of core values and discourses” which it “articulates as its fundamental principles and which tend to be viewed as inherently true and necessary” (Webb et al, 2002, p.xi).

Applying Bourdieu’s concept of field to this study therefore enables Marketing to be viewed as a relatively autonomous sphere of activity that operates according to its own structure and logic (Albert, 2002; Maton, 2005b), with implications for insiders (and for outsiders wanting to become insiders). This will be discussed further in Chapter 6.

Bourdieu’s framework can be represented by the following formula, which contains a number of ‘inter-defined’ concepts (Maton, 2005a, 2008b):

$$[(\text{habitus}) \ (\text{capital})] + \text{field} = \text{practice}$$

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37 Social realism is discussed in Chapter 3.
A field comprises agents who are relationally positioned and who try to maximise their position in the field by engaging in struggles over resources (capital) that confer status and authority. The relation between these positions gives the structure of the field. Both the type (e.g. economic, cultural) and the amount of capital are important in conferring status within a field – it is not just how much capital you have, but also whether you have the right type of capital. Thus, struggles in a field are not just about amassing more capital, but also about contestations over what type of capital should be considered the ‘dominant measure of achievement’ in the field (Maton, 2005a). This raises the question of how the status of different types of capital in a field is determined, and speaks back to the question raised in Section 2.4.1 of what influences what is considered to be ‘legitimate’ in the Discourse of Marketing – something that will be addressed using Maton’s theory of legitimation, to be outlined in Section 2.6.3.

Both externally-oriented and internally-oriented principles impact on the hierarchy of positions within a field. Thus status in a field can be linked to field-specific capital, as well as to capital that has broader currency outside the field. How, and to what extent, external forces impact on a field is mediated by the degree of autonomy of the field and the internal structure of the field (Maton, 2005a). Some of the external forces that impact on Marketing emanate from the business world, government and higher education, and will be explored in Chapters 4 and 5.

Habitus can be understood as “the semi-conscious dispositions that people, particularly in their early lives, acquire through social/material interaction with their habitat and through the social relations in their part of the social field” (Fairclough et al., 2001, p.9). Maton describes habitus as a “structured and structuring structure” (2005a, p.39) – structured because it is the result of past conditioning, and structuring because it plays a role in shaping current practices. Importantly, Fairclough et al. assert that habitus lends “differing capacities to deal with and learn new discourses” (2001, p.9). Habitus can thus be seen as mediating between structures and practices (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990).

Bourdieu’s concepts allow for fields (such as Marketing) to be viewed as relatively autonomous, relational, and dynamic arenas of struggle. However, in focusing on social relations of power, Bourdieu’s framework allows for analysis of how agents are differentially positioned in relation to knowledge but not for analysis of relations within knowledge (Bernstein, 1990). In other words, it does not enable analysis of the structure of knowledge itself, and how the structure of knowledge may act upon the field and its members (Maton, 2005a). For insight into this aspect, which is necessary for this study, it is to the work of Bernstein that I turn.

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38 Some may argue that ‘much’ capital implies ‘right’ capital i.e. capital is not capital unless it is the right type of capital.
2.6.2. Bernstein’s theory of codes, the pedagogic device and knowledge structures

Bernstein’s theoretical framework foregrounds knowledge as an object of study (Maton, 2009). Baldwin states that the theoretical tools developed by Bernstein and social realist theorists allow one to address “the constructed and constructing nature of knowledge” and proposes that relationships with knowledge “are not only concerned with the knower’s subjective experience; they also reflect the way in which aspects of the engagement with knowledge are, or may be viewed to be, contingent upon the characteristics of the knowledge itself” (2010, p.83, emphasis in original).

Bernstein’s work on codes, the pedagogic device and knowledge structures can be used to show how the “structuring of intellectual and educational knowledge specialise actors and discourses in ways that shape social relations, institutional organisation, disciplinary and curricular change, identity, consciousness and habitus” (Maton, 2007, p.87). Central to this work are the concepts of classification and framing.

Classification and framing

Bernstein’s (1996) concepts of classification and framing can be used to analyse power and control relationships in pedagogic contexts. Classification relates to the way in which knowledge is organised and the extent to which a category of knowledge is able to insulate itself from other categories of knowledge. It thus has to do with the strength of boundaries between different categories of knowledge, where stronger classification (+C) refers to stronger boundaries and weaker classification (-C) to weaker boundaries. In the context of this study, these boundaries could be between academic and everyday knowledge of Marketing, between Marketing and other disciplines in the degrees in which Marketing is offered as a major and between different subjects within the Marketing discipline. Framing relates to the locus of control over communication between transmitters and acquirers of knowledge (such as Marketing lecturers and students) with regard to how knowledge is selected, sequenced, paced and evaluated, as well as its social base. Stronger framing (+F) signifies control by transmitters, while weaker framing (-F) signifies (apparent) control by acquirers (Bernstein, 1996). Thus classification and framing can be said to relate to what is to be transmitted and how it is to be transmitted and acquired, respectively. Geirsdottir shows how the use of the classification and framing concepts enables an analysis of a curriculum’s local pedagogic discourse by capturing “structures and modes that are specific within the context of the disciplinary curriculum at a specific time and place” (2008a, p.18).
The pedagogic device

While Bernstein’s work on codes conceptualises the principles that structure practices, his work on the pedagogic device conceptualises how these principles are created, transformed and reproduced (Maton, 2005a).

The pedagogic device is a concept developed by Bernstein that allows for analysis of the process whereby knowledge is translated into curriculum and then into pedagogy (Luckett, 2010b). In other words, it relates to how meaning is recontextualised from esoteric knowledge into a more ‘digestible’ form suitable for educational purposes and settings. The device comprises three fields of practice: a field of production, where new knowledge is created; a field of recontextualisation, where this knowledge is transformed into curriculum; and a field of reproduction, where the curriculum knowledge is taught and evaluated. Often, these three fields represent different sites: for example knowledge may be produced in universities, recontextualised into curriculum by government education departments and reproduced in schools. In this study, however, the focus is on production, recontextualisation and reproduction as represented in university settings and academics thus have roles to play in all three fields of practice. Also, as will be discussed in Section 2.6.3, understandings of what counts as legitimate knowledge (in the field of production) influences curriculum design (in the field of recontextualisation) and pedagogical practices (in the field of reproduction). Thus, all three fields are of some relevance to this study. However, the primary focus of this study is on the field of reproduction. Table 2.3 indicates that this involves analysis of pedagogic and assessment practices in the discipline of Marketing. Therefore, in this study, the pedagogic device has been used as a ‘locating device’.

Table 2.3: The arena of the pedagogic device

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field of practice</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Symbolic structure</th>
<th>Main types</th>
<th>Typical sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Production</td>
<td>Distributive rules</td>
<td>Knowledge structure</td>
<td>Hierarchical/ horizontal knowledge structures</td>
<td>Research publications, conferences, laboratories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recontextualisation</td>
<td>Recontextualising rules</td>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>Collection/ integrated codes</td>
<td>Curriculum policy documents, textbooks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reproduction</td>
<td>Evaluative rules</td>
<td>Pedagogy and evaluation</td>
<td>Visible/ invisible pedagogic codes</td>
<td>Classrooms, assessment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Luckett (2010b, p.13, adapted from Maton & Muller, 2007)

Importantly, the structure of knowledge in the field of production influences what type of curriculum is created in the field of recontextualisation (and thus what type of pedagogy manifests in the field of reproduction). For example, Luckett outlines how it is probable that when knowledge

39 Beck (2010) notes that collection/integrated codes have been replaced by singulars/regions. These are outlined later in the chapter.
with a horizontal knowledge structure and a weak grammar based on a knower code is transformed into curriculum, “it will accord greater space to the interests, dispositions and social position of the knower...thus, allowing more discursive space for the cultural arbitrary and ideology to play” (2010b, p.18). These and other knowledge structures identified by Bernstein will now be outlined.

**Knowledge structures**

Bernstein’s later work on knowledge structures is particularly relevant to this study. In this work, he focuses on how knowledge is organised in different fields, and how the structure of these different knowledge forms impacts on the shaping of educational contexts and the production of identities (Collins, 2000; Doherty, 2010).

Bernstein differentiates between two forms of discourse: horizontal and vertical.\(^{40}\) *Horizontal discourse* refers to common-sense, everyday, segmentally organised knowledge that is “likely to be oral, local, context dependent and specific, tacit, multi-layered, and contradictory across but not within contexts” (Bernstein, 1999, p.159). Whereas horizontal discourse tends to be acquired in everyday settings and emphasises the acquisition of common competence, such as the ability to tie one’s shoelaces, *vertical discourse* tends to be acquired in formal pedagogical contexts and emphasises graded performance (Bernstein, 1999; Doherty, 2010). Vertical discourse refers to scholarly, educational or official knowledge, such as “theoretical bodies of knowledge organised in disciplinary fields” (Wheelahan, 2006, no page). The academic discipline of Marketing is thus an example of vertical discourse.

However, there is likely to be some interplay between horizontal and vertical discourse in Marketing, as students and lecturers may draw on their everyday knowledge of marketing based on their perspectives and experiences as consumers. Doherty’s study of lectures in Business Studies reveals how horizontal discourse (in the form of personal anecdotal knowledge from the lecturer, students and case studies) is used to exemplify and elaborate on theories from vertical discourse and becomes “legitimate grist for the curriculum” (2010, p.255). Although this sort of drawing on horizontal discourse is probably true of lectures in a variety of disciplines, Doherty claims that:

> Business Studies, more than any other academic fields, has attracted international enrolments and has an intrinsic interest in drawing students’ knower-mode knowledges into the curriculum to supplement the vertical technical discourse of the discipline. This has fostered a more interactive, multimodal and multivocal genre of lecture premised on a marked degree

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\(^{40}\) Diaz (2001, p.86) offers the following explanation of Bernstein’s use of ‘discourse’: “Discourse is a crucial field for struggles, territorialising and deterritorialising meanings and their realizations. Discourse is not words but structured/structuring devices for positioning subjects”. 
of parity between lecturer and student as knowers who can contribute to the curriculum.

(2010, p.257)

The extent to which this claim may be represented in the Marketing discipline at UKZN will be explored in Chapter 5.

Within vertical discourse, Bernstein differentiates between hierarchical and horizontal knowledge structures. A *hierarchical knowledge structure* is a hierarchically organised “coherent, explicit and systematically principled structure” (Bernstein, 1999, p.159). Represented by the symbol for a triangle (∆), and exemplified by Physics, this knowledge form is based on an ‘integrating’ code and progresses via theory development by integrating knowledge at lower levels towards greater abstraction and generalisation (Bernstein, 1999). For example, physicists are working towards “the ultimate law that explains the universe” (Bertram, 2008, p.52). A *horizontal knowledge structure*, by contrast, “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). Its visual representation ($L_1 \ L_2 \ L_3 \ L_4 \ L_5 \ L_6 \ L_7 \ldots L_n$) shows that it is based on a ‘collection’ or ‘serial’ code and that development occurs through introducing a new language or perspective (Bernstein, 1999), as is the case in the Social Sciences. In the Marketing literature, references to “additions of marketing schools” (Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006, p.371) and “specialised silos within marketing” (Bauerly et al, in Bolton, 2005, p.20) indicate that the discipline of Marketing is an example of a horizontal knowledge structure. The introduction of a new language in Marketing is exemplified by the emergence of the ‘relationship marketing’ school of thought which focuses on relational dimensions of marketing (in contrast to the earlier non-interaction and transactional schools), and which has been described as a “new paradigm of marketing utterly different from the traditional marketing theories” (Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006, p.375). Bernstein (1999) states that managing a range of languages, each with its own procedures, makes the acquisition of horizontal knowledge structures difficult. In addition, he contends that recognising and constructing ‘legitimate texts’ is more tacit and problematic in horizontal knowledge structures; this may be because in such structures, truth relates to an ‘acquired gaze’, and also because it is difficult to maintain separation from horizontal or everyday discourse. He asserts that this is especially so for horizontal knowledge structures with weak grammars (see below), such as Marketing.

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41 Gaze is “a particular mode of recognising and realising what counts as an 'authentic' sociological reality” (Bernstein, 1999, p.165). Breier further explains Bernstein’s understanding of ‘gaze’ as “the perspective of expert or transmitter, transmitted tacitly to acquirers, which enables the recognition and realization of phenomena of legitimate concern to a discipline or field of education or of practice” (2004b, p.213, citing Bernstein, 1999).
Horizontal knowledge structures can be further differentiated in terms of having either strong or weak grammars (Bernstein, 1999). Grammar can be described as the degree to which the concepts of a knowledge structure “can be operationalised to provide relatively precise and consistent empirical descriptions that allow the knowledge to be tested and confirmed or disconfirmed empirically, thus contributing to the rational progression of that knowledge form” (Luckett, 2010b, p.14). Thus, a horizontal knowledge structure with a strong grammar (such as Economics) advances rationally by integrating old theories into new theories that can be empirically tested, while a horizontal knowledge structure with a weak grammar (such as Sociology) advances ideologically through critique and power (Luckett, 2010b, citing Maton & Muller, 2007). Morais asserts that the reason Science educators are more willing to accept Psychology knowledge than Sociology knowledge as a grounding for Science education relates to the latter’s weak grammar, which leads to Sociology being viewed as “very ‘loose’, poorly conceptualised and unable to help them with their research and practice” (2001, p.2). Similar perceptions exist about Marketing. The discipline has been characterised as ‘descriptive and qualitative’ – although it has tried to “reinvent itself as a rigorous and, therefore, acceptable discipline” by embracing quantification (Easton, 2002, p.103) – and research-based Marketing knowledge has been said to be of little practical usefulness to marketing practitioners (Ottesen & Gronhauug, 2004). Marketing can thus be described as exhibiting a relatively weak grammar, although it aspires to a strong grammar.

Disciplines can also be described as singulars or regions. Singulars may be seen as “the traditional ‘pure’ academic disciplines” (Beck & Young, 2005, p.185). While singulars face inwards and address themselves, regions (which involve the recontextualising of a number of singulars) face both inwards (to their constituent singulars) and outwards (to fields of practice) (Bernstein, 1996). Marketing may be described as a region because, having drawing from core disciplines such as Economics, Psychology and Anthropology (Rust, 2006), it has been involved in recontextualising singulars. Furthermore, ‘business studies’ (which includes Marketing) has been described as a ‘contemporary’ region (Beck & Young, 2005). This has implications for identity formation in Marketing, as Bernstein (1996) argues that ‘new’ regions are more likely to produce projected identities that depend on the fields of practice that they face. There are also repercussions in terms of the status of the discipline, which will be discussed in Chapters 5 and 6.

In summary, the academic discipline of Marketing can be classified as a vertical discourse with a horizontal knowledge structure and a weak grammar. It can also be described as a region.

Bernstein’s work on knowledge structures has been criticised for presenting these structures as “dichotomous ideal types whose differences are too strongly drawn” (Maton, 2009, p.45). His
framework thus requires further conceptual development (Muller, 2007, in Maton, 2009), which involves theorising “the underlying principles generating discourses, knowledge structures, curriculum structures and forms of learning” (Maton, 2009, p.45). This conceptual development is undertaken in Maton’s Legitimation Code Theory.

### 2.6.3. Maton’s Legitimation Code Theory (LCT)

In his study of the field of higher education, Maton (2005a) borrows from Bourdieu the idea of relatively autonomous fields of practice comprising relationally positioned agents engaged in struggles over resources; from Bernstein, he borrows the tools that enable the structures underlying these fields and struggles to be conceptualised. However, while Bernstein’s work allows for an analysis of how knowledge is specialised, Maton’s work extends this by developing a framework whereby knowers can be specialised (Carvalho & Dong, 2008).

Furthermore, Bernstein’s concept of the pedagogic device focuses on pedagogic discourse rather than the construction of new knowledge (Maton, 2005a). To address this, Maton developed the concepts of ‘specialisation codes’ and the ‘epistemic device’, thus enabling higher education to be conceptualised as both an educational field and an intellectual field. According to Maton “the epistemic device is intended to complement rather than replace the pedagogic device and to do so for all practices, not just for knowledge production” (2005a, p.53, emphasis in original). It might therefore be more useful to refer to an ‘epistemic-pedagogic device’ (Maton, 2005a). The pedagogic and epistemic devices can be seen as representing “two facets of a more complex and overarching device” – the legitimation device (Maton, 2005a, p.82).

According to Maton, analyzing something (such as the discipline of Marketing) as a relatively autonomous field:

> highlights the significance of the viewpoints and practices of participants within the field; these are understood here as embodying languages of legitimation. That is, the ways in which participants represent themselves and the field in their beliefs and practices are understood as embodying claims for knowledge, status, and resources. These languages of legitimation may be explicit (such as claims made when advocating a position) or tacit (routinised or institutionalised practices). All practices (or ‘position-takings’) thereby embody messages as to what should be considered legitimate. I conceptualise these messages as articulating principles of legitimation which set out ways of conceiving the field and thus propose both rulers for participation within its struggles and criteria by which achievement or success should be measured. The ‘settings’ or modalities of these principles of legitimation are regulated by the legitimation device.

(2005a, p.83, emphasis in original)
In this study, the languages of legitimation embodied in the Marketing literature gives insight into what is considered legitimate in the academic discipline of Marketing in general. In the specific context of UKZN, these languages of legitimation arise in the viewpoints and beliefs of participants expressed during interviews and in documents that are used as an indicator of practices (or ‘position-takings’) in the discipline.

In controlling legitimacy in a field, the legitimation device may be viewed as the underlying generative principle which is the basis for creating, reproducing, and transforming that field. Control of the device enables one to make dominant in the field those principles of legitimation that fit with their own practices and attributes and that will entrench their status and authority in the field, thereby “hierarchically structuring relations between positions within the field” (Maton, 2005a, p.84).

The legitimation device comprises five dimensions of legitimation; four of these (Autonomy, Density, Specialisation and Temporality) were included in the original formulation of the device and one (Semantics) was added later (Maton, 2010b). These dimensions are built on the concepts of classification and framing which were developed by Bernstein (as described earlier). Each dimension can be set to different modalities, which in combination form the legitimation code (Maton, 2005a). All five dimensions are now outlined. Because Chapter 4 includes an analysis of the discipline of Marketing using these dimensions of legitimation, in this section I focus on simply outlining the dimensions without making reference to Marketing.

**Specialisation**

Specialisation addresses the basis of differentiation in a field. Fields differ in terms of what they consider to be legitimate bases for membership, authority, achievement and status. This dimension is thus of great relevance to this study, as it enables insight into what is considered legitimate in the Discourse of Marketing and thus what is necessary in order to gain epistemological access to the discipline.42

While Bernstein shows how knowledge is specialised in different fields, Maton extends this by positing that intellectual fields can be specialised both in terms of knowledge and knowers, because “for every knowledge structure, there is also a knower structure” (Maton, 2007, p.88). He thus develops the concept of ‘knowledge-knower structures’.

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42 Accordingly, while the LCT analysis of Marketing presented in Chapter 4 draws on all five dimensions, greater attention is given to Specialisation given its particular relevance to one of the study’s research questions.
Maton asserts that “in vertical discourse there is always a hierarchy somewhere” (2010c, p.164; see also Bernstein, 2001; Hugo, 2004), and that the location of this hierarchy is key to how the field develops. He posits that in fields with horizontal knowledge structures (such as Marketing), the hierarchy is located in the knower structure. While fields with hierarchical knowledge structures, such as Physics, develop through verticality (subsuming and integrating knowledge, or building knowledge), those with horizontal knowledge structures (and thus hierarchical knower structures), such as Marketing, develop through sociality (subsuming and integrating habituses, or building knowers). According to Maton (2007), it is what is hierarchical in a field that strongly classifies and frames actors and discourses.

Knower structures can be differentiated according to the degree of sociality, which indicates whether they develop via “integration or accumulation of habituses” (Maton, 2010c, p.164). Bernstein states that for horizontal knowledge structures, and especially those with weak grammars (such as Marketing), “truth is a matter of acquired ‘gaze’” (1999, p.165). Maton (2010c) extends the concept of ‘grammar’, that Bernstein applies to knowledge structures, by suggesting ‘knower-grammars’ (strength of social relations). From strongest to weakest, Maton differentiates between the following types of gaze: ‘born’ (which is based on natural or inherited talent), ‘social’ (which is determined by social category or standpoint), ‘cultivated’ (which is socialised or inculcated through education – and thus may be likened to Bernstein’s notion of ‘acquired gaze’) and ‘trained’ (which is acquired through prolonged training). Maton also reveals how “different knowledge structures (the epistemic relations) organise different types of knowers (the social relations) and vice versa” (Doherty, 2010, p.249).

Specialisation comprises two aspects: the epistemic relations to the knowledge structure and the social relations to the knower structure (Maton, 2007).

- The epistemic relations (ER) refers to the relations between knowledge and its proclaimed object of study – in other words, what can be legitimately claimed knowledge of, and how (Maton, 2010a);
- the social relations (SR) refers to the relations between knowledge and the subject/author who is making the claim to knowledge – in other words, who can legitimately claim to be producing legitimate knowledge in the field (Maton, 2010a).

Each relation displays relatively weaker (-) or stronger (+) classification (C) and framing (F). In each relation, Maton keeps the strengths of C and F aligned (for example, ER (+C, +F), which condenses to ER+), thus giving rise to four possible specialisation codes, as depicted in Figure 2.4. These codes represent different settings of the epistemic device (Maton, 2007).
The four possible specialisation codes are:

- a *knowledge* code [ER+, SR-], which emphasises “the possession of explicit principles, skills and procedures” (Maton, 2009, p. 46). This code underpins hierarchical knowledge structures. In a knowledge code, what is important is *what* you know and *how*;

- a *knower* code [ER-, SR+], which emphasises knower “attitudes, aptitudes and dispositions” (Maton, 2009, p.46) or gaze, that is, being the right kind of knower. In a knower code, what is important is *who* you are;

- an *elite* code [ER+, SR+], which emphasises “both specialist knowledge and knower dispositions equally” (Maton, 2009, p.46);

- a *relativist* code [ER-, SR-], which emphasises neither specialist knowledge nor knower dispositions (Maton, 2009).

In higher education, the knowledge and knower codes tend to be dominant (Maton, 2005a). Different specialisation codes are associated with different possibilities and constraints; thus the specialisation code underpinning an intellectual field has implications for curriculum and pedagogy. For example, a knower code is likely to generate segmented instead of cumulative knowledge (Maton, 2008a).

In the Faculty of Management Studies at UKZN, as previously noted, Marketing is a major in the Bachelor of Commerce (General) degree in which students are exposed to a range of disciplines from both within and outside the Faculty, which may be underpinned by different specialisation
Students need to be made aware of what the bases for achievement in different disciplines and modules are and what is required of them in order to meet expectations in each discipline.

In addition, Baldwin (2010, pp.137-138) points to the importance of “aligning the dominant code in the curriculum with the code embedded within assessment tasks”. If this does not happen, the result is a ‘code mismatch’ (Maton, 2009), whereby there is an attempt to achieve outcomes associated with one code (e.g. a knowledge code) using means associated with another code (e.g. a knower code).

**Semantics**

In Section 2.6.2, Bernstein’s concepts of verticality and grammaticality were outlined. Verticality was said to relate to the ability of a field to progress through increasing integration, abstraction and generalisation, while grammaticality was said to relate to the ability of a field to gain empirical purchase on its objects of study. Semantics comprises two aspects that allow for “a more fine-grained analysis” of verticality and grammaticality in a field and how they impact on the capacity of the field to build cumulative knowledge (McNamara & Fealy, 2011, no page). These two aspects are:

- **semantic gravity** (SG), which refers to “the degree to which meaning relates to its context” (Maton, 2010b, no page), where SG+ (stronger semantic gravity) signifies greater context-dependence and SG- (weaker semantic gravity) signifies greater abstraction;
- **semantic density** (SD), which refers to “the degree to which meaning is condensed within symbols (terms, concepts, phrases, expressions, gestures, etc)” (Maton, 2010b, no page), where SD+ (stronger semantic density) signifies more condensed meanings and SD- (weaker semantic density) signifies less condensed meanings.

The code modalities of Semantics are shown in Figure 2.5.

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43 The situation is similar for the Marketing students on the Howard College campus, who are registered for general degrees in the Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Sciences.
Maton (2009) states that cumulative learning depends on weaker semantic gravity, while segmented learning is characterised by stronger semantic gravity. However, it is not just the state of ‘stronger’ or ‘weaker’ that is important with regard to this dimension – also of significance to knowledge-building are movements along the continua, which represent the processes of strengthening or weakening semantic gravity and/or density (Maton, 2010b).

**Autonomy**

Autonomy addresses a field’s external relations, or how insulated or different it is from other fields, thereby establishing its status. Higher autonomy has traditionally been associated with higher status. Maton (2005a) distinguishes analytically between positional and relational autonomy.

- **Positional autonomy** (PA) refers to the relations between positions (agents, discourses) inside and outside the field. It has to do with the degree of insulation of the field from external involvement and control (e.g. from government or industry). The question to be asked is who runs the field, and whether they are from within or outside of the field (Maton, 2005b). PA+ signifies stronger external boundaries, and PA- signifies weaker external boundaries. In an academic field, positional autonomy can be understood as academic freedom (McNamara, 2007);

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44 Maton (2010b, no page) states that “SG- is heuristically positioned at the top of the compass (where a ‘+’ sign might be expected) to reflect the tendency to picture such notions as ‘abstract’ or ‘decontextualised’ as higher than ‘concrete’ or ‘contextualised’. Positioning here is not a statement of value”.
- *relational autonomy* (RA) refers to the relations between principles of relation (ways of working) inside and outside the field. It has to do with the locus of control over the ways of working within the field (i.e. whether the ways of working in the field are drawn from inside or outside the field). In this case, the question to be asked is how the field is run i.e. on whose principles or values (Maton, 2005b). RA+ signifies stronger control from inside the field over the ways of working in the field, and RA- signifies weaker control.

Bernstein’s concepts of external classification and framing (C° and F°) – which relate to the strength of external boundaries and to the locus of control across them – are used to give each aspect’s nature in terms of its relative strength (+) or weakness (-). The four possible settings or codes for autonomy are reflected in the following figure.

![Figure 2.6: Autonomy codes](Source: Maton (2005b, p.698))

**Temporality**

Longer established fields with practices influenced by the past have traditionally been associated with higher status. Maton (2005a) identifies the following aspects of temporality:

- *Age* refers to a relational position in a temporal field, from relatively younger (recently formed) to relatively older (long established);
- *orientation* refers to agents’ positions on a temporal field, or the direction faced, which may range from forward-looking to backward-looking
The interaction of the first two aspects gives rise to a third aspect, *rate of change*, which may range from stagnant to rapidly changing. Temporal equivalents of classification and framing (\(C^1\) and \(F^1\)) are used to give the nature of each aspect. The four possible codes relating to temporality are shown in Figure 2.7.

![Figure 2.7: Temporality codes](image)

*Figure 2.7: Temporality codes*

*Source: based on Maton (2005a)*

**Density**

Density addresses a field’s internal relations, or the degree of diversity within the field, and thus relates to issues of “size, quantity and scale” (Maton, 2005a, p.88). Lower density/differentiation (for example, the university as “a small-scale, residential community offering intimate interaction between teachers and taught in the preservation of a single, common culture based on shared social and educational backgrounds”) has traditionally been associated with higher status (Maton, 2005a, pp.88-89). Maton distinguishes between material and moral density. The concepts of internal classification and framing (\(C^1\) and \(F^1\)) are used to give the relative strength or weakness of each aspect.

- **Material density** (MaD) refers to the number of units in a context/category – for example a university’s population, staff to student ratios or disciplinary inputs into curricula (McNamara, 2007) – and signifies how coherent or fragmented the field is in terms of its contents;
- **moral density** (MoD) refers to the number of structuring principles in a field, or how homogenous or heterogeneous the field is in terms of its beliefs, value systems and habituses (McNamara, 2007).
These two aspects impact on a third aspect, differentiation, or the relation between the units in a field. The possible settings for density are reflected in Figure 2.8.

![Figure 2.8: Density codes](source: based on Maton (2005a))

LCT has been used in several empirical studies of educational issues in a variety of disciplines – such as Sociology (Luckett, 2009, 2010a, 2010b), Nursing (McNamara, 2007, 2010a, 2010b), History (Shay, 2011; Martin et al, 2011), Music (Lamont & Maton, 2008), those falling under the umbrella of Design (Carvalho & Dong, 2008; Carvalho et al, 2009), Indigenous Studies (Kelly, no date), and even ‘Business Studies’ (Doherty, 2008, 2010). However, I have been unable to find any studies that have been undertaken of the discipline of Marketing specifically.

In providing a framework for analysing how knowledge and practices are structured in academic disciplines, LCT enables conceptualisation of the ‘rules of the game’ of the discipline of Marketing by “making explicit what is already known, at least implicitly, by members of the field” (Carvalho, Dong & Maton, 2009, p.501). This is crucial because, as outlined in Section 2.5.1, it is the tacit nature of many disciplinary practices, norms, values and knowledge that makes it difficult to induct students into disciplinary communities and to facilitate their participation in the disciplinary Discourse, thus impacting on the achievement of epistemological access. Using Bernstein’s (2000) terms, students need to have ‘recognition rules’ in order to be able to “identify the specificities of the discipline” of Marketing, as well as what meanings are relevant in this discipline; thereafter ‘realisation rules’ “regulate how meanings are to be put together” in Marketing so that students are able to “practice and communicate according to the discipline” (Carvalho et al, 2009, p.488). LCT, in conjunction with Discourse theory and ‘academic literacies’
work, enables an understanding of what constitutes the recognition and realisation rules in the discipline of Marketing.

2.7. Overview and conclusion

This study is about how Marketing operates as an academic discipline and how lecturers and students operate within Marketing. In this chapter, I have shown how work closely related to NLS, such as Gee’s theory of Discourse, and studies undertaken from an ‘academic literacies’ perspective, as well as Maton’s LCT, can contribute towards engaging with these two areas of focus of the study.

As noted in the previous section, LCT enables an understanding of how Marketing operates as an academic discipline by conceptualising the ‘rules of the game’ of the discipline, and by highlighting what counts as relevant meaning in the discipline. Discourse theory and work from an ‘academic literacies’ perspective allow for an understanding of how lecturers and students operate in the discipline to construct meaning through engaging in appropriate practices and communication.

Each body of work has allowed for progressively sharper focus on the specific areas of interest of this study, as can be seen in Figure 2.9. First, there is a move from considering literacy in everyday to academic to disciplinary settings. Second, while Gee gives the ability to work with meaning broadly, Bernstein and Maton give the ability to work with education specifically.
Having in this chapter provided an overview of the theoretical concepts pertinent to a consideration of the study’s research questions, in the next chapter (which focuses on research methods and design) I outline how these concepts will be operationalised so as to allow for the research questions to be empirically explored in the context of the discipline of Marketing at UKZN.
CHAPTER 3
Research methods and design

3.1. Introduction
I begin this chapter by outlining the broad research approach adopted in the study, looking in turn at social realism, qualitative research and insider research and their relevance to the study. I then move on to detailing the research design, providing a rationale for the decisions that were made with regard to the selection of participants, as well as data collection methods. The process that I followed in undertaking the analysis of the data is then discussed. Aspects such as the transcribing and organisation of the data are first addressed. Thereafter, the two-stage process of analysis used in the study is outlined. The first stage involved analysing the data in terms of LCT dimensions in order to uncover the ‘rules of the game’ of the Marketing discipline and required the development of an ‘external language of description’ for the study. The second stage involved the use of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) so as to enable more insight into social and power dynamics in the Marketing discipline at UKZN. The section on CDA includes a general discussion of CDA, the rationale for its use in this study, and a description of analysis using CDA. Thus, in contrast to the trajectory of the development of the theoretical framework in Chapter 2, which culminated in LCT, the analysis of the data took LCT as its starting point. Accordingly, the trajectory of the analysis represents a movement from a specific internal focus on educational logics towards a broader focus on contextual and power dimensions. The chapter ends with a consideration of issues related to trustworthiness and research ethics.

3.2. Research approach
3.2.1. Social realist approach
Paradigms have been described as ontological, epistemological and methodological premises that cause researchers to conduct inquiries in particular ways (Toma, 1999). Whenever research is undertaken, researchers make assumptions about the nature of the world (i.e. ontology), as well as about how we can come to know the world (i.e. epistemology) (Corson, 1991). Paradigms can thus be seen as the ‘worldviews’ or ideological positions that researchers bring to bear on their research.

This study is framed by a social realist approach which is based on the philosophy of critical realism. As noted in the previous chapter, I needed to engage with two main aspects in this study: (1) how the discipline of Marketing operates as a structure in terms of the form of knowledge and generative principles that underpin it and (2) how students and lecturers operate in the discipline. In other words, a consideration of both structure and agency were important. I also wanted to be able to work between the positivist and postmodernist extremes and be critical at the same time.
The social/critical realist approach adopted in this study is therefore appropriate in that it offers a ‘middle ground’ that is located between these extremes. It takes seriously ontological claims and holds on to the real, while also allowing for a socially critical space. These aspects are discussed further later in the chapter.

Although Bernstein has been the primary influence on social realist thinking, it also draws on the ideas of many others including sociologists (such as Durkheim, Bourdieu and Collins), philosophers (such as Bhaskar, Gellner and Williams) and linguists (such as Halliday and Martin). Accordingly, those working under the banner of social realism have diverse affiliations, areas of interest and theoretical influences, which has led to the suggestion that the term ‘coalition of minds’ might be a more appropriate description than ‘school of thought’; nevertheless, what unites social realists is that they put “knowledge as an object centre-stage in thinking about education” (Maton & Moore, 2010, p.2, emphasis in original). This is in reaction to dominant approaches to the sociology of education, which tend to downplay the role of knowledge, choosing to focus instead on learning processes and learners. These approaches have been described as falling into “that sloppy relativism which doesn’t stretch any student because ‘they are all, in their own ways, doing wonderfully’” (Hoggart, 1969, in Maton, 2010c, p.168). Knowledge is also often viewed from such perspectives with scepticism because of the power implications that have been linked to specialist knowledge. As a consequence of such approaches, however, students are not given access to ‘powerful knowledge’ (Maton & Moore, 2010). Social realists, on the other hand, see knowledge as being about more than social power – it is also about epistemic power. Knowledge is understood as being “real, differentiated and possessing emergent structural qualities” which have implications for curricula and pedagogy (Maton & Moore, 2010, p.7). Social realism thus ‘supersedes’ constructivism (Young, 2008), while still maintaining the ‘sociality’ of knowledge.

Social realism provides an alternative to viewing knowledge from the point of view of either ‘positivist absolutism’ (i.e. as neutral, value-free and objective) or ‘constructivist relativism’ (i.e. as socially constructed, context bound and tied to power issues). It does this by replacing an ‘either/or’ perspective with a ‘both/and’ perspective, in that it:

...recognises, contra positivism, the inescapably social character of knowledge but, contra constructivism, does not take this to inevitably entail relativism. In other words, rational objectivity in knowledge is acknowledged as itself a fact (we do actually have knowledge) but it is also recognized as a social phenomenon (it is something that people do in socio-historical contexts) and it is fallible rather than absolute or merely relative. This allows knowledge to be seen in itself, not merely as a reflection of either some essential truth or social power but as something in its own right, whose different forms have effects for intellectual and educational practices.

(Maton & Moore, 2010, p.2, emphasis in original)
Maton and Moore note that by offering an alternative to the ‘false dichotomy’ between positivism and constructivism, analysis is no longer limited to a focus on “either the formal and epistemological properties of knowledge or the play of power among actors in the social contexts of its production” (2010. p.5).\textsuperscript{45} As indicated in Chapter 2, both of these aspects are important to this study of the discipline of Marketing.

The social realist approach of Maton and Moore is built on ideas drawn from the philosophy of critical realism. Realism may be described as a ‘middle ground’ position between idealism and empiricism.

\textit{Empiricism} holds that there is an objective reality that exists independently of us, and that our knowledge of this reality is limited to those aspects of it that we can experience via our senses. Empirical confirmation and induction are thus important, as an empiricist view “refuses to acknowledge the reality of non-empirical objects” (Stewart, 2009, p.99). This view has been criticised for ignoring the complexity of reality by engaging in positivist reductionism, neglecting the social and the influence of values, and collapsing ontology and epistemology. The focus is on knowledge rather than the knower.

\textit{Idealism}, on the other hand, holds that there is no objective external reality. Thus knowledge cannot be limited to only what we can experience via our senses. Instead, deductive reasoning enables an understanding of reality. Furthermore, because reality is ‘mentally perceived’ and thus socially constructed, there cannot be only one reality because different people perceive reality from different perspectives, contexts and situations (Stewart, 2009). Idealism has thus been criticised for its relativist approach, where understanding of reality depends on individual consciousness. Knowledge and the knower are collapsed, and the question of \textit{whose} knowledge should be given preference arises. Constructivist approaches thus emphasise the knower rather than knowledge, and tend to focus on power relations. Such approaches have been criticised for an overemphasis on discourse in the creation of reality (Deetz \textit{et al}, 2007).

Approaches based on \textit{realism} “concede that knowledge is a social product and that it is fallible as a consequence, but that an objective reality exists, and that the purpose of knowledge is to understand that objective reality, even if our knowledge is always impartial, socially mediated, and marked by the social conditions under which it was produced, which includes power and

\textsuperscript{45} Stricker agrees that positivism and constructivism are more productively viewed as “endpoints on an epistemological continuum” with space in-between for researchers to draw on both approaches, rather than as “dueling paradigms” (2000, p.3).
privilege” (Wheelahan, 2010, p.97). One version of realism is critical realism, which emerged in the 1970s and is associated particularly with the work of Roy Bhaskar (Spencer, 1995). Bhaskar (see, for example, 1989, 2008) advocates a realist ontology but a relativist epistemology (Kavanagh, 1994). Along with ‘judgemental rationalism’, these critical realist tenets of ‘ontological realism’ and ‘epistemological relativism’ have been important in the development of a social realist approach. A brief overview of all three tenets is first presented, followed by their implications for methodology generally and for this study specifically.

**Ontological realism**

With regard to ontology, or the nature of the world, the critical realist position is that there is a real world ‘out there’ that exists independently of our knowledge or perception of it. Thus knowledge is “about something other than itself” (Maton & Moore, 2010, p.4). The real world comprises both a natural world (which is intransitive) and a social world (which is transitive). Although the social world is socially constructed, it is “pre-constructed for any human being” (Fairclough, 2005, p.922). In other words, “society pre-exists the individual” (Corson, 1991, p.233). We do not create society, although we can reproduce or transform it (Bhaskar, 1988, in Lewis, 2000).

Thus, while social actors have causal powers, these are conditional on “pre-structured properties of social life” (Fairclough, 2005, p.926). Social reality is seen as being stratified and comprising three domains, which cannot be reduced to one another (Harvey, 2002):

- **the real** – this domain comprises structures, the generative mechanisms that give rise to these structures, as well as their associated ‘causal powers’. These powers are seen to produce tendencies or “pressures toward consistency” (Deetz et al, 2007, p.429). Thus the domain of the real “consists not of events but their causes: the generative mechanisms and structures, the potencies, so to say, of which events are but the effects” (Wilson & Dixon, 2006, pp.262, cited in Hodgkinson & Starkey, 2011, p.361);

- **the actual** - this domain comprises events and processes that occur even if they are not experienced by social actors;

- **the empirical** - this domain comprises the part of the real and the actual domains that social actors experience. The empirical domain has thus been described as “the positivist’s view of the world: a space of observed events and experiences” (Wilson & Dixon, 2006, pp.261-262, cited in Hodgkinson & Starkey, 2011, p.361).

These domains are hierarchically arranged, with the real being the foundation that gives rise to the actual, which in turn gives rise to the empirical. Critical realists therefore view reality as being more complex and “much deeper than what we can observe or what happens” (Spencer, 1995, no page). Accordingly, greater importance is given to the underlying mechanisms rather than to
observable events or experiences, in an attempt to explain why things happen as they do (Hodgkinson & Starkey, 2011). In line with this, social realist approaches “aim to see through appearances to the real structures that lie behind them but acknowledge that these structures are more than the play of social power and vested interests” (Maton & Moore, 2010, p.4). However, the relationship between the three domains is also important, as one of the concerns of critical realism is “to demonstrate that structures and cultures, while being relatively enduring, can be changed. In this sense critical realism has an emancipatory rationale” (Hodgkinson & Starkey, 2011, p.363; see also Corson, 1991; Fairclough, 2005).

In terms of this study, some of the structures and generative mechanisms at the level of the real include the structure of knowledge and the legitimation codes that underpin the discipline of Marketing, as well as the discourses that are employed by UKZN Marketing lecturers and students. It is from these ontological entities at the level of the real that events and experiences emerge. LCT and CDA are used in Chapters 4 and 5 respectively to identify these structures and mechanisms, and their implications for the types of learning events and experiences that manifest in Marketing at UKZN are also discussed in those chapters, particularly in Chapter 5.

**Epistemological relativism**

With regard to epistemology, or how we can come to know the world, critical realism adopts a relativist position. Knowledge is not viewed as being universal, but as socially produced and thus as varying over time and across contexts (Maton & Moore, 2010).

Critical realism contends that “what we experience are sensations, the images of things in the real world, not the things directly”; thus critical realists believe that there are two steps involved in experiencing the world: (1) the thing itself and the sensations that it conveys and (2) the subsequent mental processing (Saunders et al, 2006, p.7). This locates critical realism between empiricism (we know the world by experiencing it with our senses, or induction) and idealism (we know the world through mental reasoning, or deduction). Because generative mechanisms are hidden and their interaction is complex, Bhaskar argues for ‘retroduction’, which is “the theoretical reconstruction of a plausible explanation of the conditions and mechanisms necessary for a particular turn of events to occur” (Hodgkinson & Starkey, 2011, p.362). Also useful is ‘abduction’, which enables deeper conceptualisation of phenomena by “placing and interpreting the original ideas about the phenomenon in the frame of a new set of ideas” (Danermark et al 2002, p.91). Abduction thus involves using concepts and theories (in this study, LCT) to ‘reinterpret’ or ‘recontextualise’ selected empirical data about a phenomenon, thereby moving from empirical towards deeper levels of reality (Quinn, 2006).
Additionally, because the social world is ‘pre-constructed’, it is possible that there are “aspects of it which human beings have no or limited or mistaken knowledge of” (Fairclough, 2005, p.922; Young, 2008). As outlined earlier, the critical realist view is that not everything in the world is actualised or observed. In other words, our knowledge of the world is fallible.

Judgemental rationalism
The critical realist tenet of judgemental rationalism holds that rational bases exist for assessing the relative merits of competing claims to knowledge (Maton & Moore, 2010). This position is also central to social realism, where “the concern is not with the logical properties of knowledge claims but with the collective procedures through which judgements are produced against the background constraints of the real” (Maton & Moore, 2010, p.5).

Although drawing on ideas and terminology from the philosophy of critical realism, social realism is more concerned with substantive rather than philosophical issues in education - “its focus lies with the properties of knowledge-producing fields of social practice and its problematic concerns the structured principles and procedures developed in those fields that provide the basis for rational objectivity in knowledge” (Maton & Moore, 2010, p.5). The social realist assertion of the centrality of knowledge is thus also linked to the pursuit of social justice in terms of “both the creation of epistemologically more powerful forms of knowledge and establishing the means to enable them to be accessible to everyone” (Maton & Moore, 2010, p.10).

Methodological implications
The critical realist conception of a stratified reality, in which both social structures and human agents have causal powers, implies that researchers must explore the relationships between different levels of reality and the interplay between structure and agency. Explanations that focus only on structure or only on agency are seen to be inadequate (Archer et al., 1998). In this study the underlying generative principles structuring the discipline of Marketing, as well as the social practices of agents within the discipline, are examined. The use of Bernstein’s theory in this study (which is incorporated into LCT, as outlined in Chapter 2) in combination with a critical/social realist approach is appropriate as they “constitute complementary approaches that together provide insights into the structures of knowledge, the content of knowledge and the relationship between knowers and knowledge, which includes exploration of the social conditions under which knowledge is produced, and the extent to which these processes are mediated by power” (Wheelahan, 2010, p.93). The use of Gee’s Discourse theory is also fitting because, from a critical realist perspective, discourses are viewed as ontological realities or mechanisms with causal powers that shape agents’ practices.
It is important to give attention to the underlying principles that structure Marketing because, as pointed out earlier, in critical and social realism the primary area of interest is the underlying mechanisms rather than observable events or experiences (Quinn, 2006; Hodgkinson & Starkey, 2011). In this study, both LCT and CDA are used to identify structures and mechanisms (such as knowledge structures, legitimation codes and discourses) that operate at the level of the real. While LCT works deductively, CDA is an inductive approach. My initial intention had been to use CDA only; however, the importance attached to underlying mechanisms and structures in a critical/social realist approach led to LCT being brought into the study to enable a more sophisticated analysis of these structures and mechanisms. Indeed, as the study progressed, LCT assumed the dominant role and CDA a lesser one in this regard.

This “intention to uncover what lies behind/beneath the empirical” is also key to the critical orientation of both critical and social realism (Quinn, 2006, p.13). In line with this critical orientation and the need to explore contextual, social and power dynamics in the discipline of Marketing as represented in interview data, the use of CDA in this study is appropriate. According to Quinn (2006), the critical realist perspective is that discourse is real and that it has effects on social practices and institutions. However, critical realists do not believe that ‘discourse is everything’ and that it alone constructs the world, as some versions of discourse analysis (DA) hold. Instead, critical realists argue that “while meaning is made in interaction, non-discursive elements also impact on that meaning” (Sims-Schouten et al, 2007, p.102). Thus, while it is important for researchers to engage with discourse at some level, they need to be circumspect in selecting an appropriate version of DA for this purpose. Fairclough’s version of CDA, for example, is compatible with critical realist philosophy because it focuses explicitly on both text and context (Quinn, 2006; Vorster, 2010). Fairclough (2005) advocates a version of CDA that is “based on a critical realist social ontology” (p.915) in terms of which “it makes little sense to see organizing and organization, or more generally process/agency and structure, as alternatives one has to choose between” (p.918). This is therefore the version of CDA that is drawn on in this study and which will be outlined later in this chapter.

The idea that “social structure pre-exists and is therefore ontologically irreducible to the current exercise of human agency” (Lewis, 2000, p.251) means that in order to understand why current social structures are as they are, one must look to the past. In other words, there is a temporal dimension inherent in any analysis of the social world using a social realist approach (Vorster, 2010). Thus, in order to understand the structuring of the Marketing discipline in its present form, the literature upon which the LCT analysis is based includes literature that traces the origin and development of the discipline over the years. However, while current human agency does not create existing social structures, it is enabled or constrained by these structures and also has the power to reproduce or transform them. Thus the interplay between current agency and existing
structures is important. In order to explore current practices and viewpoints of agents in Marketing, I have examined their ‘languages of legitimation’, which were elicited during interviews. These have been subject to analysis using LCT and CDA. This combination of approaches has allowed for the exploration of tensions between the structure of the Marketing discipline and agents’ practices within the discipline, as well as providing further insight into social and power dimensions in the discipline.

The tenet of epistemological relativism implies that critical realism favours methodological pluralism. However, Quinn (2006) argues that qualitative methods, whether in isolation or in combination with quantitative methods, are most suitable for research with a realist philosophical underpinning (see also Iosifides, 2011). Archer et al (1998) agree that, especially at the empirical level (the level of experiences), qualitative methods are ‘indispensable’. As discussed in the next section, a qualitative approach was adopted in this study.

As mentioned earlier, critical realism also holds that our knowledge of the world is fallible. A methodological consequence of this is that, as researchers, we need to ensure that what we do is ‘corrigible’: “We know that we are going to make mistakes, we know we are going to be wrong, so we must help people as much as we can to see how we make mistakes and to see how we have been wrong” (Archer et al, 1998, p.16). To ensure corrigibility, in this chapter I present in some detail the choices and decisions that I made in relation to the design of this study, along with a rationale for these, as well as their limitations.

**Contributions and limitations**

There is a sense in the broad social sciences community of the usefulness of critical realist approaches (Riley et al, 2007). Of relevance to this study is the fact that Hodgkinson & Starkey (2011) suggest critical realism as a basis for research in business and management disciplines in general, while Easton (2002) argues for the adoption of critical realist approaches in the discipline of Marketing specifically. According to Archer et al (1998, p.14), the major contribution of social realism is that “for the first time in social theorising we have a robust, stratified ontology of things social, an ontology which doesn’t elide structure and agency, subject and object, voluntarism and determinism, conscious and the unconscious and all the other polarities...”.

However, there are also critiques of realist approaches. Some of these relate to the ‘language of causation’ used by critical realists (Deetz et al, 2007), and a questioning of the “extent to which research in itself can contribute to emancipatory practice” (Archer et al, 1998, p.13). With regard to methodology, it has been asserted that the link between ontological concepts and research
outcomes is often neglected, and that knowledge claims are often not made in a systematic way (Archer et al., 1998).

Earlier in this section, the appropriateness of adopting a qualitative approach when undertaking research that has a realist underpinning was mentioned. The next section provides a brief overview of such an approach.

### 3.2.2. Qualitative approach

Chen describes qualitative research as being characterised by “a concern with participant perspectives, naturalistic research settings, the human research instrument, multiple data sources, rich description, interpretations, and researcher’s reflexivity” (2010, p.53-54). These aspects are discussed, in relation to this specific study, at appropriate points in subsequent sections of this chapter.

A qualitative approach was adopted in this study as qualitative methods would enable me to “delve into questions of meaning, examine institutional and social practices and processes, identify barriers and facilitators to change, and discover the reasons for the success or failure of interventions” (Starks & Trinidad, 2007, p.1372). Some quantitative data (such as survey results, throughput rates and descriptive statistics of the student body) have also been provided in order to contextualise and justify the study.

The qualitative approach of this study is also appropriate in light of the long-standing dominance of quantitative approaches and methods in Marketing research (Hunt, 1994; Kiel, 1998; Brownlie, 2007; Melaia et al., 2008), and the call for Marketing academics to adopt research approaches and methodologies which allow for deeper insight into issues (Brownlie & Saren, 1997). It is only quite recently that qualitative approaches have begun to emerge more strongly in Marketing (Melaia et al., 2008; Fillis & Rentschler, 2008).

### 3.2.3. Insider research

Because this study was located at my workplace, it can be described as insider research. However, there are levels of insiderness, rather than a clear-cut dichotomy of insider versus outsider. Various factors influence insiderness, including biography, identity, research topic, time and location of the research and the power relationships between researcher and participants (Mercer, 2007). While insiderness may present advantages in that it may facilitate easier access to research sites and rapport with participants, it also poses challenges. Because participants may be familiar with the researcher, they may not be completely forthcoming in their views as they may fear being judged, they may know the researcher’s stance on the research issues and
may align themselves accordingly, and “pragmatism may outweigh candour” in an effort to maintain relationships after the research (Mercer, 2007, p.8). Additionally, the researcher may find it difficult to maintain distance and detachment. Interestingly, however, Mercer’s research was conducted at two sites, one involving a high level and the other a low level of insiderness. Although she was acutely aware of her different positioning at each site, Mercer found that the data from the two sites were “remarkably alike”, that the substantive findings were “almost identical”, and that informants perceived the research process very similarly (2007, p.14), suggesting that concerns about the impacts of insiderness on research findings may be overstated.

Over the period of this study (2009-2011), my status in the School of Management was indeed not as clear-cut as a simple dichotomy of ‘insider/outside’ would seem to suggest. As indicated in Chapter 1, I was transferred to the School from the Faculty’s Education Unit at the beginning of 2006 as a result of post-merger restructuring. However, because of a lack of office space in the School, I only started occupying an office in the School at the beginning of 2010. Thus for four years (from 2006 to 2009), while I was officially a lecturer in the School, physically I was located in another building some distance away, still occupying an office in the Unit I had just been transferred from. My interaction with colleagues from my new School was therefore limited to that at meetings and workshops and did not occur on a day-to-day basis. This presented both difficulties and advantages in relation to the study and more generally. Because of my continued physical location in the Faculty’s Education Unit from 2006-2009, many staff and students still saw me as ‘the Education Unit person’ rather than as a mainstream lecturer. While this may have perhaps slowed my integration into the School, it is also likely to have contributed to the large numbers of students who were willing to participate in my study and who opened up to me about their experiences of teaching and learning in the School and in the discipline of Marketing specifically – this despite many of them indicating during interviews that they did/would not interact with their lecturers outside of class, even if just to consult with them on academic issues related to their modules. Not being fully part of the School was also helpful to me in making the familiar strange – an important principle in discourse analysis (Bloor & Bloor, 2007). The norms and practices in the School that may have been taken for granted had I been more immersed in the culture of the School were, for me, more open to question as I was more removed from them. However, the timing of my office relocation into the School at the beginning of 2010 was fortuitous because 2010 was the year in which the data collection, including the lecturer interviews, occurred. The shift to now having daily contact with colleagues naturally led to the building and solidifying of relationships, which contributed to rapport when the interviews were conducted in the second half of the year. The issues around ‘acquaintance interviews’ (Garton & Copland, 2010) will thus be discussed in Section 3.3.2.1. In addition, measures taken to address some of
the challenges posed by insiderness (such as those related to power relationships) will be addressed at appropriate points in subsequent sections dealing with the design of the study.

**3.3. Research design**

This section details the decisions that were made regarding the design of the research study, and provides a rationale for these decisions. The limitations associated with various aspects of the research design are also identified, but have been integrated into the discussion at relevant points, instead of being treated in a separate section.

**3.3.1. Selection of participants**

As indicated earlier, the study was located in the Discipline of Marketing, which forms part of the School of Management in UKZN’s Faculty of Management Studies. Although the Marketing discipline is represented on the Pietermaritzburg, Westville and Howard College campuses, the study focused on the two Durban campuses (Westville and Howard College) because the Marketing offerings tend to be common on these two campuses given their close geographic proximity (they are only about 10 kilometres apart). By ‘common’ is meant that either the same lecturer teaches a particular module on both of the Durban campuses or, where this is not possible, a coordinator oversees both campuses to try to ensure that the offerings on the campuses are the same in terms of teaching practices, course materials and assessments. However, across the Durban and Pietermaritzburg sites, which are separated by a distance of approximately 80 kilometres, the current practice is to aim for equivalence rather than commonality. Thus, while common prescribed textbooks and external examiners are generally used, the Durban and Pietermaritzburg sites otherwise tend to operate quite independently in terms of assessment and teaching practices and contact between lecturers on the two sites is infrequent. Given the influence of contextual factors on academic literacy practices (as outlined in Chapter 2), it was thus considered appropriate to confine the study to the two campuses on the Durban site.

I chose to focus on the undergraduate level for a number of reasons. First, the study was inspired by my personal experiences and observations of teaching and learning challenges in the context of large-group undergraduate management studies classes, as outlined in Chapter 1. Second, the South African higher education sector is “primarily an undergraduate teaching system” (Scott *et al*, 2007, p.5). Third, “undergraduate teaching and learning is an area of concern” (CHE, 2011, p.11) and, as outlined in Chapter 1, problems with throughput at undergraduate level, specifically

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46 Descriptions of UKZN, the Faculty, School, and Discipline were included in Chapter 1 (Section 1.2.3) and issues related to the research site have also been integrated into the discussion in several sections of this chapter. Thus I do not discuss the research site in a dedicated section in this chapter.
with regards to management studies, have been identified (Scott et al, 2007). Finally, as only a small proportion of undergraduate students proceed to postgraduate studies (between 20 and 25 students are accepted onto the Marketing discipline’s Honours programme each year at UKZN’s Durban site) and as these students represent the top performers from the third year cohort, the challenges experienced at undergraduate level are not replicated at postgraduate level to the same extent.

Within the undergraduate Marketing student cohort, I narrowed the focus to third-year students. Second-year students were not included for two key reasons. First, as indicated in Chapter 1 (Section 1.2.3.4), the second-year Introduction to Marketing module is not taken solely by students intending to major in Marketing. Second, level-three students would already have passed Introduction to Marketing and would be engaged in their third-year Marketing studies; thus they would also be in a better position to reflect and comment on the academic literacy practices in the discipline. As indicated in Chapter 2, a 2004 survey of writing tasks set in the Faculty revealed “a lack of experience with tasks requiring writing in the earlier years of the degree” but a “substantial increase in written work in the third year” (Goodier & Parkinson, 2005, p.69). Indeed, in 2010 the writing tasks in Introduction to Marketing comprised a test and an exam; whereas the level-three Marketing modules additionally included assignments, projects and/or case studies throughout the semester.47 While no similar research has been conducted into reading demands, personal communication from Marketing students indicates that the volume of required reading at third year level is also much greater than that in previous years.

The student participants thus comprised third year undergraduate students majoring in Marketing and lecturers teaching level three undergraduate Marketing modules on the Westville and Howard College campuses of UKZN. In addition, because the interviews with student participants were scheduled during the first semester (for reasons to be outlined in Section 3.3.1.1), the focus of the study is on the two first-semester level-three Marketing modules and the lecturers of those modules rather than the two level-three modules on offer in the second semester. The students taking the four modules are largely the same, as all four modules are required for students majoring in Marketing.

3.3.1.1. Students

Having established that the focus of the study would be on third-year undergraduate students majoring in Marketing, the student participants were selected from the third-year Consumer Behaviour class (comprising a total of 282 students across Westville and Howard College

47 Table 4.5 in Chapter 4 provides an overview of the assessment tasks in each of the five undergraduate Marketing modules.
The Consumer Behaviour module was selected because both of the lecturers for this module (i.e. one for the Westville campus and one for the Howard College campus) had been identified at the time that I needed to liaise with lecturers to request permission and make arrangements for administering a questionnaire during one of their lectures, whereas the lecturers for the other first semester level three Marketing module (Marketing Research) had not yet been finalised.

I planned to interview between five and ten students, with the final number dependent on the size and profile of the pool of students willing and available to participate. This range of five to ten would allow for some diversity (on criteria such as race, gender, first/home language, matric points, and campus/faculty). In addition, this number is in line with the number of participants in similar types of studies – that is, discourse studies (Starks & Trinidad, 2007) and other doctoral studies exploring ‘academic literacy’ (see, for example, Van Heerden, 2000; Picard, 2007; Thomson, 2008; Van Schalkwyk, 2008).

A breakdown of the 2010 group of third-year Marketing students on the Durban campuses, from which the participants were selected, is given below:

- there were 282 third-year Marketing students in total on the two campuses. Of these, 73% were on the Westville campus (from the Faculty of Management Studies), with the remaining 27% on Howard College (from the Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Sciences);
- 57% of the group was female and 43% male;
- 48% of the group was black, 44.3% Indian, 6.3% white and 1.4% coloured.

Despite the discrepancy in national throughput rates between black and white business and commerce students (Scott et al., 2007) and the fact that the majority of the third-year Marketing students was black, I decided in this study to include students of all races in the student sample rather than focussing on black students only. This is because, as outlined in Chapter 2, and as confirmed by my teaching experience, acquiring a secondary (academic) discourse is challenging for all students (Leibowitz, 2004; Moll 2004; Wingate, 2006; Jackson et al., 2006; Soudien, 2009). Additionally, the profile of the 2010 third-year Marketing class just presented clearly indicates that

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48 Although trying to accommodate diversity, it should be noted that the set of participants selected was not intended to be a statistically representative sample in a scientific sense. With regard to the criteria mentioned above, Matric points were used not as an indicator of performance, but rather to try to include students on different programmes (e.g. Access) for which points requirements are different.

49 These are combined registration figures for Westville and Howard College campuses as at 07 April 2010 (after the deadline for registrations), from UKZN’s Student Management System (SMS). However, at the time that the questionnaire was administered early in February 2010, there were 231 registered students.
the percentage of Indian and black students was not greatly different. The small percentage of white and coloured students in the third year Marketing class is in line with UKZN’s intake profile. According to the university’s Division of Management Information (DMI) system, the average new intake at UKZN is:

- 55% black, 32% Indian and 9% white;
- 58% female and 42% male;
- 45% with isiZulu as a home language and 45% with English as a home language.\(^{50}\)

The selection of the student participants was based on responses to a short questionnaire which was distributed to all 181 level-three Marketing students in Durban (i.e. Westville and Howard College campuses) who were present at the first Consumer Behaviour lecture in the first semester of 2010.\(^{51}\) There were both advantages and disadvantages inherent in administering the questionnaire this early in the semester, as outlined below.

The advantages related to the following:

- traditionally, the first lecture is used as an introduction to and overview of the module, as well as to disseminate course outlines. Attendance at the first lecture is thus generally good and I felt that by selecting this session in which to run the questionnaire, I would get a good response rate;
- lecturer expectations are also generally discussed during the first meeting. This relates quite well to question B1 in the questionnaire;\(^{52}\)
- because of the introductory nature of the first session, the full allotted time is usually not used by the lecturers. I therefore felt that this session would provide the perfect opportunity for me to meet with the students. I thought that the lecturers would be most open to letting me have some time during the first lecture;
- because of ethical concerns related to collecting data from students one is involved in teaching and assessing (related to the influence of lecturer power and authority on student responses), I needed to complete the data collection from students before the start of the second semester, as I would be teaching a second semester module to the same group. I thus wanted to start the process as early as possible in the first semester;

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\(^{50}\) These figures were presented by DMI at a symposium entitled ‘National Senior Certificate and First Year Student Performance: Implications for University Admission’ which was held on the Westville campus of UKZN on 21 May 2010.

\(^{51}\) See Appendix A.

\(^{52}\) Question B1 of the questionnaire asked: “Thinking about your Marketing studies in general at UKZN so far, what do you think is expected or required of you in order to be successful in your Marketing modules? Please give concrete examples where possible”.

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logistical factors also had to be considered. After administering the questionnaire, it would take time to go through them, capture the data, select the participants, contact them and set up interviews. This would leave only a few weeks in which data could be collected, bearing in mind that the period available for interviews would be reduced by the large number of public holidays in the South African calendar in the first semester, that students might be reluctant to participate in interviews close to test dates and project deadlines, and that they would most probably not be available during the mid-semester break. I was also mindful that I needed to allow some time to replace participants should any of the original group selected change their minds about participation, an issue which in fact did arise.

The disadvantages of distributing the questionnaire during the first Consumer Behaviour lecture of the semester were that:

- some students were not present at the first lecture. This might be because they had not yet registered for the module, or because in 2010 lectures for returning students began in the week prior to the start of first-year lectures (the first time this had been the case) and some students may have been unaware of the change;
- students had just had one lecture in a level-three Marketing module when they filled in the questionnaire. Thus their answers to Section B were largely based on their experience of the second year Introduction to Marketing module (except for those students who may have been repeating at least the level-three Marketing module in which the questionnaire was administered). However, the interviews would take place at least a month into the third year modules and I would be able to gather more information related to level-three at that time, so I did not feel that this was a serious issue.  

The questionnaire was administered on two consecutive days, first at the Howard College campus and then at Westville. I waited outside the lecture venues until the lecturers had finished with their classes; at that point they invited me in and left. I introduced myself to the students, identified myself as a lecturer in the Marketing discipline who would teach one of their second-semester modules and stressed that I would have no involvement in either teaching or assessing either of the two Marketing modules they would be taking during the first semester (i.e. when the data collection would occur). I then told them why I was there, gave them an overview of my research project and asked if they would be willing to assist me by completing a short questionnaire. I made it clear that I was asking for their assistance as a student and not as one of their future lecturers. At this point, two of the Westville students opted to leave; however, all of

53 There are thirteen teaching weeks in a semester. Of the nine interviews that were conducted with students: two took place in Week 4 of the module; three in Week 5; one in Week 9; two in Week 10; and one in Week 12.
the Howard College students remained. I then distributed the questionnaires, briefly gave an overview of the various sections in the questionnaire and asked students to drop the completed questionnaires into the box provided on their way out, once they had finished.

In order to encourage participation, as well as the completion of all questions, the questionnaire was very short and could be completed in a few minutes. It comprised only one sheet, printed on both sides. The questionnaire comprised three sections: Section A comprised six questions requesting biographical and contact details; Section B comprised two open-ended questions related to students’ Marketing studies; and Section C comprised two questions included to determine whether students would be willing to participate in the interview phase of the research during the first semester of 2010. Stapled to the questionnaire was a cover sheet, which included information about the project and my contact details, as well as those of my supervisor. I informed students that they could detach and retain this sheet. However, the vast majority of students did not do so.

In total, 179 students completed the questionnaire. 135 (75.42%) of these students were from the Westville campus and 44 (24.58%) were from Howard College. This represents all of the students present at the Howard College lecture and all but two of the students present at the Westville lecture. This means that 52 of the 231 students (22.51%) who were at that stage registered for the module across the two campuses did not complete the questionnaire; of these, 50 did not attend the first Consumer Behaviour lecture and two were present but opted not to participate. Of the 179 who did complete the questionnaire, 71 (39.66%) indicated that they would be willing to participate in interviews during the first semester. Of these 71 students, 49 (69.01%) were registered on the Westville campus and 22 (30.99%) at Howard College.

From this pool of 71 students, I selected ten students. Because of the very low number of white and coloured students in the class and also who were willing to participate in interviews, these students were in effect ‘self selected’. The number of black and Indian students willing to participate was considerably larger than the number required for the study, however, and thus in selecting the few who would go through to the interview stage, I also considered their responses to the open-ended questions in the questionnaire. I felt that the length, depth and quality of their responses to the questionnaire would help to identify students who were likely to be most useful in helping me to better engage with the key research questions.

Of the ten students initially selected, five were male and five female; three were on the Howard College campus and seven on the Westville campus; five were black, three were Indian, one was
white and one was coloured; five spoke English as a first language and five were second-language English speakers.

Five of these ten students responded to the e-mail and/or cellphone text messages sent to them, and contacted me to schedule an interview. All five students chose to schedule their interviews in a particular two-week period (weeks four and five of the semester) because of test dates and project deadlines in other weeks. Thus, although I had hoped to be able to do an interview, complete the transcription and spend some time reflecting on each interview before proceeding to the next interview, this was not always possible. As I had promised the students that the interviews would be scheduled at their convenience, I felt that I should proceed with the interviews at the students’ preferred dates and times.

However, in order to avoid having to schedule more interviews into this two-week period, I did not immediately follow up with the five students who had not responded to my initial messages. I planned instead to complete the five interviews that had already been scheduled, and then take some time to complete the transcriptions, reflect on this first batch of interviews and begin some initial analysis before proceeding with the rest of the interviews.

When the follow-up e-mails were sent to those who had not responded to the first message, only one student responded, indicating that she would like to withdraw because of study commitments. I assumed that the lack of response from the other four students meant that they had also changed their minds about participating and decided to replace them with other students from the pool of those who had indicated on their questionnaires that they would be interested in going through to the interview stage.

To select the replacements, I considered the characteristics of the non-responding students and chose students who shared those characteristics. For example, if one of the non-responding students was a black female with English as a second language, I ensured that the potential replacement for this student was also a black female with English as a second language. In order to allow for non-response in this second round, I selected two potential replacements for each non-responding student from the first round. I thus e-mailed ten other students from the pool who had indicated willingness to participate in interviews, so that even if only half of them contacted me to schedule interviews (as was the case in the first round), I would still have a total of ten interviews.

I received responses from five of the ten students I contacted in the second round, all of whom scheduled interviews. However, one of these five students did not show up for his interview. As
lectures were almost over and exams were about to commence, after which would begin the winter vacation, I did not feel it was feasible to try to reschedule this interview. As I had intended to interview between five and ten students for the study and had already done nine interviews I did not think it was necessary to ensure that the tenth student interview took place.

The final student sample thus comprised the following nine third-year Marketing students who were all majoring in Marketing in 2010:

Table 3.1: Description of the student participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>RACE</th>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>FIRST LANGUAGE</th>
<th>CAMPUS</th>
<th>MATRIC POINTS</th>
<th>LEVEL 3 MARKETING MODULES in 2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nothando</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>isiZulu</td>
<td>Howard College</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Repeating two modules; first attempt at other two modules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sihle</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>isiZulu</td>
<td>Westville</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>First attempt at all four modules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lindiwe</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>isiZulu</td>
<td>Westville</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Repeating two modules. Passed other two in 2009.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiara</td>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Howard College</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>First attempt at all four modules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bongani</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>isiZulu</td>
<td>Westville</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>First attempt at all four modules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amantha</td>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Westville</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>First attempt at all four modules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>isiZulu</td>
<td>Westville</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>First attempt at all four modules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maxine</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Westville</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>First attempt at all four modules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thuli</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>isiZulu</td>
<td>Westville</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>First attempt at all four modules.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The group of student participants was made up as follows:

- six who were black, two who were Indian and one who was white;
- six who were female and three who were male;
- six who indicated that their home language was isiZulu and three who indicated that their home language was English;
- seven who were from the Westville campus and two who were from the Howard College campus;
- seven who were taking the four level-three Marketing modules for the first time in 2010 and two who were repeating two modules each in 2010;
- matric points ranged from 31 to 43, with an average of 36;
- one student (Lindiwe) who was on an Extended Curriculum programme and eight others who were registered for mainstream degree studies.

54 These names are pseudonyms. The students were invited to select their own pseudonyms, but only four (Bongani, Amantha, Ben and Maxine) did so. I therefore selected the remaining five pseudonyms. In doing so, I tried to select names that reflected the gender and race of the students. See Appendix B for short biographical sketches of the students.
Although I had tried to ensure more of a balance on some of the criteria, this did not play out in the final set of participants. In terms of race, there were no coloured students among the participants, as the only coloured student who had indicated willingness to participate (in the first round) did not respond to my messages to schedule an interview. The number of Indian students was also slightly lower than anticipated because one Indian student (who was selected in the second round) did not show up for the interview that he had scheduled. With regards to gender, the number of male students was lower than anticipated because both students referred to above (who had agreed to participate in interviews, but did not actually do so) were male. Both of them also had English as a home language; thus the number of students in this category was lower than anticipated. In addition, and as indicated above, in the second round I had contacted more students than needed, to allow for non-response. The greater numbers of black, female and isiZulu-speaking students in the final group of participants were also in part due to higher response rates in these groups. However, the final group does still reflect diversity on all of the criteria and thus authentically reflects the diversity of the class. Additionally, the profile of the participants is pertinent to the government’s concern with black students’ throughput rates and achievement, as noted in Chapter 1.

3.3.1.2. Lecturers
In the year in which the interviews took place (2010), the Marketing discipline at Westville and Howard College comprised eight permanent members of staff. Six of these eight lecturers were female and two were male; seven were Indian and one black; seven spoke English as a first language and one had isiZulu as a mother tongue; four were at professor level, three were at lecturer level and one at tutor level. Six of these staff members taught only on the Westville campus, while two taught on both the Westville and Howard College campuses. Four of the eight taught at postgraduate level only, two taught at undergraduate level only, and two taught at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

Of the eight permanent lecturers mentioned above, during 2010 one was on secondment to another unit, one was on sabbatical for part of the year and one was serving in a senior management position in the School, with the result that these lecturers did little or no teaching in Marketing in 2010. Three contract members of staff were thus appointed to assist with teaching in 2010. All three were white English-speaking males. Two taught on Howard College and one on the Westville campus.

Thus, in 2010 the Marketing discipline had a total (permanent and contract) staff complement of eleven on the Westville and Howard College campuses, made up as follows:
seven who were Indian, three who were white and one who was black;

six who were female and five who were male;

ten who had English as a home language and one who had isiZulu as a mother tongue.

However, as previously indicated, the focus of the study was on the students and lecturers involved in the level three undergraduate Marketing modules offered in the first semester of 2010, on the Westville and Howard College campuses. Four lecturers were involved in teaching these modules. As this is a small number, and because of the influence that lecturers have on academic literacy practices (McKenna, 2004c), I felt it was important to interview all four lecturers for the study. Additionally, including all four lecturers would allow for some diversity in the lecturer sample in terms of age, gender, race, qualifications, experience, research interests and degree of ‘embeddedness’ in the discipline. This would allow exploration of how who the lecturers are in terms of their identity impacts on their constructions of academic literacy in the discipline. The four lecturers included two males and two females, ranging in age from their 30s to 60s. Two were Indian females who were permanent members of staff and who were engaged in doctoral studies in marketing or Marketing education; the other two were white males who had substantial experience and qualifications, but who were not engaged in any research at the university as they were both part-time staff. One of these was an academic from another institution (a university of technology), who was close to retirement, while the other was in fact a retired academic from that same institution. Neither of these two lecturers had office space on campus.

Although all four lecturers agreed to be interviewed, it subsequently emerged that one of the lecturers was not available during the period when the interviews were scheduled. Thus three of the four lecturers actually participated in interviews. As the lecturer who was not interviewed (a white English-speaking male on the Howard College campus) would not have added any further diversity to the lecturer sample on any of the criteria included in Table 3.2, I did not feel that his non-participation was problematic.

The three lecturers who participated in interviews were:

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55 The term ‘university of technology’ is now used in South Africa to refer to what was previously known as a ‘technikon’ - “a non-university higher education institution, in South Africa, focusing on vocational education” (Harvey, 2004-9, no page).
### Table 3.2: Description of the lecturer participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>RACE</th>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>FIRST LANGUAGE</th>
<th>CAMPUS</th>
<th>YEARS LECTURING MARKETING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nisha</td>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Westville</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michael</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Howard College</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kamini</td>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Westville</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the preceding discussion on the selection of the student and lecturer participants, it is clear that purposive and convenience sampling was applied in this study.

**3.3.2. Data collection methods**

While a combination of observations, interviews, focus groups and the close reading of extant texts is common in qualitative research, interviews frequently serve as the primary data collection strategy (Starks & Trinidad, 2007; Roulston, 2010). In this study, interviews did indeed play the primary role. However, analysis of selected documents was also undertaken, and will thus also be included in the following discussion.

**3.3.2.1. Interviews**

The aim of the interviews in this study was “to capture the participant’s language including any references or appeals to other discourses” (Starks & Trinidad, 2007, p.1375). Observing speech gives insight into how participants use language to achieve their objectives and to position themselves relative to others. In this study, the most substantive data was gathered via semi-structured interviews which were audio recorded (so as to enable the capturing of participants’ language-in-use). Audio recording allowed the interviews to be converted to transcripts; these then became written texts that could be subject to analysis using LCT and CDA. Semi-structured interviews are common in qualitative research, as the interviewer may need to ask clarifying questions because it cannot be assumed that the researcher and participant use words in the same way (Starks & Trinidad, 2007).

Garton and Copland (2010) explore the effect of prior relationships on educational research interviews. They define ‘acquaintance interviews’ as interviews whose participants “have prior relationships which have evolved through contexts other than research” (Garton & Copland, 2010, p536). For example, they may be friends and/or colleagues. While this prior relationship may help in developing rapport and facilitating access to resources, it also poses difficulties in that the participants may struggle to reconcile diverse identities. Relationships such as those

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56 These names are pseudonyms. See Appendix C for short biographical sketches of the lecturers.
between friends and colleagues are often based on symmetrical talk and participation structures that are quite different from the asymmetrical nature of research interviews. Thus the participants have to “negotiate their new identities as interviewer and interviewee”, something that appears to be more difficult for the interviewer (Garton & Copland, 2010, p.547).

In this study, as already established, I had prior relationships with the lecturers who participated in the study, who were my colleagues at work. I did indeed experience difficulty with my identity as interviewer during the lecturer interviews, especially when interviewing a colleague with whom I had become quite friendly. Our talk sometimes moved from ‘interview’ to ‘chat’, something of which I was quite conscious. Transitioning back from ‘chat’ to ‘interview’ thus sometimes happened quite abruptly and awkwardly. By contrast, with the exception of two students whom I had taught the previous year, I had no prior relationship with any of the student participants. This may account for why I did not experience similar tensions in terms of trying to reconcile my interviewer identity with other identities during the student interviews. Additionally, as a lecturer interviewing students, the power relation involved in ‘researching down’ may have come into play with the students, whereas with the lecturers I was ‘researching across’.

From the participants’ perspective, in interviews “what is said is inextricably tied to where it is said, how it is said and, importantly, to whom it is said” (Garton & Copland, 2010, p.533). There are typically power asymmetries in any interview situation because the researcher generally controls the topic, conduct and trajectory of the interview (Kvale, in Cohen et al, 2000). However it may be argued that in a situation where a lecturer is involved in interviewing students, such issues warrant greater consideration. In subsequent sections, measures that were taken in this regard in the study are outlined.

3.3.2.1.1. **Instruments**

*Interview schedules* 57

The questions included in the two interview schedules (one for the student interviews and one for the lecturer interviews) were based on my reading of the literature, including other doctoral studies that have been conducted into academic literacy (primarily McKenna, 2004a, and Thomson, 2008). The interview schedules used by these researchers proved very useful indeed. My own experiences as a lecturer in the South African higher education context and specifically in the Marketing discipline, as outlined in Chapter 1, also guided the development and selection of the final questions.

57 See Appendices D and E for the interview schedules for students and lecturers respectively.
An interview schedule in a semi-structured interview is “sufficiently open-ended to enable the contents to be re-ordered, digressions and expansions made, new avenues to be included, and further probing to be undertaken” (Cohen et al, 2000, p146). In line with the semi-structured nature of the interviews in this study, I used the interview schedules more as a guide or memory prompt, rather than viewing them as a list of questions that had to be covered strictly in order and in the same order in every interview. I tried to put the participants at ease and have the interview unfold as a conversation. During the course of the conversation, many of the questions were addressed without my having explicitly to ask them. I referred to the schedules, mainly towards the end of the interviews, only to check that all topics of interest had been covered and that I had not forgotten anything. This helped to maintain rapport and the flow of the interview. In addition, asking open questions and approaching the interview as a conversation where my role was primarily ‘listener’ instead of ‘talker’ represented a shift away from “the conventional teacher-dominated talking space” (Lillis, 2001, p.9) and thus was a step towards addressing the power asymmetries typically inherent in interviews (Cohen et al, 2000).

**Stimulus piece**

Because ‘academic literacy’ is not an easy concept to define or understand, I decided to use a stimulus piece to lead into some of the relevant issues (McKenna, 2004a). The stimulus piece was a short (one-page) document containing a question and two responses. Participants would be asked to comment on which of the responses they felt was better and why.

The question was based on an actual test question that had been set for the level two Introduction to Marketing module in a previous year. I adapted the question that had been set by the lecturer slightly for brevity. The original question had asked students to include all four categories of consumer products in their response, whereas the adapted question asked for just one category.

Response A was a summary that I made of the relevant section of the prescribed textbook for the level two module. I did this because, while looking through the scripts in order to select those upon which to base the stimulus piece responses, it was apparent to me from the similarity of the responses that many students had simply based their answers on material drawn directly from the textbook. Response B was a composite response that I created by blending three actual student responses to the question. While Response B is not as ‘polished’ as Response A in terms of grammatical accuracy, the meaning is still clear. In addition, Response B does begin to explore appropriate marketing strategies (such as distribution and pricing) for the specified product category (which Response A does not do), and which the first line of the question seems to

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58 See Appendix F.
indicate should be included. I added the last six words of Response B to make the link to strategy stronger.

3.3.2.1.2. **Pilot interview**

In order to help me identify aspects related to the instruments and my interview technique that might require refining, I conducted a pilot interview before proceeding with the rest of the interviews. Given the focus of the study on discipline-based academic literacies, I felt that it was important to do the pilot interview with somebody from within the Marketing discipline. I thus selected somebody who had been involved in teaching an undergraduate Marketing module for a number of years. However, this person was not involved in teaching any of the level three Marketing modules in 2010, and thus would not form part of the final lecturer sample.

The pilot interview was a very useful exercise for two main reasons. First, it was important in helping me to develop my interviewing and transcribing skills. This was crucial because prior to this study I had had very limited experience in conducting interviews and no experience at all in recording and transcribing interviews. The pilot interview thus provided me with a ‘safe’ opportunity to test my interview technique and to become familiar with the recording equipment and the transcription process. Listening to the audio recording of the interview, reading the transcript and discussing the experience with my supervisor after the pilot interview helped me to identify aspects of my interview technique and style that needed revising. For instance, I realised that I needed to probe for concrete examples and specific instances much more, in order to enable better insight into students’ experiences of educational practices in Marketing at UKZN. Transcribing the pilot interview also reinforced my decision to do the transcriptions myself rather than hiring a transcriber, as I found that I enjoyed the process of working with and becoming familiar with the data, despite the time and effort involved. Second, the pilot interview provided me with some feedback about the potential usefulness of the instruments (the interview schedule and stimulus piece) in helping to address the research questions. Based on the pilot interview experience, I made minor modifications to the order and structure of a few of the questions.

3.3.2.1.3. **Student interviews**

The interviews with students took place during the first semester of 2010. I preferred to do the interviews in my office because a quiet location was necessary to obtain clear audio recordings. I also thought that the privacy of my office might encourage students to respond more openly. In addition, my office would be easy for students to access. I acknowledge that the choice of my office as the interview site may not have been desirable from the point of view of power asymmetries; however, given that I was a lecturer interviewing students, this might have been an issue whatever the location was. Nevertheless, while I did suggest that my office be used as the
interview venue, I also offered students the option of the interview taking place elsewhere should that be more convenient for them. All of the students, however, indicated that they would be happy to meet in my office.

Before each interview commenced, students were given a copy of the informed consent letter to read and were encouraged to raise any questions or concerns they may have had regarding the interview or the study more broadly. Because the recording of the interview was crucial for this study, I ensured that I raised this issue with each student, to confirm that they would be comfortable with being taped. I let them know how the recordings would be used and by whom and that they would not be identified by name in the transcripts. I also reassured students that they would not be prejudiced in any way by their responses, that there were no ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ answers and that their specific perceptions and experiences of the teaching and learning in the discipline of Marketing were of great value and were important to the study.

Once students had signed the informed consent document, I began recording. Each interview began with some general background information on the student, before proceeding to a discussion of the stimulus piece and then to a discussion of teaching and learning in Marketing more generally.

3.3.2.1.4. Lecturer interviews

The interviews with lecturers took place during the mid-year break and in the second semester of 2010. One of the interviews took place in my office and the other two in the offices of the participants. The process followed was largely the same as for the student interviews. However, I was also able to raise issues that the students had brought up during their interviews.

The interviews with students and lecturers resulted in a total of just under ten hours of recorded data, with an average interview length of 46 minutes.

3.3.2.2. Documents

A variety of documents are referred to in this study. Some of these documents (prescribed textbooks, course outlines, assessment tasks set by lecturers, and students’ written work along with the accompanying lecturer feedback), as already indicated, were subject to analysis and drawn on, along with the analysis of the interviews with students and lecturers, in crafting the arguments made in this study. Other documents (such as student evaluations, module online-learning sites, minutes of meetings, curriculum documents, survey findings and institutional documents, reports and statistics) were used to contextualise and to help justify the focus of the

See Appendix G.
study and as ‘support evidence’ for the arguments arising out of the analysis. An overview of the documents that were included in the analysis is presented in Table 3.3. The rationale for the choice of these documents is then briefly addressed.

Table 3.3: Documents included in analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COURSE DOCUMENTS</th>
<th>DOCUMENTS FROM STUDENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First semester 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Behaviour</td>
<td>Marketing Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prescribed textbook</td>
<td>Prescribed textbook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course handout, including assignment question [7 pages]</td>
<td>Course handout [4 pages]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test question paper [2 pages]</td>
<td>Assignment handout [1 page]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main exam paper [2 pages]</td>
<td>Test question paper [3 pages]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supplementary exam paper [5 pages]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|                  |                  |                  |
|                  |                  |                  |
|                  |                  |                  |

*Nothando and Kiara were in the same group for this assignment

The inclusion of the textbooks relates to the central role that textbooks play in the academic lives of undergraduate students. The textbook is “the type of academic text read by the majority of students” (Hewings, 2001, p.13) and thus plays a significant role in distributing ‘legitimated’ knowledge and in inducting students into the “content, beliefs, values and methodology of their respective disciplines” (Richardson, 2004, p.508). Even in our multi-media age, the most commonly used teaching resource is the textbook (Burton, 2001). Indeed, in some courses, textbooks may be the only reading material that students encounter, thus their role in modelling the literacy practices of the relevant discipline for students is even more influential (Paxton, 2007). At UKZN, textbooks are prescribed for all of the undergraduate Marketing modules. While some lecturers supplement this by setting additional readings (such as research articles or case studies), others rely exclusively on the prescribed textbook in teaching their modules. Because the focus of the study was on the first semester of third-year, I concentrated on the prescribed textbooks for the two first-semester level-three modules.

The course outlines and assessment tasks (tests and assignments) set by the lecturers were included because these documents play an important role in conveying lecturers’ expectations to
students and thus in shaping students’ conceptions of valued literacy practices. All such handouts for the two first-semester level-three modules were included in the sample.

Because feedback plays a crucial role in clarifying lecturers’ expectations of literacy practices for students and in shaping students’ conceptions of these practices, I wanted to explore the nature of the feedback that students were given on their work. I thus focussed on students’ test and assignment scripts, as these scripts are returned to students with feedback. Exam scripts were not included in the sample because exams are written at the end of the course and these scripts are not returned to students – and thus generally do not contain much, if any, feedback. I asked all the student participants to let me make copies of their test and assignment scripts for the two first-semester level-three modules. Four of the nine students brought in their scripts, though only one of these brought in every piece of work they had done in these modules. In total, ten pieces of work were handed to me by the students.

3.4. Data analysis

3.4.1. Transcribing the data

As indicated previously, I transcribed the audio recordings of the interviews myself. Henning et al (2004) recommend that researchers do their own transcriptions as this slow process helps them to get closer to the data and to know it better (which will then impact positively on the subsequent labeling of units of meaning). Indeed, during the transcription process I found that being able to ‘return’ to the interview and ‘re-hear’ original voices, with all the hesitancies and so on, enabled a new level of listening that was simply not possible during the actual interview.

Because audio and video recordings comprise the major data sources in qualitative research, there is a large body of literature on the transcription of these recordings, much of which relates to the ‘constructional character of transcription’ (Hammersley, 2010). Transcription involves a range of decisions, such as whether to transcribe a recording, how much of it to transcribe, how to represent the recorded talk, whether non-verbal elements and gestures should be included, whether pauses and silences should be included and, if so, whether they should be timed, how to label speakers and lay out the transcripts and where to begin and end extracts for use in research reports (Hammersley, 2010). Thus transcribers are involved in at least two kinds of constructive activity: selectivity and “the unavoidable use of cultural knowledge and skills...to interpret and represent what is going on” (Hammersley, 2010, p.558). In this study, all recordings were transcribed verbatim, that is, in addition to the words spoken by the interviewees, silences, pauses, hesitations, laughter, interruptions and some gestures (such as nodding) were noted on the transcriptions.
3.4.2. Organising the data

The transcription process resulted in approximately 600 pages of transcribed data. I thus needed to find a way of organising and managing the data so that it was easier to work with. Although I had initially planned on using NVivo for this purpose, conversations with researchers who had used this software made me realise that it would be possible to use word-processing software (Microsoft Word) instead. I did this in two ways.

First, I summarised the interviews in tabular form, separately for the students and the lecturers. I created two tables with participants names on the horizontal axis and the broad topics covered during the interview on the vertical axis, and summarised responses in the relevant cells. This provided a useful broad overview of the interviews. For example, it was easy for me to see at a glance how many of the participants had preferred Response A or Response B in the stimulus piece, and the reasons for their choices. Side-by-side comparisons of the two tables thus also facilitated the identification of any differences in patterns of responses between the two groups of participants.

Second, I used the ‘comment’ feature to highlight and ‘code’ recurrent patterns in the interview transcripts. This feature places the codes in the margin, and also allows space for analytic notes. Having coded the interview data, I looked for patterns and relations between different codes/categories. Related categories were grouped together into themes. I then copied data with the same or related codes into separate documents, so that all of the ‘evidence’ relating to a particular ‘theme’ was located in the same place.

Organising the data in the manner outlined above made it more manageable to work with. It also enabled me to get a feel for the data in its own terms, before looking at it through any specific theoretical lens. This was important because it facilitated the identification of issues that may not have otherwise emerged. For example, there was a strong discourse of ‘blame’ that emerged during the thematic organisation of the data during this stage. However, an LCT analysis, which applies a ‘pre-defined’ framework to data, would not have been able to pick up on this. Because this process of organising the data began while the data collection was still in progress, it also enabled me to raise in the remaining interviews any interesting issues that had started to emerge in the earlier interviews. Having organised the data, however, the next step involved looking at the data through the lens of theory.

60 An extract from the coding schedule, relating to the theme ‘conceptions of Marketing’ is included in Appendix H.
3.4.3. Analysing the data

As established previously, analysis was done in two stages. In the first stage, an analysis using LCT was carried out. The second stage involved the use of CDA.

3.4.3.1. First stage of analysis: LCT

Before the LCT analysis of the interview data could be undertaken, it was necessary to develop a language of description for the study that allowed for translation between the theory and data. The identification of a theoretical framework and concepts that are appropriate to the research area of interest is not sufficient in itself to enable analysis of data. This is because the same theoretical concept may manifest differently in different studies - for example, Chen (2010, p.77) points out that the concept of ‘knower code’ manifests as “an emphasis on one being a member of a particular culture, or having experience with that culture” in Doherty’s (2008) study, and as “an emphasis on one’s aptitude, attitude and personal expression” in Lamont & Maton’s (2008) study. Different realisations of the same concept may be attributed to different objects of study, as well as to the particularities of different contexts (Chen, 2010). Thus, it was necessary for me to devise an ‘external language of description’ (also referred to as an ‘analytical device’, ‘reading device’ or ‘translation device’) in order to show the relation and movement between the theory and the data in this specific study.

![Figure 3.1: The relation between theory and data in the study](image)

Doing this served a number of important purposes. First, it facilitated the process of analysis by transforming abstract theoretical concepts into clear working definitions of how the concepts were represented in my data, thus making it easier for me to see the concepts ‘at work’ in my study. Second, it would make explicit to others how I made judgements about matching particular data to particular theoretical concepts, thereby contributing to the trustworthiness of the study. Third, Chen (2010) adds that constructing such a translation device prevents a theory from simply being imposed on the data; instead it allows for other information (influenced by the object of study and the particular context) to also emerge from the data. The external language of description for this study is outlined in Table 3.4.
Table 3.4: External language of description for LCT concepts and interview data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Description of concept</th>
<th>How concept manifests in this study</th>
<th>Example from interview data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specialisation</td>
<td>Epistemic relations</td>
<td>ER+</td>
<td>Knowledge, skills, procedures and techniques are strongly bounded and controlled. (+C, +F of ER)</td>
<td>Emphasis is placed on students’ possession of specialist Marketing content knowledge, skills, procedures and techniques.</td>
<td>“they’re going to have to acquire the Marketing knowledge, the Marketing terminologies...so, Marketing speak” (Kamini)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ER-</td>
<td>Knowledge, skills, procedures and techniques are weakly bounded and controlled. (-C, -F of ER)</td>
<td>The possession of specialist Marketing content knowledge, skills, procedures and techniques is downplayed. There is some degree of overlap with, or drawing on, other disciplines.</td>
<td>“…it’s also funny how people that don’t have a proper background in Marketing - or even if it was Supply Chain or whatever – they don’t have a proper background, but they get into the [Marketing] Honours system...” (Kamini)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social relations</td>
<td>SR+</td>
<td>The subject as the author is emphasised. (+C, +F of SR)</td>
<td>Emphasis is placed on students’ dispositions, attributes, characteristics and backgrounds.</td>
<td>“...the creativity, coming up with concepts, making like a brand...you make the brand alive” (Nothando)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SR-</td>
<td>The subject as the author is downplayed. (-C, -F of SR)</td>
<td>Students’ dispositions, attributes, characteristics and backgrounds are downplayed.</td>
<td>“everybody finds it easy to get here” (Kamini)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantics</td>
<td>Semantic gravity</td>
<td>SG+</td>
<td>Meaning is closely bound to its context. (+C, +F of SG)</td>
<td>Emphasis is placed on application, practicality, relevance and the usefulness of knowledge in specific contexts or cases.</td>
<td>“We study about things that we see in the market, you know, the things that are happening in front of our eyes, so it’s quite nice to study something that is so practical” (Ben)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SG-</td>
<td>Meaning is less dependent on its context. (-C, -F of SG)</td>
<td>Application, practicality, relevance and specific contexts are downplayed in favour of more abstract meanings or ‘theory’.</td>
<td>“There’s this whole...er...I think, custom of rote learning – just study and just spit out the theory with very little application” (Nisha)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semantic density</td>
<td>SD+</td>
<td>Greater condensation of meaning in symbols. (+C, +F of SD)</td>
<td>Meaning is not directly or easily accessible.</td>
<td>“Um, sometimes the concepts are hard...I just couldn’t understand it. She explained it, but I couldn’t understand it” (Thuli)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SD-</td>
<td>Less condensation of meaning in symbols. (-C, -F of SD)</td>
<td>Meaning is more direct and thus more easily accessible.</td>
<td>“Marketing... it’s to the point... There’s no, like, okay, hidden metaphors or semantics used or whatever” (Kiara)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table continues on next page...*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Description of concept</th>
<th>How concept manifests in this study</th>
<th>Example from interview data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td></td>
<td>Positional autonomy</td>
<td>PA+</td>
<td>Stronger insulation from external control. (+C, +F of PA)</td>
<td>Emphasis is placed on Marketing lecturers having the power to run the discipline of Marketing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PA-</td>
<td>Weaker insulation from external control. (-C, -F of PA)</td>
<td>Downplays the power of Marketing lecturers to run the discipline of Marketing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relational autonomy</td>
<td>RA+</td>
<td>Stronger control over how the field is run. (+C, +F of RA)</td>
<td>Emphasises ways of working drawn from within academia.</td>
<td>“It all has to do with theory. It’s just everything theory, theory. And then I just wonder, if in the outside world, will they be asking us about the theory?” (Nothando)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>RA-</td>
<td>Weaker control over how the field is run. (-C, -F of RA)</td>
<td>Downplays ways of working from academia, in favour of those from other fields, such as business.</td>
<td>“…’cos ideally this is a business essay that you’re looking at, you’re marking it from a business perspective” (Nisha)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporality</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>+C</td>
<td>Older. (+C)</td>
<td>Emphasises age and being long-established.</td>
<td>“…an historical...perfect science like Accounting” (Michael)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-C</td>
<td>Younger. (-C)</td>
<td>Emphasises youth and recency.</td>
<td>“…there’s lots of new areas in [subject] at a third level” (Nisha)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Orientation</td>
<td>+F</td>
<td>Backward-looking. (+F).</td>
<td>Greater emphasis on and/or influence from the past, tradition, history, the way things were.</td>
<td>“The one year I had a good class…and I think up ‘til now, I’m still trying to find that standard” (Kamini)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-F</td>
<td>Forward-looking. (-F)</td>
<td>Greater emphasis on the future, change, transition, adaptation, moving forward.</td>
<td>“The difficulty they have with Marketing is that moving from...from the present to the future” (Michael)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density</td>
<td>Material density</td>
<td>MaD+</td>
<td>Fragmented contents (+C, +F of MaD)</td>
<td>Emphasises size, scale, quantity (e.g. classes, courses).</td>
<td>“It’s impossible with 250-plus” (Kamini)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MaD-</td>
<td>Coherent contents (-C, -F of MoD)</td>
<td>Size, scale and quantity are downplayed.</td>
<td>“It [the curriculum] needs to be pulled together” (Michael)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moral density</td>
<td>MoD+</td>
<td>Heterogeneous beliefs (+C, +F of MoD)</td>
<td>Emphasises diversity of viewpoints.</td>
<td>“we are given a lot of room to...say our feelings” (Amantha)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MoD-</td>
<td>Homogenous beliefs (-C, -F of MoD)</td>
<td>Diversity of viewpoints is downplayed.</td>
<td>“our focus is only on, um, quantitative research” (Kamini)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Based on Chen (2010) and Carvalho (2010)*

61 ‘Rate of change’ and ‘differentiation’ are not included (under Temporality and Density respectively) as these aspects are given by the interaction of the other two aspects of the relevant dimension of legitimation.
3.4.3.2. Second stage of analysis: CDA

CDA "involves the use of discourse analytic techniques, combined with a critical perspective, to interrogate social phenomena" (Ainsworth & Hardy, 2004, p.236). In this section, I outline my rationale for the use of CDA in this study and provide a general overview of CDA before describing the process of conducting an analysis using a CDA approach.

Rationale for use of CDA

As noted earlier in this chapter, a social realist approach views the consideration of both structure and agency as necessary in any analysis. In this study, while LCT enables the structuring of knowledge and practices in Marketing to be explored, it is not suited to an exploration of agency. Thus CDA is used to complement the LCT analysis by enabling an examination of agents’ practices in the world inhabited by Marketing at UKZN, as well as the contextual and power dimensions that come into play in this world and that impact on what is seen to be legitimate in the discipline and thus on agents’ practices. Specifically, for this study, CDA enables insight into how agents in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN position themselves and others – and what the consequences of this positioning are for the formation of students’ Marketing identities and thus for their achievement of epistemological access in Marketing.

CDA is an appropriate methodology for this study as it is well suited to unpacking the multi-layered phenomenon of academic literacy, and is useful when the researcher is part of the context (Picard, 2007). There is also rapid growth in the use of CDA as a methodology in education research (Rogers et al., 2005). In an educational context in which institutions “are being called upon to provide access and equity to increasingly heterogenous student populations, the tensions between official discourses and minority discourses should be principal focuses for educational research” (Luke, 1995-6, p.38). CDA, with its “capacity to show the power relations of apparently mundane texts at work, to represent and interpret instances of everyday talk, reading and writing” (Luke, 1995-6, p.40), can help to further this research agenda.

The use of CDA in this study is also fitting in terms of its coherence with work falling under the ambit of New Literacy Studies (NLS) - such as Gee’s Discourse Theory and ‘academic literacies’ research - which contribute to the theoretical framing for the study. In fact, it has been asserted that “familiarity with critical discourse analysis would seem to be a requisite for scholars interested in discussions of the social contexts of literacy, literacy and empowerment, and the new literacy studies” (Bloome & Talwalkar, 1997, p.111). Researchers (such as Lillis, 2001; Mohamed & Banda, 2008) have thus productively combined perspectives from these two fields in their work. The use of CDA both complements and supplements the use of much NLS research. While both NLS and CDA highlight social context and the forces at play within them, the
foregrounding of power in CDA extends that in NLS. As pointed out in Chapter 2, it has been asserted that in NLS the consideration of power relations is implicit in the definition of reading and writing as social and cultural processes, events and practices, but that explicit discussion of power issues has been limited (Bloome & Talwalkar, 1997). CDA, on the other hand, centralises issues of power. Critical discourse analysts “locate power in the arena of language as a social practice” (Rogers et al, 2005, p.369). The use of CDA in this study is thus also in line with a call by Robson and Rowe for Marketing academics to begin to use techniques that facilitate the uncovering of “ideology and power/control discourses” by “questioning the marketing rhetoric” (1997, p.665).

**Historical development of CDA**

CDA evolved from discourse analysis (DA), which itself evolved from linguistic studies, semiotics and literary criticism (Starks & Trinidad, 2007). Discourse analysts explore “how knowledge, meaning, identities, and social goods are negotiated and constructed through language-in-use” (Starks & Trinidad, 2007, p.1374). Discourse analysts see language in itself as essentially meaningless; rather, meaning is created through shared, agreed-upon language use. However, as established in Chapter 2, this ‘sharing’ of and ‘agreement’ on meaning can only be accomplished because the language in play is being spoken by those who belong to the same Discourse. Thus, language plays a role in both mediating and constructing our understanding of reality and is linked to social roles and identity. Analysing language from a discourse perspective can provide insight into how social norms are created and maintained, how personal and group identities are constructed and how social and political interaction is negotiated. It is thus not surprising that it has been claimed that “language (and language use) is increasingly being understood as the most important phenomenon, accessible for empirical investigation, in social and organizational research” (Alvesson & Karreman, 2000, p.1126). DA is thus a productive perspective from which to explore students’ experiences of learning (Marshall & Case, 2005).

Within the “large and highly differentiated” field of DA (Lee, 2005, p.356), however, there are many approaches. Phillips & Hardy (2002) present a useful framework (Figure 3.2) for categorising these approaches in terms of two dimensions: the degree to which text or context is emphasised, and the degree to which the focus is constructivist (i.e. on processes of social construction) or critical (i.e. on power and ideology).
It is important to note that the axes should be viewed as continua rather than dichotomies. However, while text and context are both important in DA, it is evident from Figure 3.2 that CDA places greater emphasis on context rather than on the close, micro level analysis of text. This is in line with a trend in discourse research in which interest has shifted over the years from ‘vocabulary’ and ‘sentence grammar’ to ‘paragraphing’ to ‘genre structure’ to ‘Discourses’ (as understood by Gee) where the focus is on the “enveloping social contexts” in which language is used (Scollon, 1995, p.381). Wodak and Meyer agree that “only a very few linguistic devices are central to CDA studies” (2009, p.21). Likewise, it should be clear from Figure 3.2 that in CDA more emphasis is placed on issues of power and ideology rather than on the processes of social construction. While linguists in general are interested in language and discourse for their own sake in terms of how they ‘work’, critical discourse analysts are more interested in “the way in which language and discourse are used to achieve social goals and in the part this use plays in social maintenance and change” (Bloor & Bloor, 2007, p. 2).

While CDA has its roots in the late-1970s work of Kress, Fowler, Hodge and Trew (Whittaker et al, 2007), Norman Fairclough’s book Language and Power, published in 1989, “is commonly considered to be the landmark publication for the ‘start’ of CDA” (Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000, p.454). It is thus unsurprising that Fairclough is considered to be a leading figure in CDA (Bloome & Talwalkar, 1997) and is the most commonly cited theorist in the CDA literature (Leitch & Palmer, 2010). Other theorists associated with the development of CDA in the early 1990s are Ruth Wodak, Teun van Dijk, Gunther Kress and Theo van Leeuwen. Their 1991 meeting in Amsterdam, also attended by Fairclough, is “often viewed as ‘the’ formal and institutionalised beginning of CDA” (Kendall, 2007, paragraph 12).
According to Fairclough “(a)ny discursive ‘event’ (i.e. any instance of discourse) is seen as being simultaneously a piece of text, an instance of discursive practice, an instance of social practice” (1992, p.4). Because CDA brings together the analysis of texts and social theory (Rogers et al, 2005), it is informed by a broad range of influences. With regard to textual analysis, CDA often draws on Halliday’s Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (Fairclough, 1995; Bloor & Bloor, 2007; Whittaker et al, 2007). This is because SFL “stresses the importance of social context (the context of culture and the context of situation) in the production and development of language, both historically and in terms of meaning in individual discourse events” (Bloor & Bloor, 2007, p. 2). This approach, with its focus on social context, is thus in line with CDA’s aim of bringing textual analysis and social theory together. Additionally, “functional linguistics, unlike some branches of linguistics, has always been concerned not only with words and sentences, but also with longer texts and collections of texts (corpora) above the level of the sentence” (Bloor & Bloor, 2007, p. 2). Again this fits well with CDA which, as previously indicated, tends to place less emphasis on micro level textual analysis than is the case with some other approaches to discourse analysis. Other influences on practical techniques in CDA come from pragmatics, narratology and speech act theory (Luke, 1997). With regard to social theory, CDA has a social constructionist underpinning (Paltridge, 2000) and draws on disciplines such as sociology, anthropology, ethnography and ethnomethodology, which study social structures and groups (Bloor & Bloor, 2007).

**Key terms and constructs in CDA**

CDA encompasses multiple schools or approaches, which vary with regard to their theoretical underpinnings, methodologies and topics for research (McGregor, 2003; De Beaugrande, 2006; Bloor & Bloor, 2007; Kendall, 2007; Mohamed & Banda, 2008). However, the key terms ‘critical’, ‘discourse’ and ‘analysis’ provide the necessary underpinning commonality that allows CDA to be described as a methodological approach (Leitch & Palmer, 2010). Because some of these key terms (‘discourse’ and ‘analysis’) are discussed elsewhere, I do not engage with them further here. However, other important concepts in CDA, such as ‘critical’, ‘text’ and ‘context’, are briefly outlined below.

**Critical**

Wodak offers the following understanding of what being ‘critical’ in CDA encompasses:

---

62 These two contexts are described in the next section.

63 ‘Discourse’ was discussed in Chapter 2, and ‘analysis’ from a CDA perspective is covered later in this section.
'Critical' means not taking things for granted, opening up complexity, challenging reductionism, dogmatism and dichotomies, being self-reflective in my research, and through these processes, making opaque structures of power relations and ideologies manifest. 'Critical', thus, does not imply the common sense meaning of 'being negative' – rather 'sceptical'. Proposing alternatives is also part of being 'critical' (in Kendall, 2007, paragraph 17).

Text

Texts have been described as sites of struggle where different ideologies and discourses vie for dominance (Kress, 1989, cited in Bloor & Bloor, 2007; Leitch & Palmer, 2010). Text is thus seen to be "a product of discourse" (Bloor & Bloor, 2007, p.7) and is the principal unit of analysis for CDA (Luke, 1997).

Leitch and Palmer show how understandings of what constitutes ‘text’ in CDA theory have expanded; the spectrum they present ranges from definitions that are narrow (texts as written language), to broader conceptions (texts as “manifestations of discursive practice and as encompassing both spoken and written language”), to an understanding of texts as “potentially anything that is created by humans to communicate meaning”, including sounds, images, symbols, artefacts and so on (2010, p.1196).

Furthermore, contemporary texts are frequently multimodal (Luke, 1995-1996; New London Group, 1996, 2000; Kress, 2000, 2003, 2010). With the development of the field of semiotics, ‘text’ has expanded exponentially in possible meaning and could be taken to refer to anything off which one can ‘read’ meaning – such as a body, a sign or a painting – and not just to an extended piece of writing. This is in line with Gee’s (2005) understanding of Discourse, as outlined in Chapter 2. While thus acknowledging that text can be understood very broadly, in this study the focus of analysis is on spoken and written texts (interviews and documents), and the languages of legitimation that they embody.

Context

Bloor and Bloor see “both context and language as inextricably bound together in the production of meaning” (2007, p.26, emphasis in original). However, Leitch and Palmer (2010) assert that ‘context’ has tended to be neglected in CDA, pointing to the lack of agreement in the literature as to what constitutes context and how context should be linked to text. Indeed, Rogers (2004b) identifies context as one of the guiding questions for the ongoing development of the field (see also Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000). As noted in Chapter 2, Halliday (1999) makes reference to the ‘context of culture’ and the ‘context of situation’. The context of culture includes “the traditions, the institutions, the discourse communities, the historical context and the knowledge base of the
participants”, while the context of situation focuses on “the various elements involved in the direct production of meanings in a particular instance of communication” such as the setting and the identity of the participants (Bloor & Bloor, 2007, p.27).

Apart from the lack of clarity as to context, as mentioned above, other criticisms of CDA have also been raised.

**Criticisms of CDA**

In their review of the use of CDA in educational research, Rogers et al. note that the most common critiques of CDA are “(a) that political and social ideologies are read into the data; (b) that there is an imbalance between social theory, on the one hand, and linguistic theory and method, on the other; and (c) that CDA is often divorced from social contexts” (2005, p.372).

It has been said that CDA privileges a negative view of power, thereby overlooking its transformative potential (Bloome & Talwalker, 1997; O’Regan, 2005). Accordingly, it has been suggested that “the language as a social practice dimensions of CDA should be privileged over the discursive construction of domination” (O’Regan, 2005, p.577).

Antaki et al. (2003) warn researchers to avoid the ‘methodological troubles’ of DA in general, which they see as: under-analysis through summary; under-analysis through taking sides; under-analysis through over-quotation or through isolated quotation; the circular identification of discourses and mental constructs; false survey; and analysis that consists in simply spotting features. Indeed, much of the criticism of CDA has to do with methodological issues. The field has been described by critics as “a miscellany of methodologies”, a point that De Beaugrande (2006, p.45) concedes. Additionally, Blommaert and Bulcaen assert that CDA is “burdened by a very ‘linguistic’ outlook” and would benefit from a stance in which “linguistic practice is embedded in more general patterns of human meaningful action” (2000, p.461).

Concerns have been raised about rigour and quality in CDA (Wodak & Meyer, 2009). Korobov (2001) asserts that much CDA work is merely ideological because it is not sufficiently grounded in empirical data. Whittaker et al. agree that earlier CDA work has tended to be anecdotal instead of systematic, but also point out that “increasingly, analysts have turned to SFL to inform deeper, grammatically based analyses of text” (2007, p.1). In addition to the increasing use of SFL, other important developments in CDA include a new focus on identity politics, language policies, integrating macro social theories with linguistic analysis, and multimodality (Wodak, in Kendall, 2007, paragraph 19).
Some of the aforementioned criticisms may be linked to the inductive nature of CDA. As noted earlier in the chapter, in this study, a deductive tool (LCT) was brought into the study to complement the use of CDA.

**Analysis in CDA**

The main question to be asked in DA is: "What discourse(s) frame(s) the language action and the way in which the participants make sense of their reality and how was this discourse produced and how is it maintained in the social context?" Furthermore, the articulation between discourses and the consequences of perpetuating the discourses are of interest (Henning *et al*., 2004, pp.117-118).

Scholars adopting a CDA approach argue that their analyses differ from 'non critical' DA by going beyond describing and interpreting the role of language and discourse in the social world. The performative aspects of discourse are crucial – "it is what a discourse does, rather than what it represents and how it represents it, which is the central explanatory issue" (Reed, 2000, p.528). Discourses, from a CDA perspective, are seen to construct reality in certain ways and to prevent or limit alternative constructions. Discourses thus have power. CDA focuses on how language mediates power and privilege relationships in social interactions, bodies of knowledge and institutions - thus bringing together textual analysis and social theory (Rogers *et al*., 2005). Discourse is critically analysed to explore how identities are constructed and positioned, and the power implications thereof.

Paltridge (2000, p.156) states that CDA differs from other types of DA "in that it tries to unite the levels of text, the discursive practices that create and interpret a text, and the social context in which texts occur. An important aim of critical discourse analysis is to show how these are interrelated". (See also Janks, 1997). Fairclough's three-tiered framework (see Figure 3.3) which focuses on the analysis of texts, interactions and social practices at the local, institutional and societal levels, is commonly used in CDA.

However, Gee (2004, in Rogers *et al*., 2005) states that any analysis of language is inherently critical and thus does not refer to his own approach as CDA (uppercase) but as critical discourse analysis (lowercase cda). He sees his critically oriented form of discourse analysis as including a wider array of approaches than the brand of CDA associated with Fairclough and others.
Nevertheless, a comparison of Fairclough and Gee’s approaches to CDA reveals that they agree on many central elements and that their methods for analysing the relationship between linguistic and social structures are complementary (Rogers, 2004c). Following Halliday (Halliday & Hasan, 1989), both Fairclough and Gee see the metafunctions of language as involving ideational/experiential, interpersonal and textual functions. Furthermore, “there is a good deal of overlap between Gee and Fairclough’s frameworks in the interpersonal and ideational domains of Discourse. This level of analysis involves the way in which language is represented and the social identities that are carried with such representations” (Rogers, 2004c, pp.240-241).

Figure 3.3: The relationship of dimensions of discourse analysis to dimensions of discourse

Researchers thus often combine aspects of Gee and Fairclough’s theories, methods and frameworks in their analyses (for examples of such work, see Rogers, 2004a). Of relevance to this study McNamara (2007), in his study of the academic discipline of Nursing using LCT and CDA, uses Fairclough’s framework and concepts (such as genre, discourse and style) to provide macro level framing for his study, and Gee’s building tasks of language and tools of inquiry at a micro level.

Fairclough et al (2001, p.17) describe discourses, genres and styles as follows:

- genres are “ways of acting and interacting in their specifically semiotic aspect; they are ways of regulating (inter)action”;
- discourses are “positioned ways of representing - representing other social practices as well as the material world, and reflexively representing this social practice, from particular positions in social practices”;
- styles are “ways of being, identities in their specifically semiotic (as opposed to bodily/material) aspect”.

Rogers describes Gee’s building tasks of language (see Table 3.5) as linking “grammatical aspects of language with social languages” (2004c, p.239), or discourse with Discourse.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BUILDING TASK</th>
<th>ANALYSIS QUESTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>How is this piece of language being used to make certain things significant or not and in what ways?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>What activity or activities is this piece of language being used to enact (i.e. get others to recognise as going on)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identities</td>
<td>What identity or identities is this piece of language being used to enact (i.e. get others to recognise as operative)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>What sort of relationship or relationships is this piece of language seeking to enact with others (present or not)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politics (the distribution of social goods)</td>
<td>What perspective on social goods is this piece of language communicating (i.e. what is being communicated as to what is taken to be ‘normal’, ‘right’, ‘good’, ‘correct’, ‘proper’, ‘appropriate’, valuable’, ‘the way things are’, ‘the way things ought to be’, ‘high status or low status’, ‘like me or not like me’ and so forth)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connections</td>
<td>How does this piece of language connect or disconnect things; how does it make one thing relevant or irrelevant to another?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sign systems and knowledge</td>
<td>How does this piece of language privilege or disprivilege specific sign systems (e.g. Spanish vs. English, technical language vs. everyday language, words vs. images, words vs. equations) or different ways of knowing and believing or claims to knowledge and belief?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: based on Gee (2005, pp.11-13)

In this study, the primary focus of the analysis that is undertaken from a CDA perspective (in Chapter 5) is on the building of identities, for reasons that will become apparent in Chapter 4. As
mentioned earlier, CDA is an inductive process. Therefore, unlike LCT, it does not develop into a
deductive external language of description which is specified in advance.

3.5. Trustworthiness

‘Validity’ in qualitative research relates to trustworthiness and lies in good craftsmanship,
precision, the essential reasoning for the choices and decisions made, member checks, usability
and being able to get the ideas accepted in the discourse community (Henning et al 2004). Good
research is therefore linked to judgement made by such a community as expressed through its
literature and arguments. Analytic credibility relies on the coherence of the argument and the
trustworthiness of the process is judged by the analyst’s use of interview evidence to support
points, and by the convergence of the building tasks of language towards a convincing
explanation (Gee, 2005, in Starks & Trinidad, 2007). In judging the ‘goodness’ or quality of a
critical inquiry, attention must also be paid to its historical situatedness and the extent to which it
stimulates transformation of the existing situation (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Awareness of bias is
also important in qualitative research (Henning et al, 2004; Cohen et al, 2000). Qualitative
analysis is “inherently subjective because the researcher is the instrument for analysis” (Starks &
Trinidad, 2007, p.1376). It is thus incumbent upon the researcher to make explicit her position in
the analytic process, as this situates the analysis and enables readers to understand the analyst’s
perspective when weighing the evidence. From a critical perspective, however, it is not only
impossible but also undesirable to exclude values from inquiry as this would not be in the
interests of the ‘powerless’ and at ‘at-risk’ (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Van Dijk states that CDA
cannot be neutral, as “the point of critical discourse analysis is to take a position” (1993, p.270).
Additionally, Korobov asserts that it is not just rigour and systematicity that make for good
analysis; the ability to “say useful and interesting things about ideological contexts, structures,
and the possibility for change” is also important (2001, paragraph 21, citing Wetherell, 1998).

Bearing the above in mind, in this study I have taken the following measures aimed at building the
trustworthiness of the study:

- in this chapter, I have provided a rationale for the choices that were made in designing
  the study and have highlighted any limitations that may be associated with these choices;
- I have undertaken ‘member checks’ in two ways: (1) by summarising my understanding
  of participants’ input during interviews, so as to check that my understanding and
  interpretation was in line with their intentions; (2) by offering participants access to their
  interview transcripts and recordings so that they could check the accuracy of my
  transcribing;
• at significant stages of the process of analysis, I have analysed the same short data extracts with my supervisors, so as to get feedback on the coherence of my analyses and arguments;
• I have used interview data to support my analyses and arguments;
• I have been up front about my own position and biases. This has been done by providing some personal context in Chapter 1 and by explicitly stating my ideological position in relation to the study in Chapters 1 and 3.

3.6. Ethical issues
Ethical clearance for the study was granted by the University Research Committee.\textsuperscript{64} Permission for the study was granted by relevant gatekeepers and informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to the commencement of their interviews. As all student participants were at least eighteen years old, parental consent was not required. Ethical considerations related to the scheduling of the student interviews, the maintenance of anonymity and researcher-participant relationships have been outlined in appropriate sections in this chapter.

3.7. Conclusion
This chapter has provided an overview of the broad approaches that frame the study (that is, social realism, a qualitative approach and insider research) and has considered their methodological implications for the study. It has also provided a detailed description of the research design, with regard to aspects such as the selection of participants and the choice of data collection methods. Additionally, the analytical tools employed, LCT and CDA, were discussed. It was noted that both tools can be used to identify structures and mechanisms at the level of the real, as understood from a critical realist perspective, from which events and experiences emerge; however, LCT functions as a deductive analysis tool, while CDA is an inductive approach. Accordingly, a language of description was developed to enable for translation between theoretical concepts in the LCT framework and the empirical data in this study.

Having in this chapter specified how the concepts and theories that were identified in Chapter 2 as being pertinent to the study’s research questions would be operationalised in the empirical research undertaken in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN, I now move on to the analysis of data, which will be presented in the following two chapters. As noted earlier in this chapter, the analyses presented in these chapters represents a move from an internal focus on the educational logics of Marketing (i.e. the LCT analysis in Chapter 4) towards a broader consideration of contextual and power dimensions (i.e. the CDA analysis in Chapter 5).

\textsuperscript{64} See Appendix I for a copy of the ethical clearance letter.
CHAPTER 4
The academic discipline of Marketing

4.1 Introduction
This is the first of two chapters that present analyses of the discipline of Marketing using the analytical tools that were discussed in Chapter 3 (LCT and CDA). This chapter analyses Marketing as an academic discipline in general, as well as in the specific context of UKZN, using LCT in order to identify what are considered to be the legitimate bases for participation, status and achievement in the discipline. This analysis therefore gives insight into the legitimate ways of knowing and being in the discipline and what constitutes epistemological access to Marketing. It is thus relevant to addressing the first research question. Chapter 5 then focuses on analysing educational practices in Marketing at UKZN, drawing on CDA to highlight how contextual and power issues may impact on the achievement of the ways of knowing and being identified as being important for success in the discipline, and thus on epistemological access. Accordingly, this analysis is pertinent to the second research question.

I begin this chapter by providing some background to the academic discipline of Marketing – first in general (based on a review of the Marketing literature) and then in the specific context of UKZN. I then move on to an LCT analysis of Marketing. As discussed in Chapter 2, the significance of an LCT analysis for this study is that it enables conceptualisation of the ‘rules of the game’ or the underlying principles and logics that structure the discipline of Marketing. From a critical realist perspective, primary importance is attached to such underlying mechanisms that occur at the level of the real and that give rise to events and experiences.

The analysis of the discipline in general draws on viewpoints arising in the scholarly literature of Marketing, which are conceptualised as ‘languages of legitimation’ (Maton, 2005a). As such, these viewpoints represent claims for what is considered legitimate in the discipline of Marketing as dominant bases for participation, achievement and status (Maton, 2009).

The analysis of Marketing at UKZN draws on interview data and course documentation, again treating the viewpoints and practices embodied therein as languages of legitimation.

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65 It should be noted that, with regard to the discussion of Marketing as a discipline in general, both the background to the discipline (Section 4.2.1) and the LCT analysis (Section 4.3) draw on the Marketing literature. Thus, in order to avoid undue repetition, any aspects that will be covered in the LCT analysis (and/or in the analysis in Chapter 5) are omitted from, or treated very briefly in, Section 4.2.1.
4.2 Background to the academic discipline of Marketing

4.2.1 The discipline generally

Marketing defined
Marketing has been described as multi-faceted: it is “a philosophy, an attitude, a perspective, and a management orientation that stresses customer satisfaction” and “a set of activities used to implement this philosophy” (Lamb et al., 2008, p.4). The definition of marketing adopted by the American Marketing Association (AMA) tends to be widely quoted in industry and academia worldwide and is periodically revised to reflect shifts in the marketing world (AMA, 2008). The most recent definition was unveiled in 2008 and describes marketing as “the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large” (AMA, 2008, p.2). This new definition presents marketing as a much broader activity than some previous definitions, which tended to view marketing more narrowly as an organisational function or management system (Wilkie & Moore, 2007; AMA, 2008). The career opportunities available to Marketing graduates are thus varied, and include marketing management, advertising, brand management, retail, and marketing research.

Marketing as an academic discipline
In Chapter 2, it was noted that disciplines can be viewed as relatively autonomous social fields of practice comprising structures of knowledge and knowers who share norms relating to the production and communication of knowledge. In line with this understanding, Witkowski describes an academic discipline as “a field of teaching, writing and research” (2010, p.371).

Marketing as a specific academic discipline began in the early twentieth century (Shaw & Jones, 2005; Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006; Rust, 2006), mainly in the United States of America (USA) where the majority of research - and most likely teaching - still takes place (Easton, 2002). Important milestones in the development of Marketing as an academic discipline include the following: the first courses were offered at universities in the USA in the 1902-1903 academic year; by 1920 a number of Marketing textbooks were available; and in the mid-1930s the first specialised professional association and Marketing journals were launched (Witkowski, 2010).

From the beginning, Marketing scholars held different ideas about the nature of the discipline and by 1920, there were already three major schools of thought: the functions school (focusing on marketing activities), the commodity school (focusing on the classification of goods and services) and the institutional school (focusing on the work of middlemen). Nevertheless, early scholarship in the discipline held issues of marketing and society as central. And even though a managerial perspective was represented, it was only in the 1950s and 1960s that the managerial school became dominant in the discipline (Witkowski, 2010) – a situation that prevails today (Catterall et al., 2005; Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006; Rust, 2006).
The notions of ‘marketing concept’, ‘marketing mix’, ‘product life cycle’ and ‘market segmentation’ are just some of the concepts that have arisen out of the managerial school (Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006). The enduring influence of the managerial school on the discipline is clear from an overview of the core areas of study in the knowledge base of Marketing (Yiu, 2009), as represented in Table 4.1. These areas of study are taught in Marketing courses around the world.

Table 4.1: The knowledge base of the academic discipline of Marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AREA OF STUDY</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consumer behaviour</td>
<td>Focuses on understanding consumers’ needs, wants and decision-making processes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing research</td>
<td>Focuses on the process of gathering information about customers, markets and the external environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market segmentation and targeting</td>
<td>Focuses on the identification and selection of target markets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positioning and branding</td>
<td>Focuses on managing the product/service name, logo, design, features etc: so as to differentiate the organisations product/service from those of competitors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing mix</td>
<td>Often referred to as the ‘4 Ps’, this is a major focus of the Marketing discipline. The 4 Ps relate to the decisions that an organisation must make about its:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Product: product mix (breadth and depth of product offering); product line (product grouping); product life-cycle; services marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Price: break-even analysis; pricing strategies in different situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Place: channels of distribution for products and services, including retailing, wholesaling and physical distribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Promotion: marketing communication tools (e.g. advertising, personal selling, public relations, sales promotions, digital communications), media (e.g. broadcast, print, online) and strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer relationship management</td>
<td>Focuses on the retention of customers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International marketing</td>
<td>Focuses on marketing an organisation’s products in more than one country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing ethics</td>
<td>Focuses on the ethical considerations surrounding marketing decision-making and practice.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: based on Yiu (2009, pp.72-73)

The dominance of the managerial school within the discipline has been attributed to the practicality of its concepts (Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006). Marketing first emerged in business schools for the main purpose of assisting marketing managers to perform better in their jobs and the discipline’s applied orientation “ties academic thought in marketing to the real world” (Rust, 2006, p.1). As a consequence of this initial close relationship between marketing practice and Marketing academia the two are often implicitly equated, something that Wilkie (2007) cautions against in his call for greater distinction between the issues, behaviours and perspectives of each sphere. While some authors (for example, Rotfeld, 1996; Hunt, 2002; Holbrook, 2005) have supported the idea that Marketing be viewed as an academic discipline, rather than as a

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66 Yiu (2009) does not include services marketing as one of the core areas of Marketing knowledge, perhaps because services marketing could be considered an adaptation of ‘4 Ps’ marketing. Indeed, the marketing literature in previous years has included debate around the status of services marketing; however, many now view services marketing as a distinct field of study within marketing.
professional one focused on vocational training, for others “the vocational aim of marketing
degrees is now a given” (Wellman, 2010a, p.120). Indeed, much Marketing education research
focuses on evaluating Marketing curricula and graduates in relation to the needs and
expectations of the workplace (Smart, Kelley & Conant, 1999; Hunt, 2002; Aggarwal et al, 2007;
Fillis & Rentschler, 2008; Walker et al, 2009; Lincoln, 2010).

Marketing education
The Marketing literature shows ongoing interest in the gap between Marketing theory and
practice and recognition of the need to reflect critically on the value added by current
undergraduate Marketing curricula to students and to prospective employers (Smart, Kelley &
Conant, 1999; Aggarwal et al, 2007; Fillis & Rentschler, 2008). However, the bulk of the literature
on the outcomes of Marketing education has focused on the mismatch between graduate
attributes and the needs of employers and has thus tended to emphasise the perspectives of
employers and practitioners – and, to a lesser extent, academics – over students’ perspectives
and experiences. The literature also shows that the methodologies employed in research studies
in this area have been predominantly quantitative (Brownlie & Saren, 1997). This ‘gap debate’
must be broadened by academe’s acknowledging its duties and responsibilities to stakeholders
other than Marketing practitioners (Hunt, 2002) - primarily students – and by adopting research
approaches and methodologies which allow for deeper insight into the relevant issues (Brownlie
& Saren, 1997).

Much less attention has been given in the literature to the notion of a mismatch in the ways that
students and lecturers construct Marketing as an academic discipline and specifically the
academic literacies that are considered necessary for success in the discipline. Although
Kavanagh (1994, p.33) asserts that “marketing in the academy is a social construction”, the
language through which Marketing is constructed remains uncontested, pointing to a need for
research around language and discourse (Brownlie & Saren, 1997), as well as how academics
‘make’ Marketing and the practices that tie members together as a discipline or ‘tribe’ (Brownlie,
2007; see also Ferguson, 2008). In other words, there is a need for more reflexivity in Marketing.
Ahola et al (2008) contend that it is good practice to reflect critically on core disciplinary
assumptions and their socio-political consequences, especially given the pervasiveness in
contemporary society of Marketing practices and vocabulary; they thus see a need for a more
critical and reflexive approach to education so that future marketers are able to problematise the
taken-for-granted. Brownlie too indicates that an important step forward for the Marketing
discipline will be to “better understand how our knowledge-making practices are mediated by
institutionalized power relationships that govern our conduct as academic practitioners” (2007,
p.663).
There is “a limited literature on teaching marketing subjects” (Brownlie, 2007, p.666). Studies conducted in Australia and the United Kingdom (UK) indicate that students perceive the quality of teaching in ‘business’ to be lower than that in other areas of study; this perception may in part be related to the claim that “business faculties appear to have a distinctive culture of learning and teaching that sets them apart from other faculties” (Freeman & Johnston, 2008, p.63) - although the authors unfortunately do not elaborate on what this culture is. However, other authors have painted a picture of a traditional or ‘signature’ pedagogy (Shulman, 2005a, 2005b) in Marketing in which “students are generally passive recipients of lecture/tutorial materials” (Baron & Harris, 2006, p.294; see also Kelley & Bridges, 2005; Glenn, 2011). Given that signature pedagogies are seen to be “strong forces of socialisation” (Poole, 2009, p.54), there are likely to be implications here in terms of specialising consciousness in ways that enable students to participate effectively in the Discourse of Marketing. Dacko argues that Marketing education should instead “be based on the pillars of a project and dissertation, classroom debate and discussion, and oral presentations” (2006, p.83).

There are also criticisms in the literature of the approaches to learning adopted by business and management students. For example, Ottewill (2003) cites a number of studies in support of his assertion that student motivation, attitudes to learning and instrumental learning are problems facing business and management educators in particular. It is ironic that many students see business studies as providing access to a job, not an education (Graves, 1983, in Ottewill, 2003; Huber, 1990; Rotfeld, 1996; LaBarbera & Simonoff, 1999; Pappu, 2004; Holbrook, 2005), and thus perhaps adopt instrumental approaches – yet these same approaches result in criticism from potential employers on graduate attributes (see, for example, Skinner, 2005). Corporations want graduates who can take a broader view, and often prefer to hire and train non-business/Marketing graduates (Rotfeld, 1995 in Tamilia & Veilleux, 2007; Macfarlane, 1997b; Evans et al, 2002; Ackerman et al, 2003; Aggarwal et al, 2007; Glenn, 2011; Wallerstein, 2011).

Lack of student motivation could partly be due to the perception of management education as unchallenging and uncritical (Macfarlane, 1995; Brown, 1997; Cunliffe et al, 2002; Smith, 2008). Within management faculties, Marketing is often seen as a comparatively easy major that is not academically challenging or demanding (Aggarwal et al, 2007; Tregear et al, 2010). It frequently serves as a ‘default major’ for unsuccessful Accounting and Finance students (Hugstad, 1997, in LaBarbera & Simonoff, 1999; Carney & Williams, 2004). This may be due to Marketing modules generally being scheduled later in business degrees (Kleine, 2002) and thus attracting students

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67 This is fast changing, however, with the emergence of journals such as the Journal of Marketing Education and Marketing Education Review.
who may be unsuccessful in earlier modules or unsure of their majors and career ambitions (Hugstad, 1997, in LaBarbera & Simonoff, 1999). Additionally, some students may be drawn to Marketing because of its popularity and its image, despite not having a clear idea of what the discipline actually entails and what they will be studying (Evans et al, 2002, p.579, citing O’Brien & Deans, 1995; Parker, 2002). This is problematic because “the more a student identifies with being a marketing major, the more committed he or she will be to enacting behaviours that lead to success as a marketing student” (Kleine, 2002, p.15).

As noted previously, students and lecturers may hold different conceptions of what constitutes the Discourse of Marketing and how having a sound grasp of, and proficiency in, the disciplinary Discourse will enhance performance and understanding. For example, while various studies of academics’ and practitioners’ opinions have shown the importance of communication skills (especially written) for Marketing graduates, students do not rate this aspect as highly (Gray et al, 2002; Stringfellow et al, 2006; Melaia et al, 2008; Treleaven & Voola, 2008).

Established as an academic discipline a little over a century ago, Marketing is now a maturing area of study that has drawn on more established disciplines such as Economics, Psychology and Anthropology in its development (Rust, 2006). As outlined above, Marketing also has an applied, real world orientation. This has potential implications in terms of how the discipline is understood and how this understanding then impacts on the Discourse of Marketing. Social access, the social dimension in terms of gaining access to marketing practice, might also be important in this regard. As a discipline (or region) with boundaries that are fairly fluid and interdisciplinary, Marketing is an interesting choice within which to explore disciplinary Discourse. In this study, the exploration of the Discourse of Marketing takes place in the context of the discipline of Marketing at UKZN. Thus, before proceeding with the LCT analysis, I provide some background to Marketing at UKZN.

4.2.2 Marketing at UKZN

Some contextual background to the Discipline of Marketing at UKZN has already been presented in Chapters 1 and 3. In Chapter 1, the rationale for the study was discussed in terms of its relevance to national higher education, institutional, faculty and disciplinary contexts. In Chapter 3, the student and lecturer populations in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN were described in the discussion relating to the selection of participants. This section therefore very briefly summarises and then supplements information that has already been provided in those chapters. For reasons outlined in Chapter 3, the focus of this study is on the discipline of Marketing on the

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68 LaBarbera & Simonoff (1999) and Pappu (2004) indicate that students perceive marketing as providing access to a wide variety of career opportunities. Students also tend to view marketing as a ‘glamorous’, ‘creative’ and ‘fun’ career choice (personal communication).
Westville and Howard College campuses of UKZN, although Marketing is also offered on the Pietermaritzburg campus. Of these two campuses of interest, most Marketing students are based at Westville, as can be seen in Table 4.2, which provides student numbers for each of the five undergraduate Marketing modules per campus.

### Table 4.2: Number of students registered for undergraduate Marketing modules, 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Second year</th>
<th>Third year</th>
<th>Third year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First semester</td>
<td>First semester</td>
<td>Second semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Marketing</td>
<td>1 002</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Behaviour</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Research</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Communications</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Topics in Marketing</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UKZN Student Management System, accessed 09-11-2011

As indicated in Chapter 1, the large number of students taking *Introduction to Marketing* at Westville is because the course is compulsory for students on most programmes offered in the Faculty of Management Studies, even those not majoring in Marketing. Most students who do choose to major in Marketing, however, are registered for the Bachelor of Commerce (General) degree offered in the Faculty of Management Studies and are located on the Westville campus. Students from the Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Sciences may also select Marketing as a major. These students are located on the Howard College campus and most are registered for Bachelor of Social Science degrees. On both degrees, students can choose from a wide variety of majors in a range of disciplines. The structure of the Bachelor of Commerce (General) degree is given in Table 4.3, showing Marketing as one of the two required majors.

### Table 4.3: Bachelor of Commerce (General) degree, with a major in Marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>FIRST SEMESTER</th>
<th>SECOND SEMESTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>FIRST YEAR</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounting 101</td>
<td>Accounting 102 or 103</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics 101</td>
<td>Economics 102</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IST 100 or 101 or an approved elective</td>
<td>IST 102 or 103 or an approved elective</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management 110</td>
<td>Management 120</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative Methods 1</td>
<td>Specialised or Basic Business Statistics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SECOND YEAR</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics 201</td>
<td>Economics 202</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Human Resources Management</td>
<td>Introduction to Entrepreneurship</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Marketing</td>
<td>Prerequisite for third-year Marketing modules</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An approved level 2 module</td>
<td>An approved level 2 module</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>THIRD YEAR</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Behaviour</td>
<td>Marketing Communications</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Research</td>
<td>Special Topics in Marketing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second major: 32 credits of level 3 modules in an approved discipline</td>
<td>Second major: 32 credits of level 3 modules in the same approved discipline</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: based on 2009 Faculty Handbook
The implications of this degree structure for students’ acquisition of the Discourse of Marketing will be explored in Chapter 5.

Table 4.4 provides more information on each of the five undergraduate Marketing modules in terms of their credit weighting and content. For ease of reference, and to facilitate comparison, the table also includes in the first column a summary of the knowledge base of the discipline of Marketing, as outlined in Table 4.1. Issues related to progression and integration in the Marketing curriculum will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Table 4.4: Undergraduate Marketing modules, UKZN, 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas of study</th>
<th>Module/credit points</th>
<th>Year/semester</th>
<th>Course content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consumer behaviour</td>
<td>Introduction to Marketing</td>
<td>Second year</td>
<td>A concise, introductory overview of all of the areas of study in the knowledge base of Marketing (Yiu, 2009), with the exception of international marketing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing research</td>
<td></td>
<td>First semester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market segmentation and targeting</td>
<td>Consumer Behaviour</td>
<td>Third year</td>
<td>The consumer research process; the consumer as an individual; consumers in their social and cultural settings; the consumer decision-making process; ethical dimensions. Also includes market segmentation and targeting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positioning and branding</td>
<td></td>
<td>First semester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing mix (4 Ps)</td>
<td>Marketing Research</td>
<td>Third year</td>
<td>The research process: problem definition; research design; sampling; data collection methods; data analysis; the research report. Research ethics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Product</td>
<td></td>
<td>First semester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Price</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Place</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Promotion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer relationship management</td>
<td>Marketing Communications</td>
<td>Third year</td>
<td>Focuses on the ‘promotion’ element of the 4 Ps. Explores a variety of marketing communication tools, media and strategies. Ethical implications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Second semester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International marketing</td>
<td>Special Topics in Marketing</td>
<td>Third year</td>
<td>Currently focuses on strategic brand management i.e. primarily on the ‘product’ element of the 4 Ps. Also includes positioning and branding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing ethics</td>
<td></td>
<td>Second semester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, Table 4.5 provides an overview of the assessment tasks in each of the five modules. From this table, it is clear that these tasks are almost exclusively in written form. While oral presentations have played a greater role in assessment in the past, growing student numbers have made this logistically difficult in recent years. In 2010, only one of the five Marketing modules offered by the discipline of Management, Management 120, is a pre-requisite for Introduction to Marketing.

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69 This information was drawn from the course outline and/or prescribed textbook of each module.

70 As indicated in Table 4.3, there are no Marketing modules in the first year of study. However, a first-year module offered by the discipline of Management, Management 120, is a pre-requisite for Introduction to Marketing.
modules on offer included an oral presentation for assessment (and this was weighted at just 5% of the total course mark). The large class sizes, combined with the lack of tutors and tutorials in the School, also contribute to a situation where there are few tasks in each module leading up to the exam in order to make assessment more manageable. There are thus few opportunities for students to practice the Discourse of the discipline and to receive feedback - especially formative feedback. There is also a reliance on group-based tasks. In addition, the table reveals that while both academic genres (essays and short answers) and business genres (reports, research proposals and case studies) are set for Marketing students, academic genres dominate, with 'essays' as the most prevalent type of writing required. The implications of the above assessment practices for UKZN students’ acquisition of the Discourse of Marketing are explored in Chapter 5.

Table 4.5: Assessment tasks in undergraduate modules in the discipline of Marketing, Westville and Howard College campuses, UKZN, 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>MODULE</th>
<th>CREDIT POINTS</th>
<th>ASSESSMENT TASKS</th>
<th>DURATION</th>
<th>WEIGHT (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Introduction to Marketing</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Test [one essay; short answers]</td>
<td>1½ hours</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Exam [essay; short answers]</td>
<td>2 hours</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consumer Behaviour</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Group assignment [15-page report]</td>
<td>11 weeks</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Test [one essay]</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Exam [four essays]</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing Research</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Group assignment [10-15 page research proposal]</td>
<td>11 weeks</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Test [one essay; short answers]</td>
<td>1½ hours</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Exam [two essays; short answers]</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Marketing Communication</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Group assignment [10-page campaign evaluation]</td>
<td>10 weeks</td>
<td>20%</td>
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<td>Test [one essay]</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
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<td>Exam [one case study; two essays]</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
<td>67%</td>
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<td>Special Topics in Marketing</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Group assignment [Brand audit report; 5% presentation]</td>
<td>10 weeks</td>
<td>23%</td>
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<td>Test [mini case study; essay; short answers]</td>
<td>1½ hours</td>
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<td>Exam [mini case study; essay/short answers]</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
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Insight into what is considered legitimate in Marketing Discourse rests on an understanding of the ‘rules of the game’ of Marketing. These rules of the game, or underlying principles that structure the discipline of Marketing, represent what is seen to be possible and what is not in the discipline. From a critical realist perspective, these rules of the game at the level of the real are mechanisms that impact on the events and experiences that emerge at the levels of the actual and empirical.

71 For all five undergraduate Marketing modules, the class mark (comprising test and/or assignment marks) constitutes 33% of the final course mark and the examination mark constitutes 67%.
The next section comprises an LCT analysis of the discipline, in order to identify the ‘rules of the game’ of Marketing.

**4.3 LCT analysis of the academic discipline of Marketing**

Business and management disciplines such as Marketing, like all emerging disciplines, have faced numerous challenges to their status as legitimate areas of study in higher education (Macfarlane, 1995).

In trying to gain insight into how Marketing as a discipline in general responds to such challenges and attempts to establish legitimacy, it is useful to examine the scholarly literature of the discipline, as the viewpoints embodied in that literature constitute ‘languages of legitimation’ (Maton, 2005a). “Through its journals, a discipline legitimises certain types of knowledge and, equally important, directs the search for new knowledge” (Witkowski, 2010, p.374).

With regard to Marketing at UKZN, the LCT analysis is based primarily on the languages of legitimation arising in interviews with the nine students and three lecturers who participated in the study. However, the analysis also draws on a variety of course documentation such as course outlines, assessment tasks and prescribed textbooks.

These languages of legitimation which manifest in the literature and the empirical data are now analysed in terms of the dimensions of legitimation identified by Maton (2005a, 2008a, 2009, 2010a), which were outlined in Chapter 2. Each dimension is discussed in turn, first in relation to the discipline in general and then in relation to Marketing at UKZN, and the relevant codes are identified. Thereafter, a summary and discussion of the codes as a whole are presented.

**4.3.1 Specialisation**

As outlined in Chapter 2, there are two aspects to Maton’s dimension of Specialisation – the *epistemic relations* and the *social relations*. The relative strength or weakness of both relations determines the applicable Specialisation code (i.e. knowledge, knower, elite or relativist code).

**Epistemic relations**

Strong 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-), however, means that these things are downplayed. Additionally, there is likely to be some degree of overlap with, or drawing on, other disciplines.
The discipline in general

The questions to be addressed in assessing the strength of the epistemic relations in the discipline of Marketing are (1) whether Marketing may be considered to be a specific domain with its own concepts, theories, techniques, skills and so on, which are distinct from those of other academic disciplines and, if so, (2) to what extent legitimate participation and achievement in Marketing is based on the possession of these specialist skills and knowledge.

With regard to the first question (whether Marketing is a specific domain with its own distinct knowledge and methods), O’Shaughnessy and Ryan assert that Marketing does not meet certain criteria necessary to qualify as “an established, distinct body of knowledge organised on the basis of explanatory principles”, these criteria being “general agreement on concepts and paradigms” and “cumulative progress in the explanatory powers of the discipline” (1979, p.153). Instead, Marketing has been described as “an extraordinarily open discipline, borrowing – often indiscriminately – methods, theories and concepts from everywhere” (Hunt, 1994, p.18; see also Rust, 2006; Glenn, 2011). As a consequence of this ‘conceptual kleptomania’ (Hackley, 2003), theory in Marketing has been described by Gummesson (2002) as a “smorgasbord of dishes” (p.325) and a “theory mess” (p.346). Economics, Psychology, Anthropology and Sociology are just some of the disciplines that Marketing draws on. Examples of theory borrowing include Exchange Theory from Economics and theories of personality from Psychology. Accordingly, it has been said that Marketing may simply be “the basic disciplines given a coherence by their relevance to marketing decision-making” (O’Shaughnessy & Ryan, 1979, p. 153). The distinct or specialist knowledge content of Marketing has been described as ‘impoverished’ (Crump & Costea, 2003) and ‘miniscule’ (Wellman, 2010a), leading to calls for the development of ‘homegrown’ or ‘indigenous’ Marketing theory (Rust, 2006). However, progress in this regard has been slow (Robson & Rowe, 1997; Hubbard & Lindsay, 2002; Crump & Costea, 2003; Burton, 2005; Rust, 2006). Scholarly activity in Marketing tends to be based on the emulation of other disciplines rather than on the pursuit of its own fundamental research (Hunt, 1994; Crump & Costea, 2003). In fact, Burton (2005) refers to a “theory crisis” (p.10) in Marketing, describing the discipline as “the least-theorised business school specialism” (p.16).

In addition to theory, Marketing also draws heavily on the methods of other disciplines. Witkowski’s analysis of early issues of Marketing journals from the 1930s reveals that “(q)uantitative analyses were less frequent and far less sophisticated than they would later become” (2010, p.383). Originally considered a “descriptive and qualitative” discipline (Easton, 2002, p.103), Marketing embraced quantification in the 1950s and 1960s in an attempt to gain

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72 These two criteria will be discussed further under Density (Section 4.3.5) and Semantics (Section 4.3.2) respectively.
acceptability and legitimacy by positioning itself as rigorous and ‘scientific’ (Zinkhan & Hirschheim, 1992; Crump & Costea, 2003; Brown, 2004). Thus, in response to the first question, it appears that Marketing cannot be described as a domain with its own distinctive knowledge and methods. As discussed in Chapter 2, this is consistent with it being a region (Bernstein, 1996).

Accordingly the second question (the extent to which legitimate participation in Marketing depends on the possession of specialist disciplinary skills and knowledge) would seem to fall away. Given the emphasis that has been placed on quantitative methods in the discipline since the 1950s, one might perhaps try to make a case that the ‘ways of knowing’ in the discipline are quite strongly bounded and controlled. In fact, so strongly did the quantitative orientation take hold that major Marketing journals focus almost exclusively on studies using quantitative methods and technical, statistical analyses (Hunt, 1994; Brownlie, 2007; Melaia et al, 2008). This has led to the assertion that Marketing is too “firmly entrenched in the positivist epistemological tradition” (Kiel, 1998, p.25). As a very recent example of this, Hutto et al list as a limitation of their study that their “findings are more qualitative than quantitative” (2011, p.47). However, the quantitative methods used in Marketing are not specialist Marketing techniques, but have been adopted from other disciplines. Also, as marketing practitioners frequently make use of qualitative research such as that gathered through focus groups (Kiel, 1998), qualitative research has maintained a presence in the discipline (especially in areas such as consumer behaviour), even if this presence is not as prominent as that of quantitative research. And indeed, qualitative research is now (re)emerging more strongly in the discipline (Melaia et al, 2008; Fillis & Rentschler, 2008).

With regard to Marketing knowledge, it has been asserted that many ‘principles of Marketing’ are simply commonsense ideas that offer few specific skills (Aggarwal et al, 2007). This may partly account for why Marketing lecturers often do not have a first degree in Marketing (Macfarlane, 1997a, 1998; Tamilia & Veilleux, 2007), and why it seems not to be obligatory to major in Marketing in order to find a job in marketing (Rotfeld, 1995 in Tamilia & Veilleux, 2007; Macfarlane, 1997b; Evans et al, 2002; Ackerman et al, 2003; Aggarwal et al, 2007; Glenn, 2011). In fact, Wellman (2010b) recently found that less than a quarter of employers in the UK required a Marketing degree for early career positions in marketing. This would seem to indicate that, in Marketing, the possession of specialist knowledge and skills is not crucial to participation and achievement. Indeed, Neuman asserts that ‘soft’ areas, such as Marketing, “place greater importance on broad general knowledge” (2001, p.138; see also Walker et al, 2009).

In light of the above discussion, Marketing can be said to have relatively weak epistemic relations (ER-).
Marketing at UKZN

Although one of the lecturers, Kamini, noted that students were “going to have to acquire the Marketing knowledge, the Marketing terminologies...so, Marketing speak”, the possession of specialist disciplinary knowledge appeared to be downplayed as a basis for success in the discipline by both the students and lecturers.

As evidence of this, the same lecturer pointed to the practice of accepting students into the Marketing Honours programme even if they had achieved marks that she felt were not high enough in their undergraduate Marketing courses.

...it’s also funny how people that don’t have a proper background in Marketing - or even if it was Supply Chain or whatever – they don’t have a proper background, but they get into the [Marketing] Honours system with a frightening 60%, some people with 57s and whatever (Kamini).

Interestingly, her comment also alludes to it’s not being crucial to have a background in Marketing at all, as she indicates that good performance in Supply Chain Management might be acceptable for admission to Marketing Honours. So clearly she does not consider the mastery of specialist (Marketing) disciplinary knowledge to be an important prerequisite for participation and success in the discipline. Further evidence of this can be seen in Michael’s statement that he had “never studied Marketing”, but had been lecturing Marketing for 25 years. Specialist knowledge was also not felt to be crucial for employment prospects, with Kamini asserting that employers “don’t look for that technical stuff; they look for people that are different”.

Similar feelings were expressed by the students. Nothando felt that it was possible to be a successful marketer even though “you may not be good in the class, in the classroom, like theory wise”. This was based on her own experience of being “not the greatest student when it comes to marks”, but at the same time managing to successfully run her own small marketing business.

Based on the above, Marketing at UKZN can also be characterised as displaying relatively weak epistemic relations (ER-), thus mirroring that of Marketing generally. Kamini’s last comment points to disciplinary knowledge not being as important as students’ personal traits and attributes as a basis for successful participation in the discipline. This is explored further in the discussion of the social relations.
Social relations
As indicated in Chapter 3, strong social relations (SR+) means that emphasis is placed on students’ attributes, dispositions, characteristics and backgrounds, whereas weak social relations (SR-) means that these aspects are downplayed.

The discipline in general
It has been said that ‘soft’ areas like Marketing focus on “student character development” (Neuman, 2001, p.138). In the Marketing education literature, much emphasis is indeed placed on graduate attributes – especially those attributes considered important for the workplace, often from the perspective of marketing practitioners (e.g. Brennan & Skaates, 2001; McMullen & Braithwaite, 2002; Schlee & Harich, 2010). Such attributes include creativity, persuasion, negotiation, leadership, the ability to make decisions and the ability to formulate problems (Dacko, 2006). Willingness to learn and interpersonal skills were most highly rated by practitioners in a study undertaken by Gray et al (2002). More recently, Wellman (2010b) identified 22 personal traits (including confidence, creativity, responsibility, initiative and determination) that were generally required by employers.

Accordingly, research points to the “vital role played by personal traits and attitudes” (Wellman, 2010a, p.125) or the ‘personal attributes’ and ‘dispositions’ (Ng, 2006) of students in contributing to their competence and success in Marketing. Melaia et al (2008) investigated the competencies required of marketing managers in South Africa through a content analysis of job specifications, as well as via interviews with marketing managers. They found that, along with competence in oral and written communication, “inherent personality traits were consistently ranked higher and were more prevalent than any others in the study” (2008, p.242).

Textbooks too highlight for students the importance of personal dispositions to their success in their Marketing courses. For example, they are advised that “…your positioning (or marketing) of yourself must start at the very beginning of the course. To this end, this text includes several new features especially designed to enable you to stand out during the course…” (Schiffman et al, 2010, p.16).

This represents relatively strong social relations (SR+).

The preceding discussion of the epistemic and social relations indicates that, in Marketing, one’s personal dispositions and attributes may be considered to be more important than the specialist knowledge and skills one possesses as the basis of legitimate insight. Thus, a knower code (ER-, SR+) applies.
Support for this comes from the finding that personality traits are more highly ranked than specialist knowledge as being important for marketing managers in South Africa (Melaia et al., 2008). Macfarlane too points to the greater value placed on the knower across business disciplines:

The success of non-academic paperbacks with catchy titles and common-sense conclusions does little to enhance the reputation of business and management studies as a bona fide academic discipline. The success of enterprising individuals with minimal business (or sometimes general) education and ‘I did it my way’ books, written by entrepreneurial and managerial icons, serve to celebrate and reinforce the cult of the amateur while undermining the value of academic study.

(1995, p.6)

He also points to the prevalence of ‘gurus’ in business and management studies (Macfarlane, 1997b). Thus, knowledge is downplayed in favour of the knower.

Marketing at UKZN
The importance of students’ attitudes and dispositions in Marketing was stressed by all of the lecturers. Michael highlighted the importance of creativity, enthusiasm and commitment and also felt that “you’ve got to be extroverted”. Kamini noted that good academic performance was not necessarily important to employers, who often instead looked for people who were “different” and “not the same as the standard person”. She expected good Marketing students to be endearing, extroverted, engaging, funky, stylish, resourceful, entrepreneurial, confident, smart, questioning, to have “street smarts”, to think logically and intuitively and to be able to start conversations and generate ideas. Nisha felt that there was more room for students to put forward their own opinions, perspectives and arguments in Marketing, compared to disciplines such as Economics and Accounting.

The successful Marketing students, I’ve normally found...they have a...well, from the ones I’ve dealt with – a lot of them have a, er...they have some endearing quality about them, they...they have something, um, which is not the same as the standard person. Um, like one guy I know, he’s, um, he’s a bit, you know, he dresses a bit...funky and he’s got a...he wears funky hats and things like that. But he’s the kind of people that you...the kind of person that you...you will get attracted to because you wanna listen to what he says. Because as much as he looks funky and whatever, he’s got a certain style about him and the way he speaks...so when he speaks about marketing, or something about marketing, it’s believable, so...he’s engaging (Kamini).

The students too placed emphasis on the importance of personal attributes and dispositions. Maxine felt that Marketing allowed students more room to draw on their own perspectives than
other disciplines did and Amantha agreed that in Marketing students were “given a lot of room to say our feelings”. Many of the students had chosen to major in Marketing because of the perceived fit with their personalities and several (such as Amantha, Sihle, Maxine and Bongani) often described themselves as creative and people-oriented. It was felt that good Marketing students need to be creative, outgoing, ‘vibey’, crazy, fun, open-minded, happy, be able to think quickly, see and capitalise on opportunities and express themselves confidently. Bongani also felt that it was important to be passionate and “amped or hyped up to do Marketing”.

...I think, like, as a marketer you need to need to, like, be an extrovert...personality is important. Like this guy from [name of company that participates in UKZN's graduate recruitment programme] said, like, marketing people are happy people. So I think that’s the kind of...you need to be very open-minded (Nothando).

Only two of the nine students, Kiara and Amantha, mentioned that having a good knowledge of Marketing concepts was important. According to Nothando, what was more important in Marketing was “the creativity, coming up with concepts, making like a brand...you make the brand alive”. She also felt that the weight given to individual attributes meant that it was possible for somebody to find employment in marketing “if they’ve got a creative side or if they’ve got that edge...they can make it without getting the Honours [degree] and everything else that comes with it”.

It is clear that strong social relations (SR+) were espoused in Marketing at UKZN.

The combination of weaker epistemic relations and stronger social relations in Marketing at UKZN corresponds to a knower code (ER-, SR+).

4.3.2 Semantics
Semantics comprises two aspects (gravity and density) that allow for exploration of Marketing’s capacity to build cumulative knowledge (McNamara & Fealy, 2011).

Semantic gravity
Stronger semantic gravity (SG+) indicates that meaning is more closely tied to its context (and thus there is a focus on the application, practicality and usefulness of knowledge in relation to specific settings), while weaker semantic gravity (SG-) indicates that meaning is more abstract, theoretical and general (Maton, 2009, 2010a).
The discipline in general

As previously mentioned, Marketing has had an applied orientation since its emergence as an academic discipline (Rust, 2006) and even today a “managerialist emphasis remains central to the identity of the discipline” (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008, p.3; Catterall et al, 2002; Witkowski, 2010). This can be seen in Marketing’s concern with managerial relevance, real world pragmatism and the application of Marketing knowledge to specific firms and products (Hemais, 2001; Crump & Costea, 2003; Holbrook, 2005; Erasmus & Loedolff, 2005; Rust, 2006; Tamilia & Veilleux, 2007; Reibstein et al, 2009). Scholarship in Marketing is “overwhelmingly rooted in applied research” (Burton, 2001, p.729), with research articles typically including a section providing implications of findings for the market (Hemais, 2001). Pedagogy is often based on case studies (Schmidt-Wilk, 2010; Glenn, 2011), and Marketing textbooks are characterised by a proliferation of examples (Hunt, 2002) and ‘case vignettes’ (Hackley, 2003). Marketing graduates are expected to be able to apply knowledge in ways that are ‘context-relevant’ (Walker et al, 2009). Job market utility is implicit in many programmes (Rotfeld, 1996). Bovinet argues that this is vital because “(s)tudents are consumers. It is important to be able to show them and their parents a practical end-product: a degree in marketing which is relevant to the pursuit of a rewarding career in the field” (2007, no page). Unsurprisingly, therefore, Holbrook (2005) makes reference to the pressure that is placed on Marketing lecturers to adopt a vocational orientation so as to ensure that qualifications lead to employment (an orientation that he does not favour).

Accordingly, the discipline has been described as context-driven (Sheth & Sisodia, 1999). Of particular relevance to this discussion, Macfarlane asserts that disciplines such as Management and Marketing “are perceived to be context-dependent and, as a result, derive their legitimacy from being highly responsive to short-term changes in business practice” (Macfarlane, 1997b, p.52, emphasis in original). In line with this perception, Reibstein et al issue a call for “the whole marketing academic community to work on relevant business problems” (2009, p.3). Of note, however, is that Macfarlane (1997b) states that Marketing is ‘perceived to be’ context-dependent and responsive to business practice, perhaps an insinuation that this perception may not in practice be the case – something that will be considered further in Chapter 5.

The context-bound nature of meaning in Marketing is also evident in the relative lack of attention given to the development of abstract theory in the discipline (Robson & Rowe, 1997; Hubbard & Lindsay, 2002; Crump & Costea, 2003; Burton, 2005; Rust, 2006), as outlined in Section 4.3.1. In fact, Marketing was singled out as the business discipline that is “least-theorised” (Burton, 2005, p.16). It has been said that the lack of theory building in Marketing might be due to the discipline’s primary focus on quantitative rather than qualitative research and that the latter would be useful in developing new constructs (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006; O’Driscoll, 2008).
Given the greater emphasis placed in Marketing on the application of knowledge to specific contexts, rather than on the development of abstract theory, the discipline can be said to exhibit stronger semantic gravity (SG+).

*Marketing at UKZN*
Both the lecturers and the students mentioned the importance of application in Marketing. Because Marketing was seen to be “very hands on” (Nisha) and “very practical” (Kiara), doing well in the discipline entailed more than simply the understanding of Marketing concepts.

To be successful, you need to understand from a theoretical point of view, and you need to apply (Nisha).

Kiara agreed that what was important was:

...knowing how to *apply* the theory. It’s not just reading to get through the reading; it’s reading to understand, reading to apply and look at it in context of, you know, what’s going on - and that’s what makes you successful.

Course documents also highlighted this focus on application. The first page of the *Consumer Behaviour* course outline indicated that “(t)he student’s understanding of consumer behavior will develop through an examination of core concepts and their applications in business practice”. In addition, the prescribed textbooks for both modules contained several examples and case studies in each chapter (see Churchill *et al.*, 2010; Schiffman *et al.*, 2010). The course outlines indicate that an application-based group assignment was included as an assessment task in both modules.

The students viewed the ability to provide “practical examples” and to apply Marketing knowledge to “real life situations” (Sihle) as crucial, especially because in some modules they were “doing a lot of case studies” (Kiara). Accordingly, they felt that they needed to be interested in the media and “well rounded in what’s going on in the real world” (Kiara).

Well, it’s a practical thing, I mean...When you are studying Marketing, you’re studying, I think, something that you do...I mean, you do when you go to the store...you look at the thing, you know. We study about things that we see in the market, you know, the things that are happening in front of our eyes, so it’s quite nice to study something that is so practical (Ben).

The importance attached to practicality and the application of Marketing concepts to different contexts is reflective of stronger semantic gravity (SG+).
**Semantic density**

Stronger semantic density (SD+) indicates greater condensation of meaning in Marketing concepts; the opposite is true of weaker semantic density (SD-).

According to Hashem (2007, p.184), the prestige of a field is “partly based on the apparent unintelligibility of the knowledge it supplies”.

The discipline in general

British universities for a long time considered business and management studies to be unsuitable for university level education as the academic content of its disciplines was deemed too ‘superficial’ (Brown, 1997). ‘Superficial’ alludes to surface or shallow meanings, rather than condensed meanings, and is thus indicative of weaker semantic density.

Similarly, Hunt refers to the ‘dumbing down’ of contemporary Marketing textbooks compared to those of, for example, the 1960s:

> It is now commonplace for publishers to require that introductory textbooks be written with the absolute minimum of words that have three syllables or more. Such a requirement was not in place in the 1960s. Can two-syllable words adequately convey the cognitive content of marketing? If ‘yes’, perhaps marketing does not belong in a university programme. If ‘no’, we are short-changing our students.

(2002, pp.310-311)

Additionally, Muraanen (2001, p.44) refers to an implicit rhetorical style, in which things are left unsaid “so as to leave plenty of space for the reader’s interpretative skills”, as ‘poetic’; by contrast, an explicit rhetorical style, in which clear guidance is provided for readers throughout the text, is referred to as ‘marketing’. Indeed, the writing of Marketing academics is based on the idea of “plain prose, simply put” (Brown, 2004, p.335). This might be because much writing in Marketing is “a populist enterprise” (Hackley, 2003, p.1328). However, Crosling (2005) provides some additional insight into the reasons for the favoured style of writing in Marketing. She explores lecturers’ expectations of students’ writing in a range of business disciplines, including Marketing, and interprets these expectations in terms of the values of business generally as well as those of the particular disciplines. Lecturers were provided with a list of indicators and asked to rate these in terms of their importance for successful writing in their discipline. The highest ranking indicators for Marketing, in order of priority, were: “clear conclusion; coherent and concise expression of information; addressing task; clear purpose; unambiguous response; logical development/explanation of purpose; points supported with research data/evidence” (2005, p.6). Crosling asserts that these relate to the general business values of efficient and purpose driven
operations, in that “information is conveyed efficiently and directly, saving time and cost” (2005, p.6). Marketing was the only one of the six disciplines included in the survey that rated ‘formulating an unambiguous response’ highly. According to Crosling, this is meaningful in light of marketing practice whereby “a product must unambiguously be presented as the best, creating a view in the consumer’s mind that it is best able to meet their needs, and therefore warranting purchase” (2005, p.7).

The above discussion points to weaker semantic density (SD-) in the discipline of Marketing, giving a combination of (SG+, SD-).

This combination of stronger semantic gravity and weaker semantic density in Marketing is one that does not facilitate cumulative learning, whereby over time new knowledge is built through the integration and subsumption of existing knowledge (Freebody et al., 2008; Maton, 2009). Stronger semantic gravity indicates that meaning in Marketing is context bound. Knowledge develops horizontally via segmental aggregation, by applying concepts to different contexts and situations. Segmented learning is thus associated with higher semantic gravity. Indeed, O’Shaughnessy and Ryan assert that “there are no paradigms showing cumulative progress in the explanatory powers of the discipline” (1979, p. 153) and Wellman contends that Marketing theory “fails to interlink observed phenomena in any deep and effective way” (2010a, p.121).

*Marketing at UKZN*

Ben’s claim that Marketing is “not that intense in terms of, er, demanding...your thinking” and Michael’s statement that Marketing is “not conceptually challenging” could be taken as an indication that the degree of condensation of meaning in Marketing concepts is not high.

This interpretation is supported by Kiara’s assertions that Marketing is “to the point”, with “no beating around the bush” and no use of “hidden metaphors or semantics”. She felt that students needed to write clearly and concisely in Marketing courses, because that is what would be expected in marketing practice.

In discussing the stimulus piece during their interviews, the majority of the students and lecturers preferred Response A. Some of the reasons that the lecturers gave for their preference were that Response A was "more direct", "short, sweet, straight to the point" (Nisha); "very straightforward, factual" and “to the point” (Kamini). Similarly, students noted that Response A was “concise”, “straight to the point”, “distinct” (Kiara) and “made everything clear” (Sihle).

The above is indicative of weaker semantic density (SD-).
Combining the two dimensions gives a code for Density at UKZN of (SG+, SD-) i.e. higher gravity and weaker density.

### 4.3.3 Autonomy

To reiterate, Autonomy is about how insulated or different Marketing is from other fields, and comprises two aspects. Positional autonomy (PA) relates to the question of who runs Marketing, while relational autonomy (RA) relates to the question of how Marketing is run.

**Positional autonomy**

*The discipline in general*

Given the dominance of the managerial school in the Marketing discipline, one may accordingly expect there to be a considerable degree of practitioner input into, and indeed influence over, the development of Marketing curricula. However, this does not seem to be the case. A recurring theme in the Marketing education literature is the need for academics to address the gap between Marketing education and practice and for curricula to focus on the development of skills and attributes that are valued by employers (Hunt, 2002; Smart, Kelley & Conant, 1999; Aggarwal et al, 2007; Fillis & Rentschler, 2008; Wellman, 2010a; Lincoln, 2010). Yet Macfarlane (1998, no page) found “very little evidence to support the notion that business lecturers in higher education are keen to tailor the curriculum to meet the ‘needs’ of employers, however this phrase may be defined”. This may be because (unlike professions such as Accounting, Law or Medicine) Marketing graduates do not require accreditation or certification by a professional body before they can commence practice. As a consequence, there is no professional oversight of curricula, over which academics thus have complete control.

Thus the discipline of Marketing is run by academics – which amounts to stronger positional autonomy (PA+).

*Marketing at UKZN*

As noted above, positional autonomy deals with who runs Marketing. It was clear that the lecturers teaching in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN ran the discipline, as this comment indicates:

...I said to [the undergraduate academic co-ordinator] ‘They don’t buy one textbook, now you want them to buy two textbooks, and in a space of three months or four
...you want them to...specialise in both’. So I...I dropped that, and [the co-ordinator] agreed with that (Michael).

That the lecturers had full control over the discipline is also evident in the fact that marketing practitioners were not asked to make input into the design of the undergraduate curriculum and not invited as guest lecturers - something that students bemoaned:

I sort of feel that our lecturers should try to give us more up to date examples, what’s happening in the workplace (Maxine)

I would like to, like know what marketers do on a day to day basis, or like a marketing director. What he sits and does (Bongani)

...you guys need to bring more professionals. Guest speakers who can tell you about the industry (Kiara).

Marketing at UKZN is thus characterised by strong positional autonomy (PA+).

**Relational autonomy**

*The discipline in general*

Discussions of Marketing in the discipline’s literature “often implicitly equate marketing practice and marketing academics, as if the problems, opportunities, and issues are equivalent in these spheres” (Wilkie, 2007, p.131). However, Marketing is on campus as an academic discipline (Rotfeld, 1996; Hunt, 2002; Holbrook, 2005) and, like other business disciplines which were “once perceived as the antithesis of academe, is now at its heart, reconstructed as academic practice with the genres appropriate to it: lectures, essays, seminars, projects, examination papers, research reports, dissertations and theses” (Bloor & Bloor, 2007, p.154). For Marketing lecturers, achievement and status in the discipline are linked to indicators such as research output and teaching evaluations (Holbrook, 2005).

This focus on *academic* practices and genres, as well *academic* criteria for the selection and evaluation of Marketing lecturers, indicates that the ‘ways of working’ in Marketing are drawn from academia and not from any other field (for example, business). As Macfarlane indicates, teaching communities in business disciplines are “dominated by an academic culture” (1995, p.5). This is clearly reflective of stronger relational autonomy (RA+).

The combination of PA+ and RA+ points to the strong overall autonomy of the discipline.

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73 The co-ordinator referred to here was not from the discipline of Marketing, but was responsible for overseeing all undergraduate modules in the School, in all disciplines, in 2010.
Marketing at UKZN

As noted above, relational autonomy relates to how Marketing at UKZN is run - based on principles and ways of working that are drawn from within academia, or from other fields outside academia.

...we’re more business people rather than actually teachers... (Nisha)

...I’m not an educationist; I’m a marketing person (Michael)

...you’re marking it from a business perspective (Nisha)

...with group assignments...basically the lecturers tell us “Don’t come; don’t tell me your problems with your groups. When you’re working, it’s going to be like that, so deal with it” (Thuli).

While the above statements point to there being some degree of identification with and influence from the business world in terms of how things happen in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN, it is apparent that the ways of working in the discipline are more strongly based on academic principles and practices. For example, course outlines indicate that instructional methods and assessments are based on lectures, prescribed readings, assignments, tests and examinations – all of which are academic genres. With regard to the written tasks that students have to complete for assessment, there is a much greater incidence of academic genre types (such as essays) compared to business genre types (such as reports). As shown in Table 4.5, essays are the genre type most often required and are also the most heavily weighted in terms of marks.

Many students also indicated that how things happened in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN was disconnected from ‘the outside world’, pointing to the insularity of its practices.

It all has to do with theory. It’s just everything theory, theory. And then I just wonder, if in the outside world, will they be asking us about the theory? (Nothando)

...we do 100% theory...There’s no practical. So if you get there [the workplace], they’re not going to ask you ‘Discuss for us marketing mix and all those things’...but you’ll have to put that into practice (Sihle)

...we’re restricted to the whole textbook thing (Nothando).

This may partly be because only one of the three lecturer participants had any industry experience. This is unsurprising, as recruitment advertisements for Marketing lecturers at UKZN do not specify industry experience as a requirement. The selection process focuses on academic
criteria, such as teaching and research experience and skills – another indication that the ways of working in the Marketing discipline are drawn from academia, rather than from other fields.

Thus there is strong relational autonomy (RA+) in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN. The combination of the two dimensions shows the high overall autonomy enjoyed by the discipline (PA+, RA+) at UKZN.

### 4.3.4 Temporality

#### Age

**The discipline in general**

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, “it is only during the 20th century that marketing ideas evolved into an academic discipline in its own right” (Shaw & Jones, 2005, p.239; Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006) and Marketing has only a short history of “70-plus years as an academic discipline” (Rust, 2006, p.2). It is thus clearly a relatively young discipline (-C'). As such, Marketing is also “potentially flexible” (Ferguson, 2008, p.12). This may account to some extent for the degree of contestation in the discipline, as will be outlined in the discussion of Density (Section 4.3.5).

**Marketing at UKZN**

With regard to age, Marketing was seen to be a young discipline (-C') and “not an historical...perfect science like Accounting” (Michael).

Nisha spoke about how, when she was a student engaged in her undergraduate and postgraduate studies at one of the universities that had merged to form UKZN, Marketing was not offered as a separate course, but only as a small sub-section of a Business Management course. It was only later that the department’s organisational and curriculum structures began reflecting Marketing as a separate discipline in its own right, with its own courses contributing to a specific major in Marketing.

...in terms of our majors, when we were undergrad, we didn’t...it was not... Ja, it wasn’t specialised because it was just a Business Management major. So we basically specialised in everything. We had a mixed bag – of Management, HR, Marketing. Honours...as well. There was no specialisation.

#### Orientation

**The discipline in general**

Business studies in general have been described as being concerned with “forecasting financial, demographic and/or social trends” (Bloor & Bloor, 2001, p.182), and a forward-looking orientation
(\(-F^3\)) has been a feature of the academic discipline of Marketing since its earliest days. Witkowski’s analysis of Marketing journals from the mid-1930s shows that “(t)he tenor of this writing, its use of language, was forward-looking”; he also refers to the “academic premium put on recency in referencing and contextualisation” in the discipline (2010, p.382).

The emphasis placed on the future in the discipline may be because marketing managers are expected to be ‘forward thinking’ (Brownlie & Saren, 1997, p.156), especially in the context of rapidly changing markets. An important competency for marketing managers working in such environments is “a visionary strategic thinking orientation” (Melaia et al 2008, p.243). Thus, in order to prepare for meeting workplace demands, Marketing students need to be able to “critically analyse the position of a firm and envision where future value can be created for customers” (Ackerman et al, 2003, p.46, emphasis in original).

The combination of the age and orientation of Marketing give a code of neo-prospective (\(-C^1, -F^3\)).

**Marketing at UKZN**

In terms of orientation, both students and lecturers claimed that Marketing was a forward-looking discipline (\(-F^3\)), and that it was therefore important to keep abreast of contemporary developments so to be able to consider the implications of such developments for future marketing practice. Students reported that they were expected to be “up to date with everything that’s happening. Like trends and stuff” (Nothando). Lecturers noted that they encouraged students to “(v)isit these fun sites like YouTube or blogs and you pick up contemporary areas that are under discussion and…we feed from that – we feed that into how this actually impacts on [subject]” (Nisha). When working on case studies, it was expected that students “should propose what the strategy should be going forward – not what it is”, because in Marketing “you’ve got to change things, things have to be different” (Michael).

A forward-looking orientation was also represented in the assessment tasks for both modules. This is clearly evident in the following extract from the Consumer Behaviour assignment question: “In your assessment also include an analysis of any new trends that have arisen in consumer consumption patterns and what suggestions would you as a group make to prospective businesses in future, on ways to service this segment of the population profitably?” The Marketing Research assignment also required students to make recommendations for the future.

In fact, the ability to adopt a forward-looking orientation was an aspect that some lecturers weighted very heavily:
I told them I wanted three things covered in their [assignments]...and the third thing is the recommendations going forward and that’s what I really looked at the most (Michael).

However, Michael also felt that students “generally struggle” with proposing future strategies and that “(t)he difficulty they have with Marketing is that moving from…from the present to the future”.

As with the discipline in general, the combination of age and orientation in the context of Marketing at UKZN results in a code of neo-prospective (-C⁰, -F⁰).

**Rate of change**

The interaction of age and orientation gives the rate of change of the discipline. For both the discipline in general, and Marketing at UKZN, the combination of a young discipline with a forward-looking orientation points to a rapidly changing discipline.

*The discipline in general*

It has been said that Marketing is prone to transitory knowledge, fads and ‘gurus’ (Macfarlane, 1997b; Tapp, 2004). In fact, “(o)f all the business disciplines, marketing may be the most influenced by changing fads and fashions” (Zinkhan & Hirschheim, 1992, p.83).

Thus it is not surprising that even the *definition* of marketing is subject to change. As noted in Section 4.2.1, the AMA periodically reviews its definition of marketing, revising it when necessary in light of shifts and developments in the marketing world. The original definition, developed in 1935, has since been revised in 1985, 2004 and 2008, as follows:

- **1935**: “(Marketing is) the performance of business activities that direct the flow of goods and services from producers to consumers” (AMA, in Wilkie & Moore, 2007, p.269)
- **1985**: “(Marketing is) the process of planning and executing the conception, pricing, promotion, and distribution of ideas, goods, and services to create exchanges that satisfy individual and organizational objectives” (AMA, in Wilkie & Moore, 2007, p.269)
- **2004**: “Marketing is an organizational function and a set of processes for creating, communicating and delivering value to customers and for managing customer relationships in ways that benefit the organization and its stakeholders” (AMA, in Wilkie & Moore, 2007, p.269)
2008: “(Marketing is) the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large” (AMA, 2008, p.2).

These definitions reflect a progressive shift over the years away from considering Marketing solely from a narrow business perspective towards adopting a broader stakeholder and societal perspective. (The relevance of this for moral density will be outlined in Section 4.3.5).

Marketing at UKZN
Evidence of the rapid change that characterises Marketing is apparent at UKZN in the offering of Special Topics in Marketing, a module designed to allow for the inclusion of contemporary marketing issues and developments in the curriculum, as one of the required level-three undergraduate modules. Similar modules are also included in the postgraduate Marketing curriculum.

4.3.5 Density
Density has to do with the degree of diversity within Marketing, with regard to both its contents (i.e. material density, MaD) and beliefs (i.e. moral density, MoD). Together, these two aspects impact on the degree of differentiation within Marketing.

Material density
The discipline in general
The point has been made several times in this thesis that ‘business studies’ is a well-subscribed area of study across the word. In the USA, it is the most popular area of study, accounting for just over 20% of Bachelors degrees (Glenn, 2011; see also Aggarwal et al, 2007). It is also popular in the UK, where student numbers are rising (Edmunds & Richardson, 2005). Bloor & Bloor refer to the “proliferation of business studies”, describing it as “one of the most flourishing aspects of university activity” (2007, p.154). In 2005, 29.1% of all students at South Africa’s public higher education institutions were enrolled in Business and Commerce (DoE, cited in Scott et al, 2007).74

Within the broad area of business studies, Marketing is a popular major. Tregear et al note that “undergraduate marketing education...still represents the mainstay of teaching activity in most business schools” (2010, p.67). Most students in the USA choose to major in Marketing or

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74 At private higher education institutions in South Africa, business/commerce/management accounted for 48% of enrolments in 2000 (Jansen et al, 2007, citing Mabizela et al, 2000). Programmes in this field are considered to be “low cost, high demand” and thus “financially lucrative” (DoE, 2001, p.7).
Management (Glenn, 2011). In the UK, growth in the Marketing academy has been “significant” (Ferguson, 2008, p.10). O’Brien and Deans point to a “noted and disproportionate increase in the number of students attracted to marketing” since the early 1980s and attribute this to the higher profile of the discipline (1995, p.51).

Unsurprisingly, therefore, student to staff ratios are generally high (Glenn, 2011). According to Maton (2005a), both massification and high student to staff ratios are reflective of higher material density (MaD+).

The breadth of the traditional Marketing curriculum also points to higher material density. In fact, Wellman (2010a) calls for substantial pruning of the traditional ‘overloaded’ syllabus in order to ensure that “quality reigns over quantity” (p.130).

**Marketing at UKZN**

There were several references in the data to high student numbers and large class sizes, high student to staff ratios, and the large volume of content in the curriculum. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the student to staff ratio in the Faculty is twice the DoE norm for Business Management and Law (UKZN, 2009b).

...now you notice everyone’s doing Marketing (Kiara)

...it’s impossible with 250-plus (Kamini)

Erm...this year I’ve changed my study method *[laughs]*. All these years, ever since high school, when I study if there’s a lot of notes and...all I do is I sit with a whole lot of pages or books......and I rewrite everything. Continuously. I just write and write and write and write. And I highlight a lot. Um, I use, um, I use highlighters to separate points and I just...that’s how I learn; I just rewrite everything. This year I just can’t manage doing that – there’s just too much to write *[in Marketing]* (Amantha).

Such comments point to high material density (MaD+). Also, as noted by Maton (2005a), issues of quantity are often linked to those of quality and status, as is evident in the following quotes:

...you have so much of students because it’s the only thing people can get into, leaving school with little points... (Amantha)

...everybody finds it easy to get here (Kamini)

And we don’t have what we should have. The quality (Kamini)

...compared to an entire class of over 250...there’s probably only about maybe 50, or less, that’s actually okay. The majority is bad (Kamini).

Such issues will be discussed further in Chapter 5.
Moral density

The discipline in general

It is clear from the literature that Marketing is quite a divergent disciplinary community and that there are "a number of debates and contentions within the discipline" (Ferguson, 2008, p.21). In part, this may be because extensive theory borrowing from other disciplines has resulted in a "plethora of competing academic theories" (Wellman, 2010a, p.121).

Although the managerial school is currently dominant in the discipline (Witkowski, 2010), this is by no means uncontested. The number of different schools of Marketing thought has over the years been claimed to be twelve (Sheth et al, 1988, in Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006), ten (Shaw & Jones, 2005) and most recently fifteen (Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006), as reflected in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: An updated framework of Marketing schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic</th>
<th>Non-interactive</th>
<th>Transactional</th>
<th>Relational</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commodity</td>
<td>Institutional</td>
<td>Further research needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Functional</td>
<td>Functionalist</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regional</td>
<td>Managerial</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-economic</td>
<td>Buy behaviour</td>
<td>Systems</td>
<td>Services marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Activist</td>
<td>Social exchange</td>
<td>Industrial marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Macromarketing</td>
<td>Organisational</td>
<td>Relationship marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dynamics</td>
<td>marketing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Lagrosen & Svensson, 2006, p.379

Perhaps in acknowledgement of the greater diversity of viewpoints in the discipline over the years, AMA definitions of marketing (see Section 4.3.4) show a progressively declining focus on a narrow managerial perspective over time in favour of broader stakeholder and societal perspectives. Similarly, the prevalent Western bias and specifically the "significant North American ethnocentricism evident within the discipline" (Kiel, 1998, p.25; Hemais, 2001; Easton, 2002) is also under challenge (see, for example, Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006).

Methodologically, the discipline is divided into ‘camps’ (Bolton, 2005) which “often view one another as irrelevant or even adversarial” (MacInnis, in Bolton, 2005, p.15). As noted in Chapter 3, while quantitative research is prevalent, qualitative research is also represented, and there have been strong calls for the adoption of more qualitative approaches (see, for example, Tapp, 2004; O’Driscoll, 2008).

It is thus not surprising that Marketing is characterised by a fragmentation of research interests (Wilkie & Moore, 2003; Holbrook, 2005). Like other business disciplines, there is also a lack of
consensus about what and how students ought to learn (Glenn, 2011), and whether education should be ‘about’ or ‘for’ business (Macfarlane, 1997a).

Indeed, “there is disagreement concerning even the basic focus of marketing” (O’Shaughnessy & Ryan, 1979, p. 154). Internal conflicts about whether Marketing should focus on discovery or application abound, leading to a science-technology dichotomy in the discipline (Rust, 2006). “The marketing literature is only consistent in demonstrating the disagreement on the status of marketing as a science” (O’Shaughnessy & Ryan, 1979, p. 156).

This lack of homogeneity of beliefs points to high moral density in Marketing (MoD+).

Marketing at UKZN

With regards to moral density in Marketing at UKZN, there was some indication of diversity of beliefs. The lecturers, who were asked to complete a curriculum self-assessment questionnaire during their interviews, gave common responses to only four of the twelve questions. There were differences of opinion on issues such as how they saw curriculum, knowledge, and their roles as lecturers (which will be discussed in Chapter 5). This is perhaps to be expected given their different backgrounds and experiences as both students and lecturers – for example, Kamini and Nisha had taught at the different universities that had merged to form UKZN and Michael was teaching at a university of technology. With regard to the students, Maxine and Amantha had both mentioned that Marketing gave them room to go beyond the prescribed material and to additionally draw on their personal perspectives and feelings.

However, in practice the Marketing curriculum at UKZN did not display much diversity.

We do very sophisticated, um, first world, um, American…Philip Kotler type Marketing most of the time (Michael)

…it is a bit sad…that our focus is only on, um, quantitative research (Kamini).

Several of the students (Nothando, Kiara, Ben, Maxine and Thuli) commented on the North American bias in their courses, which was largely due to the use of textbooks and associated teaching materials that were of American origin. The issue of cultural bias will be discussed in Chapter 5.

In light of the above, Marketing at UKZN can be described as displaying relatively low moral density (MoD-).
Differentiation
The interaction of material and moral density gives the degree of differentiation in the discipline. With regard to the discipline in general, both material and moral density are high, indicating a high degree of diversity and thus a lack of coherence. Indeed, Hunt describes Marketing as “eclectic” (2002, p.307). With regard to Marketing at UKZN, however, moral density is lower than that of the discipline in general.

4.3.6 Summary and discussion
The preceding LCT analysis of Marketing resulted in the identification of the codes relevant to each of the five dimensions of legitimation in the framework. This section provides an overall summary of the legitimation codes for Marketing, for all five dimensions. The implications of these codes for epistemological access to, and for the status of, the discipline are then outlined.

4.3.6.1 Summary of legitimation codes
The applicable legitimation codes for Marketing are summarised in the following tables.

Table 4.7: Legitimation codes for the discipline of Marketing in general

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIMENSION</th>
<th>LEGITIMATION CODES: DISCIPLINE OF MARKETING (GENERAL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specialisation</td>
<td>Knower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantics</td>
<td>Stronger gravity, weaker density</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>Higher (strongly insulated; autonomous principles)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporality</td>
<td>Neo-prospective (younger; forward-looking); rapid change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density</td>
<td>Higher (large population; heterogeneous beliefs); high differentiation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8: Legitimation codes for Marketing at UKZN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIMENSION</th>
<th>LEGITIMATION CODES: MARKETING AT UKZN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specialisation</td>
<td>Knower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantics</td>
<td>Stronger gravity, weaker density</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>Higher (strongly insulated; autonomous principles)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporality</td>
<td>Neo-prospective (younger; forward-looking); rapid change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density</td>
<td>Mixed (higher material density, lower moral density)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The tables show that the codes for the discipline in general and for Marketing at UKZN are almost identical, with the only difference being relatively lower moral density for the latter.
Because these codes represent the ‘rules of the game’ of Marketing, they enable insight into what is considered to be legitimate and of value in the Discourse of the discipline. From a critical realist perspective, these rules operate at the level of the real to structure agents’ practices in the discipline and to give rise to particular types of events and experiences. The ‘rules of the game’ also delineate what students need to aim to achieve in order to gain epistemological access to Marketing.

4.3.6.2 Implications for educational practices and epistemological access

In terms of Specialisation, a knower code (ER-, SR+) indicates that legitimate participation and achievement in Marketing is based more on the possession of appropriate personal attributes and dispositions, rather than on the possession of specialist disciplinary knowledge and skills. This implies that educational practices in the discipline should focus primarily on specialising students’ Marketing identities in ways that are appropriate to the disciplinary Discourse (as outlined in section 4.3.1), rather than on transmitting Marketing knowledge. This raises the question of exactly how such identity specialisation could occur.

According to Maton (2008a), a knower code is likely to generate segmented instead of cumulative knowledge – something that is explained further by Semantics.

The code for Semantics (SG+, SD-) signifies that applied, rather than theoretical, knowledge is valued in the discipline. Emphasis is placed on generating useful knowledge that practically addresses business problems in specific contexts, rather than on building a body of abstract theoretical knowledge. This implies that students need to be familiar with the business contexts that serve as the site of application and that they must be able to apply Marketing knowledge to such contexts.

A neo-prospective code for Temporality (-C, -F) means that Marketing is a young, forward-looking discipline. The interaction of the age and orientation of the discipline also points to it being a rapidly changing one. It is thus important for students to be able to keep up to date with contemporary developments in Marketing and in the marketplace, and to be able to have an appreciation of the significance of such developments for future marketing practice.

However, the relatively high Autonomy of the discipline (PA+, RA+) may make it difficult to achieve some of the aspects mentioned above. Insulation from the business world (represented at UKZN by a lack of practitioner involvement and influence in the design and offering of Marketing courses) is likely to impact on the extent to which students gain familiarity not only with the contexts in which they are expected to be able to apply Marketing knowledge, but also with
the knower attributes and dispositions that are considered important for legitimate participation and success in the discipline.

Higher material Density (MaD+), represented by things such as large classes, high lecturer to student ratios and a tightly packed syllabus, may contribute to pedagogic practices that are not best suited to facilitating student participation in the disciplinary Discourse. High moral Density (MoD+), which indicates a possible lack of consensus over what should be taught (and how) in the discipline, also has implications in this regard as there may be lack of agreement among lecturers as to what constitutes the disciplinary Discourse, how this Discourse is best taken on and who should be responsible for facilitating students' taking on of the Discourse of Marketing.

The above discussion points to how principles and codes of legitimation at the level of the real may lead to the emergence of events and experiences that do not best facilitate students’ taking on of the disciplinary Discourse. In addition to implications for educational practices and epistemological access, the legitimation codes underpinning the discipline of Marketing also have repercussions in terms of its status.

4.3.6.3 Implications for status

The status of the discipline of Marketing is linked to the value that is attached to its particular legitimation codes.

Maton’s analysis of the field of British higher education led him to devise two codes reflecting higher and lower status positions respectively. The higher status ‘U code’ is characterised by “relatively high autonomy, relatively low density, knower specialisation and retrospective temporality”, while the lower status ‘non-U code’ reflects “lower autonomy, higher density, knowledge specialisation and prospective temporality” (2005a, p.112). In terms of this classification, Marketing encompasses two aspects (relatively high autonomy and knower specialisation) that are associated with higher status and two (relatively high density and prospective temporality) that are associated with lower status.

However, what constitutes higher and lower status positions may vary in different contexts. For example, Maton makes reference to the “English idea” of the liberal university” compared to a “Germanic, technological idea” (2005a, p.106). Similarly, White & Hitt (2009) note that the English or Oxford model emphasised the provision of “a common social, moral and intellectual experience for heirs of the elite” (p.3), while the Scottish model “valued applied knowledge and the education

75 When he undertook the study referred to above (2005a), Maton’s legitimation device comprised the four dimensions outlined in his U (university) and non-U (non-university) codes. Semantics was added later.
of anyone who was qualified to learn” (p.4) and the German model emphasises “scientific training and research to generate, conserve and transfer knowledge” (p.4).

In order to gain insight into which codes are valued in the South African higher education context, it is necessary to look at higher education in South Africa in more detail. This discussion aims to give some understanding of conditions and forces from outside the disciplinary field of Marketing that contribute to the perceived value and status (or lack thereof) of Marketing. Although the discussion that follows does not constitute (and is not intended to be) a full LCT analysis, it is structured under the broad headings of the five dimensions of legitimation identified by Maton.

**The South African HE context since 1994**

Higher education in South Africa has changed significantly since the mid 1990s. In part, the changes are in keeping with developments in higher education across the globe (see, for example, Muller, 2005; Bundy, 2006), but in addition they are reflective of the simultaneous challenges relating to global competitiveness and national transformation that faced the new government which assumed power in 1994. Major changes that have occurred include the restructuring of the public higher education system via mergers and closures, the growth in private provision of higher education, the emergence of new delivery models, a shift in the nature of the academic workplace (from a collegial model to one based on ‘the new managerialism’) and “the changing value of higher education programmes (the rise of the economic sciences and the decline of the humanities)” (Jansen et al, 2007, p.163).

**Specialisation**

Ensor (2004) identifies two contesting discourses that have significantly shaped higher education curriculum policy in South Africa since the mid-1990s: a disciplinary discourse and a credit-accumulation-and-transfer (or credit exchange) discourse. “These discourses are ways of talking about the curriculum and its aims, rather than the structuring of the curriculum itself, discourses which privilege particular modes of knowledge and their forms of organisation, the relation between academic knowledge and everyday life, and relations between academics and students” (Ensor, 2004, p.342). This description is in accordance with the critical realist understanding of discourse as a real ontological entity with causal powers to structure practices and to gives rise to events and experiences.

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76 Some broad background to higher education in SA was provided in Chapter 1, in order to contextualise the study as well as to justify its focus on epistemological access in a business/management discipline at the undergraduate level of study. This section extends what was covered in Chapter 1, by exploring aspects of higher education in South Africa in terms of the specific areas of focus of this chapter i.e. legitimacy, status and value.
The *disciplinary discourse*, as described by Ensor (2004), is based on the idea of inducting students into disciplines, and thus favours a fairly structured curriculum that facilitates vertical progression within disciplines. It places emphasis on apprenticing students into “specialised domains of knowledge” (p.344) through “mastery of conceptual structures and modes of argument, which form the basis for the production of new knowledge” (p.343). This discourse thus foregrounds disciplinary content and processes, while downplaying “individual student needs and experiences” (p.343). It can accordingly be said to be reflective of a *knowledge code*.

By contrast, Ensor describes the *credit exchange discourse* as responding to the challenges of globalisation by emphasising workplace preparation and the modularisation of curricula. This discourse advocates “disaggregating traditional extended university courses” (2004, p.344) so as to encourage interdisciplinarity and portability, as well as to “break the grip of disciplinary majors on curricula” (Muller, 2005, p.503). It thus favours “modularisation of the curriculum, a focus on generic skills and selection from these modules by students to create curriculum packages to meet their own requirements” (Ensor, 2004, p.344). In downplaying specialist disciplinary knowledge while emphasising the knower’s needs and interests, this discourse can be said to be more reflective of a *knower code*.

These two discourses have been engaged in ongoing struggles for dominance. By 1995, the credit exchange discourse had grown quite strong, having gained support from academics who drew on arguments that emerged internationally, such as the ‘Mode 1-Mode 2’ thesis advanced by Gibbons (Ensor, 2004). Policy documents, such as the White Paper on HE of 1997, clearly reflect the influence of ideas around Mode 2 knowledge production (Jansen, 2002). However, Muller (2000) contends that academics “continue to value a Mode 1 intellectual climate”, represented by professional societies, peer review and the norms and values of their disciplines (p.82) – perhaps in part due to the argument that “Mode 2 knowledge production depends upon a sound Mode 1 disciplinary base” (p.80). Muller’s contention suggests the dominance of the disciplinary discourse (and its associated knowledge code).

Ensor (2004) agrees that while both the disciplinary and credit exchange discourses have significantly influenced thinking and decision-making around higher education in South Africa, and both feature in policy documents (such as the NCHE report of 1996, and the White Paper on HE of 1997), the disciplinary discourse has prevailed. She asserts that, in practice,

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77 Mode 1 research refers to disciplinary research, while Mode 2 research refers to research that is trans-disciplinary, often trans-institutional, addresses problems that arise in contexts of application, is often funded from multiple sources, is collaborative and evaluated against criteria that are contextually relevant (Muller, 2000).
“undergraduate curricula continue to be presented on a largely disciplinary basis” (2004, p.339), with little evidence of interdisciplinarity or integration, and thus “the exchange discourse has not taken root in the university sector in South Africa to any significant degree” (p.354).

However, Ensor’s conclusions here are based on research conducted in science and humanities faculties only. Other (professional and vocational) faculties were not included in the study because “their core activities were not fundamentally shaken in the curriculum restructuring processes that were inaugurated from the mid-1990s”; on the contrary, government policy "strongly affirmed their mission" of producing graduates who are skilled for the workplace (Ensor, 2004, p.340).

**Semantics**

The focus on workplace preparation mentioned above is not surprising in the context of “a growing public demand for relevance and accountability” (Muller, 2000, p.77), where globally there is a shift away from the university as “the institutional embodiment of high culture and canonical knowledge” towards “the socially useful university” (Jansen *et al.*, 2007, p. 180, citing Ramirez, 2005). As noted in Chapter 1, higher education is viewed as having a crucial role to play in the achievement of South Africa’s socio-economic goals; the importance attached to managerial skills in particular is reflected in the DoE’s target of 30% of enrolments to be in the area of Business and Commerce (DoE, 2001). Arguments were made by policy planners for the ‘programmatising’ of higher education curricula in order to promote interdisciplinarity and “greater ‘relevance’ in curricula widely perceived to be sunk in theoretical irrelevancies” (Muller, 2005, p.503).

Accordingly, “the academy’s external attunement is of premier importance” and there has been a significant move away from basic research towards applied research (Muller, 2005, p.507; see also Luescher & Symes, 2003; Kotecha, 2006). Consequently, Muller asserts, knowledge structures that display weak grammaticality are disadvantaged as they do not display a sufficiently “robust relation to the world” (2005, p.507). As noted in Chapter 2, Marketing is a horizontal knowledge structure with a weak grammar and it has been said that research-based Marketing knowledge is of little practical usefulness to marketing practitioners (Ottesen & Gronhaug, 2004). This is in contrast to what was espoused in the languages of legitimation that were examined in the LCT analysis of Marketing earlier in this chapter, and is a good example of how structures at the level of the real impact on what can be achieved at other levels.
**Autonomy**

Prior to 1994, (white) universities in South Africa enjoyed a high degree of institutional autonomy by international standards; since then, however, the approach that government has adopted towards higher education has been described as a “gradual transition from a steering to an increasing centralised approach” (Bundy, 2006, p.15, citing Cloete & Kulati, 2003). The implementation of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) policy required academics to participate in committees comprising stakeholders from academia, industry, NGOs and other sites outside academia. According to Jansen et al (2007, p.168), it was “unusual for university academics (as opposed to technikon staff) to deliberate on curricular or pedagogical issues with people from industry who were perceived to have little in common with the academy”.

From 1998, however, the role of higher education stakeholders in policy making has declined relative to the increasingly dominant role of government (Luescher & Symes, 2003). In 2001 and 2002, government concern about a perceived lack of efficiency in higher education resulted in an attempt to use institutional planning mechanisms and funding to ‘steer’ the system in appropriate directions (Boughhey, 2005). Commenting on the new emphasis being placed on performance assessment (or performativity), Jansen asserts that “(i)n the short history of higher education in South Africa, such tight control over autonomous institutions is unprecedented, even when compared to the obsessive years of State power under apartheid” (Jansen, 2001, p.555; see also Lange, 2006). The increasing level of state intervention in higher education led to the emergence of a new discourse “that pitted historical struggles for autonomy against the new language of accountability”, as well as to a shift in the nature of the academic workplace from a collegial model to one based on ‘the new managerialism’ (Jansen et al 2007, p.163, emphasis in original; see also Kotecha, 2006).

In an era of globalisation, massification and decreased government funding for higher education, universities are operating in a much more complex and competitive environment where business values and practices are seen as being important in providing a competitive edge and are thus being emphasised. With institutional funding being linked largely to quantitative measures such as graduation rates and research output, efficiency in managing resources tends to be privileged over quality when it comes to rating higher education institutions (Jansen, 2001). The quest for additional revenue streams has also facilitated the adoption by such institutions of managerial styles and processes that are drawn from the business world (Kotecha, 2006), and has also brought marketing practices to the fore, in the branding and promotion of institutions and programmes. Furthermore, the shift from basic towards applied research, referred to above, also

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78 Allais (2007, p.523) notes that the NQF “was introduced through the first piece of educational legislation passed after the advent of democracy in South Africa (Republic of South Africa Act No. 58 of 1995)”.  

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means that research problems and agendas are increasingly being set by those outside universities (Kotecha, 2006).

Thus, while in the past higher education enjoyed a high degree of autonomy, the increasing influence from outside the field in terms of who runs higher education (largely the state) and how higher education is run (on managerial principles) is reflective of the lowering of both positional and relational autonomy respectively and thus represents a shift towards lower autonomy overall.

**Temporality**

The disciplinary discourse, which is seen to be dominant in South Africa (Ensor, 2004; see also Muller, 2000, 2008), represents “the traditional currency of courses and qualifications, based on long-standing academic propositions about the need for sequential learning within defined disciplines” (NCHE, 1996, p.77, in Ensor, 2004). Furthermore, those advocating this discourse are seen to be “elitist, conservative and resistant to change, harking back to a privileged past” (Ensor, 2004, p. 344). This is reflective of an archeo-retrospective code.

By contrast, the credit exchange discourse, as referenced above, which is also quite strongly represented in South Africa, is firmly oriented towards preparing students for the future world of work. Thus, advocates of this discourse are perceived to be “modern, egalitarian and walking in step not only with the requirements of the new democratic order in South Africa, but also with the requirements of the global knowledge society” (Ensor, 2004, p. 344). Accordingly, this discourse reflects a neo-prospective code.

**Density**

“It is no longer appropriate for higher education to serve a minority elite. Rather, there is a drive towards increasing access to and participation in higher education across all sectors of society” (Jones *et al*, 2008, p.18). Accordingly, headcount enrolments in public higher education institutions in South Africa have increased from 395 700 in 1990 to 732 000 in 2005 (Scott *et al*, 2007, p.iii) and the student population reflects much greater diversity in terms of demographic profile than was the case 15 years ago (CHE, 2011). Business and Commerce accounted for 24% of enrolments at public higher education institutions in 1993 but, as noted in Chapter 1, by 2005 this had risen to 29.1%, almost meeting the target of 30% specified in the Department of Education’s (DoE’s) National Plan on Higher Education (NPHE) (DoE, 2001). Indications are that this figure would have been higher if not for constraints related to the lack of capacity of schools to produce sufficient numbers of students with the necessary mathematics grounding to be
accepted onto these programmes (Scott et al, 2007). Both the increasing number of students and the greater diversity of students reflect a shift from lower to higher material density.

With regard to moral density, reference has been made in previous sections to a number of competing discourses around higher education – for example, autonomy versus accountability and disciplinary discourse versus credit exchange discourse – many of which have arisen in recent years. This is indicative of a shift towards higher moral density, something that is perhaps also representative of the increasing diversity of the higher education student population.

In combination, the above points to a move from lower towards higher density.

This brief overview of higher education in South Africa points to a number of factors that either contribute to or detract from the perceived status of Marketing. Factors favouring Marketing include “the rise of the economic sciences” (Jansen et al, 2007, p.163), the increasing corporatisation of higher education and the arguments made for Mode 2 knowledge production. However, the continued dominance of the disciplinary discourse (and its associated knowledge code) lends greater prestige to knowledge-based disciplines rather than those legitimated by a knower code.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter provided some background to the academic discipline of Marketing (in general and at UKZN) before undertaking an analysis of the discipline using Maton’s LCT framework, which identified the legitimation codes applicable to Marketing. The LCT analysis provides insight into how Marketing works as a discipline, what it values and what it does not and what ways of knowing and being are important for success in the discipline. This analysis is thus important in addressing the first research question, which asks what constitutes epistemological access in Marketing.

Following the identification of the legitimation codes, their implications for the discipline of Marketing were outlined, in terms of educational practices and epistemological access, as well as for its status.

The next chapter explores Marketing at UKZN using CDA, so as to provide more insight into the human, contextual and power dimensions that impact on students’ being able to take on the ways of knowing and being that are crucial to legitimate participation and achievement in the discipline.
5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter adopted a narrow internal focus on the educational logics that structure Marketing as a discipline, both generally and at UKZN. However, while the LCT analysis undertaken in Chapter 4 is useful in helping to understand how the discipline works and in identifying the possibilities and constraints associated with the legitimation codes that underpin it at the level of the real, it does not provide sufficient insight into the human element of the discipline at the empirical level of experiences. This is because its focus is sharply on Marketing as a structure, rather than as a community. Yet, as outlined in Chapter 2, the ‘structure’ and ‘community’ aspects of disciplines are inextricably intertwined in practice (Becher, 1989). Thus any analysis of Marketing at UKZN would be incomplete without a consideration of the broader human, contextual and power dimensions that play out in the discipline. Indeed, contestations and power relationships in the discipline (which manifest in languages of legitimation) are central to what becomes seen to be legitimate in the discipline and thus why certain legitimation codes apply and others do not.

The analysis in this chapter thus complements the LCT analysis undertaken in Chapter 4. While the LCT analysis can be described as a deductive or ‘top down’ approach, in that it imposes an existing framework onto the data, the analysis in this chapter is more inductive, exploring discourses that arise in the data itself, drawing on CDA. Additionally, this analysis broadens the inward looking LCT focus, in that it considers wider contextual factors and discourses that help shape Marketing at UKZN.

As noted in Chapter 3, a critical realist approach to CDA recognises the importance of both structure and agency, as well as the interplay between them. Discourses are understood, in terms of this approach, to be ontological realities at the level of the real i.e. they are mechanisms with causal powers. Discourses have power because they construct reality in certain ways, and prevent or limit alternative constructions, thus setting limits on the possible. Due to their ‘normalising effect’, “discourses are not just our way of talking about things, but they are a powerful force over our actions” (McKenna, 2004a, p.160).

The chapter begins by discussing in turn a number of discourses that arose in the data (interviews and documents), considering their impact on practices and experiences in the Marketing discipline at UKZN. The final section of the chapter then pulls together strands from these discourses to show how identities and relationships (Gee, 2005) are being built in the
discipline of Marketing at UKZN, how this is influenced by contextual and power dimensions (Fairclough, 1995) and what the consequences are for students’ participation and achievement in Marketing Discourse and thus for epistemological access.

5.2 Discourses

5.2.1 Rote learning

Mayer (2002) differentiates between ‘rote learning’ and ‘meaningful learning’. Rote learning is based on a view of learning as knowledge acquisition, with the goal being the retention of acquired knowledge. Accordingly, teaching from this position is concerned with the presentation of factual knowledge and assessment requires the remembering of that knowledge (and thus the focus can be said to be on the past). By contrast, meaningful learning is based on a view of learning as knowledge construction. The goal is transfer and assessment thus requires the use of knowledge in new scenarios and in the solving of problems. The focus is more on the future. The cognitive categories and processes linked to rote and meaningful learning, which are based on the revised version of Bloom’s taxonomy (Krathwohl, 2002), are listed in Figure 5.1.

![Figure 5.1: Rote and meaningful learning](Based on Mayer (2002), Krathwohl (2002))

Nisha, one of the lecturers in this study, provided the following description of what is expected of Marketing students:

To be successful, you need to understand from a theoretical point of view, and you need to apply. And if they’re not going to be able to do that, then they’re lacking in analytical skills and that’s going to severely hamper them – especially for those that are going to be getting into advertising positions, or creative campaigns. And if they’re not going to be able to...to analyse and to draw out what your salient features, your key success factors and things are, from a strategic point of view, they’re not going to be very successful.
This description of what success in Marketing entails neatly encompasses all of the cognitive categories that relate to meaningful learning: students must understand Marketing concepts, be able to apply them, must analyse markets and evaluate which features of particular markets are key to being able to create relevant and successful strategies and campaigns for those markets. However, it was clear during the interviews that the lecturers attached most importance to an “application perspective” (Nisha). This is in line with the nature of Marketing, which has been described as an area of study with an “applied orientation”, or as an “applied discipline” (Rust, 2006, p.1; see also Walker et al, 2009; Yiu, 2009). All of the lecturers indicated that the goal of learning was “being able to apply knowledge in real life situations”, and the learning outcomes listed in a course outline included the ability to “demonstrate an understanding of the application of the concepts in business practice”.79

The assessment tasks set for the level three modules in 2010 reveal that students were expected to be able to apply Marketing knowledge in two ways. First, they had to apply concepts in the context of given scenarios in tests and exams. Second, each module contained an application-based group assignment that ran over a number of weeks – in the Consumer Behaviour module, students had to produce a report analysing the viability of targeting a specified market, while in Marketing Research they were required to develop a research proposal and conduct some market research. Michael had the following to say about the assignment in his module:

...I think they learnt better than if it had just been a theory exercise because they were...they were applying it all the way through......and, um, the theories were being given meaning in a practical sense straight away – rather than just learning some theory which you then go and regurgitate and forget.

However, all of the lecturers reported that students did not satisfactorily meet their expectations with regard to the application of knowledge in tests and exams (which were largely based on essays and short-answer type questions, as reflected in Table 4.5, and which together accounted for the bulk of the total course mark in each module).80 For example, lecturers indicated that in response to scenario-based questions, students frequently merely outlined the related content knowledge from the textbook without applying this knowledge specifically to the scenario. There

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79 As part of their interviews, the lecturers were asked to complete a ‘curriculum self-assessment questionnaire’ (SAAAD). One of the questions asked how they would describe the goal of learning. Options were: “A. efficiency and effectiveness; B. making meaning; C. being able to apply knowledge in real life situations; D. reaching consensus regarding the truth”.

80 In the Consumer Behaviour module, the test contributed 13%, the exam 67% and the assignment 20% to the total course mark. In Marketing Research, the test contributed 20%, the exam 67% and the assignment 13%.
was also a lack of “creative application” (Nisha). Rote learning was a complaint raised by all three lecturers. In fact, the pervasiveness of “parrot fashion learning” or “swotting and repeating” was captured in references to the “custom”, “culture” and “mindset” of rote learning (Nisha). Students were constructed as being concerned with the “regurgitation” of textbook content and as finding the application of knowledge or “using that theory” problematic (Michael).

The above suggests that one factor that may have contributed to the incidence of rote learning is the nature of the assessments. Lecturers’ complaints about rote learning centred on tests and exams (essays and short answers), rather than on the assignments (which were more authentic assessments). This would seem to indicate that the degree of authenticity of the assessment tasks and the relative weighting of the tasks may impact on the extent of rote learning.

Something else to consider is the extent to which the test and exam questions actually require application. An analysis of the test questions in both modules revealed that most questions focused on the ‘remember’ and ‘understand’ categories, with ‘apply’ being less frequently represented. This is evident in the following two tables. Table 5.1 provides an indication of the cognitive demand of test questions in the Consumer Behaviour module.

Table 5.1: Cognitive demand of questions in the Consumer Behaviour test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions (select one)</th>
<th>Cognitive demand &amp; Marks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Segmentation begins by selecting the base(s) representing the core attributes of</td>
<td>Remember: recall the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a group of potential consumers. Schiffman &amp; Kanuk (2010) depicted a four-way</td>
<td>classification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>classification of the characteristics used to segment the buyers of consumer products,</td>
<td>Understand: summarise/discuss it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discuss, using practical examples, this four-way classification as a base for</td>
<td>- exemplify it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>segmentation. In addition explain how segmentation and targeting can work to the</td>
<td>- explain how small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>advantage of small players in industries dominated by large companies.</td>
<td>players can use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Discuss how the three major theories of personality, as outlined in your text,</td>
<td>Remember: recall the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>influence the study of the relationship between consumer behaviour and personality.</td>
<td>three theories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In addition discuss the different personality traits that have been useful in</td>
<td>- recall the personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>differentiating between consumer innovators and non-innovators citing examples to</td>
<td>traits of innovators and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivate.</td>
<td>non-innovators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understand: exemplify</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

81 It is not possible to provide an exact breakdown of what proportion of marks relate to each level of cognitive demand. This is because questions often relate to multiple levels; however, no indication is given of the marks awarded in respect of each level in the test paper or marking memorandum. The question of what constitutes cognitive demand and whether it is possible to claim consensus on this also arises as a problematic. For example, as shown in Figure 5.1., ‘exemplify’ relates to understanding, not application. However, the lecturers tended to view the provision of ‘practical examples’ as constituting application, possibly because they expected students to be able to show how theory was implemented in real business practice via such examples.
Similarly, Table 5.2 highlights the cognitive demand associated with the *Marketing Research* test questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Cognitive demand</th>
<th>Marks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section A: 50 marks; answer one</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Danika June is the owner of a coffee shop on the UKZN Westville campus. Through talking to her customers she has discovered that a need exists for the services of the coffee shop to be extended to later hours due to the large student residence population. The students have expressed dissatisfaction of not being able to travel outside of the campus during later hours due to public transport constraints. Based on the above scenario answer either Question 1 or Question 2.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. What type of research design is most suitable for this situation and why. Also, in your answer select a research method and discuss why you have chosen this method over other methods.</td>
<td>Understand, Apply</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Identify the source of the marketing problem/opportunity. What are the decision problem(s) and the research problem(s) currently being faced by Danika. Provide a clear explanation as to the process you have used in deciding on your final research problems.</td>
<td>Understand, Apply</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section B: 50 marks; answer all</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Discuss at least four main functions of marketing research.</td>
<td>Remember</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Compare and contrast a Decision Support System (DSS) and a Marketing Information System (MIS).</td>
<td>Understand, compare</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Compare and contrast two approaches or methods of ethical reasoning.</td>
<td>Understand, compare</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Are the following decision-problems discovery-oriented, strategy-oriented or both?</td>
<td>Understand, classify</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Run test market to determine projected revenues from low vs. high price strategy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) How can I increase in-store promotion of existing products?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) What pricing strategy should I choose for a new product?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Why have sales of my brand decreased?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Is my advertising working?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. What is the difference between a descriptive and a causal research design?</td>
<td>Remember, Understand</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. How does a researcher maintain “general evidence of quality” in dealing with secondary data?</td>
<td>Remember, Understand</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As pointed out in Note 80, the categorising of the test questions according to level of cognitive demand is problematic. Based on simply reading question B2 in Table 5.2, for example, one would most likely categorise it at the level of “understanding”. However, if one looks at students’ marked scripts, it becomes apparent that it may be possible to pass the question based largely on recall of information from the textbook. In the following response from Amantha, which earned full marks (10), the italicised portion of the response is taken directly from the prescribed textbook:

“The marketing information system is a set of methods and procedures that allow for the regular, planned collection, analysis and presentation of information that can be used in making marketing decisions. The decision support system is a coordinated collection of data, systems, tools and techniques, with supporting hardware and software that assist in making marketing decisions. The decision support system differs from a marketing information system in that it allows for the manipulation of data. It has components such as dialog driven database system which allows managers to customize the reports and obtain them whenever required. The MIS just provides regular reports that are standardized”.

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Additionally, Davies asserts that when learning is based merely on reading textbooks or listening to lectures designed around linear-structured PowerPoint presentations, the likelihood of rote learning is high (2010; see also Paxton, 2007; Hay et al, 2008). Therefore another contributing factor to the extent of rote learning in this context is likely to be the significance attached to the prescribed textbooks in the undergraduate Marketing courses. While the course outlines for both third-year courses provided quite detailed overviews of the content of the prescribed textbooks, little or no information about any suggested additional reading was included. The textbook was also central to what happened in the classroom:

My approach is there’s a textbook, I’m happy to give you an overview, a broad overview, er, I may not even cover everything in the textbook. Then what we’ll do, we’ll apply and I’ll make you go find the answers for yourself in the textbook (Michael)

...what I, um, realised was, okay, whatever the...whatever information like for instance is in the textbook, okay, the lecturer is going to describe, okay, he’s got the PowerPoint presentation... (Kiara)

Um, and she puts up advertisements from our textbook which we discuss (Amantha)

Um...she does try a bit but a lot of the examples are from the textbook... (Maxine).

Similarly, assessment tasks in both courses clearly signalled to students the vital role of textbook content to their success on these tasks. For example, test questions in one of the courses made reference to the prescribed textbook and required students to discuss information “as outlined in your text”, while the cover of the test and exam papers for the other course included the instruction to “Ensure that you answer your questions in accordance with your prescribed notes, readings and lectures”. Even though the lecturers stressed to students that practical application was important – and some students agreed that application to “real life situations” (Sihle) was indeed required in order to get a really good mark – rote learning was seen to be sufficient to obtain a pass.

You have to cram basically. And most people pass like that (Thuli)

...it’s a bit annoying if like you work so hard...and everybody who just like rehashes the textbook and remembers it and not really understanding the work...and they’re getting sort of the same mark as you. It’s a bit...ja...it’s not really fair (Maxine)

Some of them [the lecturers] want...like what is written in the book... (Thuli).
As shown earlier (see Note 81), responses based largely on recall have indeed been rewarded with high marks - something that may lead to the adoption of 'surface' rather than 'deep' approaches to learning (Haggis, 2003, after Marton & Saljo, 1976).

Unsurprisingly, therefore, many students were “textbook focused” (Michael) and viewed the information contained in their prescribed textbooks as key to their success in Marketing, believing that all they needed to do to pass was to “get things from the textbook and write it in the exam” (Nothando). This was felt to be especially the case in the second-year introductory module:

That’s what they [students who had done the introductory module] said. They basically made it seem like there’s no additional thinking to it. It’s just from one place – you go to your text; and to the next – you just write it all down (Amantha)

...you just have to rewrite the notes; you ‘by heart’ it and rewrite it (Amantha).

As already established, there was also a lack of practitioner input into the Marketing courses in so far as no practitioners were invited as guest lecturers. In addition, there was no advisory committee in place to provide input into the design of curricula. All of the students felt that this was something that needed to be addressed, as their Marketing courses were based largely on “book work” (Amantha). Their suggestions included inviting guest lecturers from industry, undertaking projects for real clients and visiting a corporate environment where they could spend time shadowing practitioners or obtaining work experience, although they acknowledged that some of these ideas might be difficult to implement given the size of the class.

Like bring someone from [company name], someone from...from other companies to tell us basically what they do. Maybe what...how is marketing important to them? What do they do? Like...like something interesting so we’re going to “Oh wow! Marketing is really important. It’s not just written in the textbook...” (Thuli)

From the above, it is clear that there was primarily an internal, pedagogic content focus in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN. Students were not learning to ‘do’ marketing, but to answer questions based on textbooks.

This is at odds with the nature of the Marketing discipline, as revealed through the LCT analysis in Chapter 4. In terms of Temporality, Marketing is a young, forward-looking and rapidly changing discipline. Students will thus be called upon to apply evolving Marketing knowledge to new and unfamiliar situations in changing marketplaces (Ackerman et al, 2003) – something that rote learning (with its orientation to the past) cannot enable. In terms of Specialisation, Marketing is underpinned by a knower code. In other words, it is not the possession of specialist knowledge,
but the knower’s dispositions and attributes that are the key to legitimate participation and achievement in Marketing. The primary focus in Marketing is on the knower, not on knowledge. And indeed, all of the lecturers spoke of the importance of Marketing students being able to take on the perspective (or ‘gaze’) of marketing managers, something that the literature also highlights as crucial (Rubin & Krishnan, 2004). Students must be able to “think like a marketer” (Kamini). However, a focus on content knowledge, based on the reading and reproducing of textbooks, is unlikely to facilitate this. So there are clearly implications here in terms of achieving a key outcome that the lecturers themselves identify as being important.

As noted in Chapter 4, another important outcome for Marketing students is the ability to communicate effectively, especially in writing. If one accepts that the “key to successful writing is reading” (Brown, 2004, p.330), then the almost exclusive focus on the prescribed textbook as reading material in these modules has implications for students’ writing in the discipline. Hewings (2001, p.13) asserts that textbooks provide poor models for argumentative writing because they “present the disciplinary consensus, providing accepted knowledge rather than the disciplinary conflicts and debate” which form the background for research articles. Yet argumentative writing is expected of the students in this study.

...how well you write, how well you argue certain points. I mean, there may be a situation where...where you may be totally off your response in terms of the scenario – but if you justify why you’re saying that, there’s no way that we can argue and say “I can’t give you the marks because you were off the topic”; you made sense in your argument (Nisha).

Placing heavy emphasis on prescribed textbooks may also result in students viewing textbooks as authoritative and canonical (Richardson, 2004), thus potentially leading to the silencing of students’ own voices in their writing. Additionally, as a result of borrowing closely from textbooks, students “block out their prior discourses and thus fail to integrate the new knowledge into existing knowledge structures” (Paxton, 2007, p.111).

There are also implications for students’ perceptions of, attitudes towards and learning strategies in Marketing. Its reputation as being content driven – “just facts and stuff”, as Ben put it – led many students to view Marketing as unchallenging and attendance at Marketing lectures as unnecessary.

Okay, I think like sometimes what happens is that people take...like they take Marketing for granted like, you know, they think “Oh, gosh, it’s Marketing, I just need to open the textbook when it’s a week before the exam and I’ll just get this done” (Nothando)
They bunked lectures because...I mean, I think it’s that reason...it’s like we just came to, you know, it’s like you can do it in your room, just going through the book, going through the book (Ben).

Given the potential negative consequences of placing such strong emphasis on prescribed textbooks, the adoption of such an approach is problematic. And it should be noted here that it is an approach that is not specific to UKZN, but is prevalent in the Marketing discipline more generally, leading some to go so far as to claim that in Marketing, “curricula are normally dictated by textbook chapters and associated exercises and case studies, within rigid boundaries” (Baron & Harris, 2006, pp.294-295; see also Burton, 2001; Camey & Williams, 2004).

One possible explanation for this has to do with the popularity of business and management studies, an area that attracts large numbers of students worldwide, as outlined in Chapter 4. It is an area of study often considered to be a ‘cash cow’ as it is relatively inexpensive to run for large numbers of students (Glenn, 2011) - compared to Science, for example, which requires specialised equipment and facilities, as well as additional staff to run small-group tutorial and practical sessions. This encourages a model for business studies based on larger classes – the efficient management of which becomes a key consideration and challenge for lecturers. In this context, textbooks are viewed as “a practical necessity for enabling time-pressured [lecturers] to meet the current student demand for marketing education” (Baron & Harris, 2006, p.295). Marketing textbooks often provide a convenient ‘one-stop’ solution for lecturers, offering an integrated set of resources (textbook, lecture slides, companion website, case studies, DVDs and so on) that make lecture preparation easier. As the authors of one of the prescribed textbooks used at UKZN indicate, “Our goal is to make the learning experience for students – and the teaching experience for instructors – as complete, efficient and effective as possible” (Churchill et al, 2010, p.xix).

The preceding discussion in this section has shown how the discourse around rote learning constructs students’ learning as inappropriate. A critical realist understanding of what is occurring is that, through the exercise of their agency, students are drawing on a set of beliefs about learning which leads to the emergence of particular learning events and experiences. Lecturers, who are drawing on another set of beliefs about learning, deem students’ learning to be inappropriate. This clearly has implications for the way students are recognised as members of the Discourse of Marketing.
Of interest is the lecturers’ and students’ frequent use of the word ‘theory’ as a counterpoint to ‘application’, and the implied devaluing of theory on a theory-application continuum, as represented below.

![Figure 5.2: Theory-application continuum](image)

It may just be that the use of ‘theory’ in this context is different from the generally accepted understanding. “Some who refer to the ‘theory’ in their discipline...often have in mind ‘technical’ knowledge: radio frequencies, marketing strategies, psychological theory, policy development and so forth” (Fulcher, 1996, p.168). However, there may also be links to issues of status and legitimacy. As noted in Chapter 4, many have raised concerns about the lack of distinct Marketing theory and the slow pace of progress towards developing such theory. Whether the lack of theory in Marketing is due to the valuing of, and thus a focus on, application (at the expense of theory-development), or whether the focus on application is necessary because of the lack of Marketing theory is an interesting question. Marketing has had an applied orientation since its inception as an academic discipline (Rust, 2006). However, the prevailing belief in academia of applied knowledge as ‘non-academic’ led Marketing to be seen as ‘non-intellectual’ and of low status (Burton, 2005; Rust, 2006). Marketing has attempted to justify its place in academia by strongly defining its value and contribution in terms of providing ‘useful knowledge’ of relevance to practitioners (Gronhaug, 2002), whilst downplaying the value of theory “that is some distance removed from the day-to-day realities of marketing practitioners” (Burton, 2005, p.5). Ironic, then, that “evidence suggests that academic marketing knowledge is only to a limited degree utilised in practical life” (Ottesen & Gronhaug, 2004, p.520; see also Wellman, 2010a), and that Marketing education is often described as being disconnected from the reality of marketing practice (Evans et al, 2002; Brennan, 2004; Dacko, 2006; Stringfellow et al, 2006). This is evident in the following comment from one of the students:

...I just keep thinking if I don’t decide to do Honours, I’d be very nervous to go to the workplace. I’d rather...that’s why I’m wanting to do Honours, to sort of, ja, up my game and sort of get more knowledge and information....and I’m just thinking, just with the degree and when we finish this year...I don’t know...I’m not too sure...if we sort of have enough information. I don’t know...it’s...because a textbook can give you so much only, like...and I...I just find, ja, I sort of feel that our lecturers should try to give us more up to date examples, what’s happening in the workplace. I think that’s very, very important,

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83 These issues are explored in more depth later in this chapter, in the discussion of the ‘status’ theme (Section 5.2.5).
‘cos that’s what you’re going to be working with for...as you get into the workplace. So, you know, so I just think, ja...very, very important – rather than even the knowledge that you’re getting. Because experience is a huge thing... (Maxine).

Thus Marketing has attracted criticism for a lack of progress on both fronts, that is, “building a body of theory in marketing and creating more links with practice” (Tapp, 2004, p.579). Accordingly, the ‘theory’-application continuum presented in Figure 5.2, which was derived from the participants’ accounts of Marketing education at UKZN, might instead be better represented as in Figure 5.3 in order to show the complex nature of both abstraction (theory) and application in relation to rote learning, which is based simply on the remembering of information:

This raises questions around the extent to which Marketing education should aim to proceed along each of these two branches (theory and application). What should be the balance between the two? Should there be greater emphasis on ‘academic’ Marketing or ‘practical’ marketing (Tapp, 2004) in curricula?

5.2.2 Relevance

The notion of ‘curriculum responsiveness’ (Moll, 2004) suggests that curricula should be considered in terms of four dimensions of responsiveness: economic responsiveness – “to the prevailing labour market” (p.4); cultural responsiveness – “to the cultural diversity of students and society” (p.5); disciplinary responsiveness – “to the nature of its underlying knowledge discipline” (p.7) and; responsiveness “to the learning needs of students” (p.8). However, the mainstream Marketing literature reveals that the ‘responsiveness’ of Marketing curricula is often only considered in terms of relevance to business, thus leading to an uncritical focus on the application of techniques and methods for improving results, at the expense of a consideration of the wider role and impacts of marketing in society (Baron & Harris, 2006; Hunt, 2007; Tamilia & Veilleux, 2007; Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008). Given the pervasiveness of marketing in contemporary society, this is a serious omission. Augier & March describe the quest for relevance as ‘myopic’, because it “usually denotes attention to the concrete, practical concerns of
immediate, local actors rather than more distant, less tangible, and more theoretical concerns” (2007, p.139; see also House, 1975). Thus, important questions for Marketing to consider are ‘Relevance to whom? And when?’

The discourse of ‘relevance’ was strongly represented in the data. Participants – especially students - spoke mainly of the extent to which Marketing education at UKZN linked to and was relevant to the workplace environments that students would soon be entering. However, they also spoke of the relevance of their Marketing education in terms of its links to their everyday lives (encompassing aspects such as links to contemporary issues and to the South African context). In addition, the relevance of classroom practices in Marketing at UKZN was raised.

![Figure 5.4: Dimensions of relevance](image)

Kember *et al* state that showing the relevance of what is being taught is important for motivating students’ learning, and suggest that this can be done by “showing how theory can be applied in practice; establishing relevance to local cases; relating material to everyday applications; [and] finding applications in current newsworthy issues” (2008, pp.260-261). Thus, it is important for Marketing education to be able to make links both to the business world and to the everyday world. As can be seen in the figure, students also need to be able to navigate the boundaries between the everyday world and university (i.e. from everyday to specialisation), as well as between university and the business world (i.e. from theory to practice). The relevance of what happens in Marketing classrooms at UKZN for achieving this is explored in the sections that follow.

### 5.2.2.1 Relevance to the everyday world – ‘everyday to specialised’

In terms of relevance to their everyday lives, students enjoyed being able to see how what they learned in their Marketing courses was manifest in what was going on around them in the marketplace. They felt that this made it easier to understand and apply Marketing concepts.
Because Marketing...I feel it’s relative to our lives every single day. You can’t– with me personally, I can’t go by a day without seeing an advert because I watch...even if it’s half an hour of TV you see adverts, so it’s easier to write about. And it’s things you grew up watching and hearing and seeing. Even if it’s not watching TV - you go home, you see billboards, so I find it easier to write about that (Amantha)

Because Marketing is practical. It’s something that, you know, that’s happening every day. So...with what you’ve experienced, ja, you can apply it (Lindiwe)

...I’ve noticed that if I’m walking in the shop, okay, I’m paying special attention to...okay, certain products and the way it’s being marketed, advertised and just displayed or whatever (Kiara)

Basically, Marketing has like put a whole turnaround – like ‘cos now when I sit at home, I don’t just look at the adverts...I’m always searching for the fine print, searching for what stands out (Bongani).

Lecturers, too, saw benefits in terms of students’ interest and interaction in the classroom.

In terms of interacting with students, it’s much more fun, in the way that we communicate, in the way that we pitch our lectures, especially...since everybody is a consumer...it’s very hands on as well (Nisha)

I always encouraged them to use their own personal examples... (Nisha).

But whilst this opportunity to draw on their personal experiences during lectures in order to exemplify Marketing concepts had benefits, it also posed difficulties. Lecturers indicated that some responses in tests and exams tended to be anecdotal and based largely on students’ personal experiences rather than on substantiated arguments. It appeared that, for some students, basing their essays on “opinions that have no backing or whatever seems fine” (Kamini). Thus it would seem that the blurring of the boundary between academic and everyday knowledge of Marketing (i.e. vertical and horizontal discourse) during lectures may have had the unintended consequence of making it difficult for some students to clearly differentiate between these two categories of knowledge, and to know when to appropriately use each category in assessment tasks. Doherty suggests that the lecturer has an important role to play in this regard during lectures:

To process the resulting horizontal discourse and build the vertical theoretical discourse, some general point, comment or principle needs to be explicitly extracted. That way the professional knowledge base legitimated will not be a collection of personal anecdotes with implicit links, but rather wisdom produced through explicit synthesis. The risk of student subsidy design and more interactivity in lectures is whether personal stories are allowed to pool in everyday horizontal discourse and ‘speak for themselves’. While it could be
argued that the entrepreneurial disposition thrives on such an opportunistic mix of horizontal connections between diverse knowledges and experiences, such claims to knowledge need more intellectual processing in a curriculum if they are to consciously build a rigorous vertical discourse of professional expertise.

(2010, p.256)

Thus, although everyday knowledge is useful in serving as a ‘portal’ through which students can access specialised disciplinary knowledge and procedures, they need to be empowered to move beyond these everyday understandings towards thinking in context-independent ways – otherwise they simply leave the classroom with what they already know (Bertram, 2011).

Lecturers also noted that some students had difficulty in ‘reversing perspective’ (Rubin & Krishnan, 2004), that is, looking at marketing practices not from a personal, consumer perspective, but from a strategic, marketer perspective.

...but in some cases I think students are able to relate more from a consumer perspective, rather than from a marketer perspective......some of them actually get the strategic applications in terms of marketing but with...with your ordinary students, no. A lot of them will be able to identify key concepts to their own...to their personal situation...but not...ja, in terms of marketing – no (Nisha).

This section shows how the discourse around ‘relevance to everyday life’ constructs Marketing as a subject that is ‘everyday’ rather than ‘academic’. This leads students to bring the learning and literacy practices associated with their everyday lives (primary discourses) into their Marketing courses and to draw on these in their assessment tasks in ways that lecturers deem inappropriate to academic (secondary) discourse – with clear implications for epistemological access.

In terms of relevance to contemporary issues, students were expected to keep abreast of current events and trends and to be able to see the possible implications of these for marketing practice, although the lecturers reported that they struggled to do this.

And you need to do a whole lot of reading, ‘cos you need to be up to date with everything that’s happening. Like trends and stuff (Nothando)

...they don’t even know what happens in the news...So that’s a worry...I mean, like the example, um, like the most obvious one - the recession...what would that mean for, um...maybe, new product launches? Okay. And then, think like a marketer. Does it mean then that, um, a company will not actually engage in new product development? Or will

84 These points were raised at a seminar, “Exploring an historical gaze: Bernstein, Dowling and the recontextualisation of curriculum”, that was presented by Dr Carol Bertram on UKZN’s Edgewood campus on 21 October 2011.
it mean that they will focus on their maturity phase of their lifecycle and continue to maybe penetrate markets more and that sort of thing? (Kamini)

You set, er, assignment questions...like I did this one year with, er, food...food labeling...and we looked at the...Act and, er, most of them had no idea, they were completely clueless about it. And that was simply...it’s contemporary, ja, it’s in the news all of the time. Very few actually went...or quoted sources, newspaper articles. They just cut and pasted from websites - international websites (Nisha)

I say I want them to read journals, I want them to read the newspaper and I want them to pay attention to, er, good magazines that come out. I want them to do that, but they don’t do it. So what I want them to read, they’ll never touch it (Kamini).

Many students admitted that they indeed did not do any reading beyond the prescribed textbooks, partly because of time pressures and the large volume of reading material, but also because they believed that reading their prescribed textbooks was all that they needed to do in order to pass the courses.

All the recommended things - well, eish! We usually do not find time to actually read such stuff. Even though, you know, maybe it may be helpful......We just study the book and that’s it......I mean, it was prescribed. We assume that, okay, the book is...is...is so huge, and I mean why would the person set something that is...that was recommended while this is prescribed? (Ben)

And the stuff that comes out from the test and exams are from the book (Thuli)

...you know you’re not going to be questioned on that thing [additional reading] (Sihle).

Of note, Bongani indicated that he did not do any additional reading (which the lecturers had said was an important source of applications and examples of Marketing concepts) because he felt that he could get these things simply from seeing what was going on around him in his daily life. His feeling was that “I’ll probably find more things around me”, showing that he is drawing on the ‘Marketing as everyday’ discourse.

It is often said that assessment drives learning (Entwistle, 1996, in Knight, 2002). The textbook-based assessment described above is unlikely to drive students to read more widely and to keep up with contemporary developments, because it does not signal that these practices are in fact important to success in these courses. Yet being well-informed about current issues is essentially a particular kind of knower that is valued in the Discourse of Marketing and that is key to how well students will perform in job interview situations and in the workplace. Representatives of major companies involved in graduate recruitment activities at UKZN noted that business students needed to be able to demonstrate during interviews that they were keeping abreast with current
developments and that they could think through the possible implications of those developments for the particular companies they were applying to join (Skinner, 2005). Marketers are expected to “make sense of and interpret the world outside of the organization” (Catterall et al, 2002, p.186). Therefore, the evaluation rule is not specialising students into either the knowledge or the type of knower that lecturers espouse in their discourses.

Interestingly, awareness that students were unlikely to take any additional reading seriously unless it was assessed did not result in any change to the assessment practices.

So, as much as it’s...it’s exciting to say, yes, we’re giving them readings and we’re hoping that they’re reading it...whether they’re actually going to use it, is something else. So it’s a case of we going to the effort of finding the articles and posting it up and then we have to physically monitor or police them to actually see whether they are actually reading the articles......Ja, only if you’re making...if you’re going to test it, then, ja, you probably will get a response....but if it’s just there for their info —no, highly unlikely (Nisha).

In terms of relevance to the South African context, some students reported that the prescribing of textbooks of American origin was problematic.

...a lot of the examples [in lectures] are from the textbook, and unfortunately it’s an American textbook. So thank goodness I know because I went there for a year after school, so I know a lot of the products. But I feel really bad for the other people because, sort of, if you don’t know how...how well known they are...in America...then I think you’re a little bit stuck because you sort of read the advert differently (Maxine)

I think like it would be better if we just used South African versions ‘cos sometimes they [American textbooks] make examples of things that you don’t even know, like brands that you don’t know, so it ends up not making sense...You don’t even know what the brand is doing. ‘Cos I think they write in a way where they expect you to know anyway about the brand. So I think sometimes using the South African version, where we’re familiar with the brands, makes...it would make it so much better (Nothando).

As noted in Chapter 4, there is indeed a North American bias in the discipline, probably because the USA is where Marketing first emerged as an academic discipline, and where research and teaching activity is still most prevalent (Easton, 2002). Kiel asserts that this bias is something that Marketing “suffers from” and needs to overcome for the future development of the discipline (1998, p.24). As will be further discussed in the next section, this is also something that Michael felt needed to be addressed at UKZN. Baron and Harris suggest that one way this could be done is by moving away from teaching Marketing from an organisational, managerial perspective towards teaching it from a consumer experience perspective because “(c)onsumer experiences,
unlike specific firms or organisations, do not require a privileged, cultural (westernised) upbringing for them to be understood, even though they will differ across cultures” (2006, p.293).

5.2.2.2 Relevance to the business world – ‘theory to practice’

The ‘theory’-application divide referred to by the UKZN students and lecturers is reflective of the ‘theory versus practice’ or ‘rigour versus relevance’ debate that has dominated the Marketing literature for a number of years (Tregear et al, 2010), and links to the broader question of the purpose of Marketing education. Should Marketing education be ‘about’ business or ‘for’ business (Macfarlane, 1997a)? In this study, there was a strong discourse of ‘workplace relevance and’ participants overwhelmingly favoured the view that preparation for the workplace should be key. In fact, some students had chosen to major in Marketing because they saw it as providing access to “endless job opportunities” (Kiara).

Well, I think it should be all about, er, what we’re going to be doing when we get out (Ben)

It would be nice if we are preparing for working because there were articles about students...there’s a large amount– they had statistics stating that university students cannot find jobs because of their lack of experience. So if we are...if they incorporate – I don’t know how this can be done, though – but if they incorporate some kind of practical work with it, with the course, then that would be beneficial. And people looking for students – er, graduates – would, er, consider taking us because we have both - a little bit of practical knowledge as well as, er, theoretical knowledge. But I don’t know how you can implement something like that (Amantha)

The first thing I tell them in any of my classes is that “You’ll aren’t students; you’ll are now marketers...So the problem is you’ll are thinking from the perspective of just being a student...which is a little bit ironic, because you’re in academia to get a degree to be something...” (Kamini).

The students’ expectations were therefore that their courses would link strongly to, and prepare them for, marketing practice. This is in line with findings in several studies that students are mainly concerned with the (job) utility of marketing knowledge (LaBarbera & Simonoff, 1999; Pappu, 2004; Holbrook, 2005). Gaining insight into workplace environments was considered especially important by the students in this study because they were in the final year of their undergraduate studies and finding employment was becoming a main concern - “it’s like a quite serious thing, you know. When it comes to third year, everyone’s just focusing on that” (Kiara). However, they found that their courses were not meeting their expectations in this regard.

Um, I think we need to, okay, you guys need to bring more professionals...guest speakers who can tell you about the industry. Um, I think that’s what’s different from the technikon and university. We do much more theory and, you know, going
through...okay, much more learning, I think. Er, but it will count in our favour if you, you know, you do bring in these speakers and...or, you know, take us out to a company, corporate environment...and you know, then we see for ourselves exactly what’s going to happen. And it’ll equip us more so that, you know, when we do end up going there, we won’t...it won’t be like, okay, we just came out, we don’t know what’s happening and, you know, it’s like we’re really inexperienced. So that would help (Kiara).

These sentiments resonate with those of participants in other studies of Marketing education. In Davis et al’s (2002) study, most graduates reported that their Marketing education had under-prepared them for the jobs they were occupying in terms of skills, but had over-prepared them in terms of knowledge. There seems to be more focus in Marketing curricula on the transmission of knowledge and less on skill development (Cunningham, in Kelley & Bridges, 2005; Stringfellow et al, 2006; Lincoln, 2010).

This may be related to the belief, referred to earlier, that Marketing should be viewed as an academic (not vocational) discipline and should consequently maintain greater separation from the world of practice (Rotfeld, 1996; Hunt, 2002; Holbrook, 2005; Wilkie, 2007; Wellman, 2010a). Too close a relationship with practitioners carries the danger that “fundamentals may be abandoned in favour of fads” and that the independence that has been the hallmark of universities may be compromised (Tapp, 2004, p.583). Distance is needed so that academics can bring a different perspective to the world of managers, which can be the basis for “constructive criticism or recommendations for change” (House, 1975, p.332). According to Weick:

Practitioners who chide academics for their naiveté regarding the ‘real world’ are sometimes people who want their real world to be treated as if it were the real world. That is not the academic's job. The academic's job is to understand how an idiosyncratic individual world comes to be seen as a universal world and how vested interests work to convey this definition of universality.

(2001, p.74, emphasis in original)

Such concerns and considerations may have contributed to Macfarlane (1998) finding very little proof to support the idea that lecturers in business disciplines are eager to shape curricula to meet employers’ needs, as noted in the previous chapter.

There are certainly challenges associated with the ‘workplace preparation’ view. As noted in Chapter 4, Marketing is a broad area of practice that encompasses several possible career paths in both business and non-business contexts. This raises the question of which workplace Marketing education should be preparing students for. Given the long-standing dominance of the managerial school in the discipline, as outlined in Chapter 4, Marketing courses around the world are generally taught from a marketing management perspective (Catterall et al, 2002; Hackley,
2003; Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008; Witkowski, 2010) - as is indeed the case at UKZN. This is something that Michael found troubling:

I...I actually think we’re sometimes doing a lot of the students a disservice. We should be doing, um, co-operative marketing, co-operatives, agricultural marketing, um, basic stuff like that. We do very sophisticated, um, first world, um, American......Philip Kotler type marketing most of the time. And we...we...and our examples will come from that...and that’s what we do and actually...I mean, I see where a lot of our students get placed...a lot of our students go back to where they grew up in the...in the...in the rural areas and they get jobs in the local council, something like that. They should be learning about...what is a co-operative? How does a co-operative work? What role does the co-operative play in the marketing process? What is distribution? How does distribution work there?

Apart from the relevance of the curriculum to such students, this also raises questions about the differential social access that students may have to marketing management practice and how this may impact on their being able to take on the disciplinary Discourse. Ben, who attended a rural school, indicated that he had not even been aware that Marketing was a possible area of study until he arrived at university because, at his school, career guidance about commercial jobs had focused solely on Accounting. But even Bongani and Maxine, who had both attended ex-Model C schools, had relatives or acquaintances working in marketing and themselves had part-time jobs in promotions, did not have a very clear idea of what marketing management entailed.85

Um, at the end of it all I would like to, like know what marketers do on a day to day basis, or like a marketing director. What he sits and does... Like, um, when they get information, what do they do with it? How long does it take for it to get processed? I’m...like, um, maybe we’re still going to get to that point in Marketing... Like, you know what I think? I think in Marketing we should have like a week, like where it’s work experience. Where we’re taken to a workplace for like a week and we like actually shadow a marketer or a marketing director, so you can get like a better understanding of what marketing is all about ‘cos you’d get a...You know, like right now we’re thinking marketing is all about advertising and promotions and...but we might find when we get to the workplace it’s not all about that (Bongani).

This is not surprising, as marketing management is not an entry-level marketing job and their part-time work would not have given these students insight into the world of a marketing manager. And because students may have no other frame of reference for what marketing management practice entails, a potential consequence may be greater reliance on the reproduction of knowledge from textbooks. Thus the ability of their Marketing courses to provide insight into marketing management practice takes on greater significance. One way of doing this

85 Model C schools were formerly white schools.
would be for lecturers to draw on their own experiences. During their interviews, the lecturers had constructed themselves as “not an educationist… I’m a marketing person” (Michael), as “more business people rather than actually teachers” (Nisha) and as not “just an academic” but one with “street smarts” (Kamini). However, only Michael had had any industry experience prior to becoming a lecturer. (And interestingly, even his classroom practice tended to be quite textbook-focused). But House warns that academics should not be “a mere image of a stereotype practicing manager” because this would mean that they have “nothing to offer either practicing managers or the students who are studying to join their ranks” (1975, p.332). Another option would be building practitioner input and involvement into the courses. That this does not already happen may partly be due to the high degree of positional and relational autonomy that the academic discipline of Marketing enjoys, as revealed through the LCT analysis in Chapter 4. However, a baseline study of the attributes of South African graduates from the perspective of employers, undertaken by HESA and the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), concluded that “(t)he boundary between the university and business needs to become more porous” (Griesel & Parker, 2009, p.24).

So while the importance of practical application is espoused by the lecturers, there does not appear to be very much value attached to this in the courses. One example of this mentioned earlier is the relatively low weighting given to the application-based assignments in the third-year courses. Another example was provided by Nothando, who was successfully running a small marketing firm but not performing well on the Marketing courses, as the following comments indicate:

Honestly, I think like to be a Marketing student it’s so different. I don’t know, because maybe I’m using my example. Sometimes you may not be good in the class, in the classroom, like theory wise, but you have a better understanding of marketing but you can’t put it on paper… ’cos, I think, like ’cos I think some people can get like good marks, like great marks, but put them on the actual field, they wouldn’t be able to...

But what I’m saying is, yes, maybe that person could have gotten their 90s or whatever using their textbook, maybe they were really good at remembering things, the textbook. But maybe they [referring to a company that is a sought-after employer among Marketing students] could leave somebody else because they don’t have those good marks - but maybe they could do something really good.

Several factors emerged during the interviews as possible challenges to incorporating more practical application into the Marketing courses. Undergraduate class sizes were large and lecturers had sole responsibility for their classes (there were no tutors or teaching assistants). All contact sessions took the form of large-group lectures, in venues that were not always conducive to practical work. Additionally, in order to make assessment manageable, there were few tasks
set during the semester. (In their smaller Honours classes, however, the lecturers’ teaching approaches were quite different and practical tasks were included more often). The undergraduate curriculum structure was felt to be problematic, in that there was not enough time and space available to accomplish everything that the lecturers would have liked to.\(^{86}\) This also led to a content focus.

...in the case of the syllabus as well, there’s certain things that you *have* to go through, and you have to cover, so as much as we like to have application... (Nisha)

...it would be difficult to actually imagine them getting an application perspective if they don’t understand the basics or the framework... (Nisha)

...how do you get 250 students in a LAN [room]? Um, unless a [lecture] venue is equipped with the necessary equipment... (Kamini).\(^{87}\)

It may be that the fundamental nature of business curricula does not facilitate a focus on practical application. “Because of the breadth of the required business curriculum, undergraduate business students take many introductory courses in which classes are larger and instruction focuses more on the lower levels (knowledge and comprehension) of the cognitive domain” (Ulrich, 2005, p.273). At UKZN, students majoring in Marketing are indeed required to take introductory modules in a variety of business (and other) disciplines, as shown in Table 4.3.

In any case, as Wellman asserts:

it would be naïve to expect that any higher education institution could deliver a truly competent graduate practitioner and instead we must reconcile ourselves to producing, at best, Dreyfus and Dreyfus’s (1986 cit Hodkinson and Isslelt 1995) novice or advanced beginner. If nothing else, the vital part played by experience and exposure to the “real-world” of practice would be near impossible to deliver and the ability of education to develop or change individuals’ deep seated traits is questionable.

(2010a, p.126; see also Lincoln, 2010)

This view is in line with Barr and McNeilly’s finding that many company recruiters believe that some skills are “unattainable in the classroom setting”, leading them to place more emphasis on work experience and extracurricular activities as employability indicators (2002, p.171). Practitioners, too, often indicate that “non-formal and social learning practices had dominated their professional formation” (Fenton-O’Creevy et al, 2006, p.6). Additionally, Mintzberg argues that the object of undergraduate business education is “to educate people, not to give them a lot

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\(^{86}\) See Table 4.3 for the undergraduate Marketing curriculum structure. Issues related to this structure will be discussed in more detail later in the chapter, in Section 5.2.3.

\(^{87}\) Local Area Network. A LAN room is a teaching venue equipped with computing devices and services.
of functional business stuff” and that offering a vocational area of study such as Marketing to an 18-year-old student is a ‘travesty’ (in Glenn, 2011, no page). Also, the heavy emphasis that is placed on application and practice gives rise to a false image of managers as “action oriented rather than thoughtful” whereas both action and reflection are crucial for success (Tapp, 2004, p.581). While Kiel asserts that the primary task of Marketing lecturers should be to teach students “the tools and techniques of thinking within a marketing context” (1998, p.27), Ramocki contends that in addition to strategies for thinking, transfer strategies also need to be incorporated into Marketing pedagogy because “the ability to transfer marketing knowledge into various environments and situations is extremely important to our students” (2007, p. 11). Accordingly, the South African business community has called for graduates to have “some kind of extended exposure to the work place while at university” (Griesel & Parker, 2009, p.24).

The discourse around ‘workplace relevance’ was very prevalent in the data at UKZN, which is not surprising as it relates to wider discourses about the relevance of university education to the achievement of the country’s socio-economic goals, as noted in Chapter 4, especially in the context of high levels of unemployment. This discourse leads students to construct teaching practices as inappropriate and irrelevant to their future workplace needs and may contribute to some extent to their disengagement from such practices, as shown in the next section.

5.2.2.3 Relevance of classroom interaction

The participants were asked to describe a typical classroom session in a Marketing course, and to comment on the roles played by lecturers and students in class. Most participants indicated that the sessions were quite strongly lecturer-directed. Marketing lectures were also described as not being very engaging or interactive, with just a few students participating in discussions.

Mmm...I think...I think we play similar role because she stands in front of us, presents, and then asks questions from us and we respond (Lindiwe)

Hai! The lecturer plays a bigger role. Like our Marketing classes are like so dead... dead, dead, dead. Lecturers have to beg some of the guys to like answer, like please give her a view or something. Nod your head. I think they’re just there to sit and take down notes... (Bongani)

I just think two of our lecturers just - or actually rather the one - it’s a lot of ‘Here’s the OHP, take it down’. And I think in third year you can’t have that (Maxine)

She just stands there and she looks at us. ‘You guys finished taking down notes?’ And then it’s like ‘Nooooo!’ ......So like, you know, the slide that she puts up, she waits for us to actually finish writing it down and then she explains. But then sometimes I think that’s not, er, like effective...or efficient. ‘Cos some people will just say ‘No, we’re not done writing’, while they’re sitting and talking (Bongani)
“...I find some of our lecturers...like if they don’t get feedback they’re just like ‘Okay, whatever’...They move on. And I just think they should rather press...” (Maxine)

...there’s like a handful of interaction, from the same students (Amantha)

Erm...well, I don’t want to speak bad...but, I mean, there was not opportunity for questions, you know... It was just like the...the...the...slides here and just putting the slides after the other, one after the other (Ben).

Class size was frequently mentioned, by both students and lecturers, as an impediment to achieving a more interactive classroom environment. Students found the large classes intimidating, which inhibited their participation in plenary discussions, while lecturers worried about losing control if they set small-group discussions and tasks.

Obviously the lecturer is...is dominant. Because the students, er, are quite...I think the students are scared of each other so......it causes them not to be...not to be who they are. 'Cos some of the people are really open, they can be able to answer questions if the class was small - but because the class is so huge, they can’t...they can’t express their views. They are scared to express their...So the lecturer becomes dominant because the lecturer is used to such an environment. For students, they are not used to...to...to a huge environment (Ben)

Um, I think, ja, obviously the lecturer plays a very big role but I think if we were able to discuss things as a group or...um, sort of if the lecture rooms were maybe...I mean if the amount of students within the lecture were sort of a bit smaller...because I find like the lecturer asks a question and everybody stares blankly at her and is...so, so scared to say anything (Maxine)

Like the only group work you have is to turn to the person next to you and discuss something about the advert. They give you, ja, five minutes. So you’re like “Hi, my name is...”. Two minutes allocated time up, by the way. And you’re talking about this, and it’s all...And then, okay, “Any volunteers?” Then nobody volunteers. Like in my view if it was the thing that everyone or every group will go...so like, okay, your group first, then go...but the thing is you can’t really do that...class is too big (Bongani)

It’s impossible with 250-plus (Kamini)

Also because if you give them discussion questions, they...90% of the time, they’re sitting and discussing...something else (Nisha).

Students also gave other reasons for their reluctance to participate in classroom discussions, including the risk of being wrong, and their level of proficiency in English.
…if people actually started asking questions…it would be so much better, like you’d understand better. Now, everybody doesn’t want to ask questions - that’s including me… I don’t like asking questions ‘cos I just think I’m gonna sound silly (Nothando)

What if I’m wrong? The whole class will laugh at me. I mean, wow! I mean…so it’s like that, I mean - trusting ourselves, it’s a problem…trusting ourselves with an answer (Ben)

Well, yoh! Um, I think it’s just…it’s being young……and you want to…you want to…I don’t know, to fit in, so if you give a wrong answer……it means there is something wrong about you, so, you know… That’s an assumption on my view. The reason why I would not lift my hand up is…the thought will come to me ‘If I lift my hand high right now and then I answer the question and it’s wrong…’. Or maybe it’s not…it’s not…the English…my English is not that good…is not that much good. And maybe when I’m walking outside…when I’m outside, people will be talking about me, saying ‘Wow, man! This guy doesn’t know how to articulate the question’ and stuff like that. Ja… (Ben)

…she tries to encourage discussions…and ask questions, but the class is just quiet…. Probably they don’t understand…we don’t understand (Thuli)

Um, I notice that there’s some students that, um, tend to be, er, more confident…in explaining and expressing themselves than other people, which intimidates them as well - even though they confidently give the wrong answers, for example (Kiara)

There’s no reason why we can’t participate in class, we’re just being us (Lindiwe).

The nature and volume of the subject matter was another factor mentioned by the lecturers as impacting on classroom interaction.

…look, generally you’ve got to…you’ve got to stand there and you’ve got to play more of a role as a lecturer because they’re not going to respond to, er, the subject material easily (Kamini)

…I do the talking and they do the listening. [Laughs]……I tend to do that…if I’m, er, emphasising a new concept – especially there’s lots of new areas in [module name] at a third level… (Nisha).

So, in contrast to Nisha’s claim that teaching Marketing was “the most creative way in which to actually interact with students”, and all the lecturers stating that they viewed students as “active partners in constructing learning”, classroom interaction tended to be quite centred on the lecturer and the transmission of knowledge.88 This fits the description of traditional pedagogy in Marketing, provided in Chapter 4. However, this ‘signature pedagogy’ (Shulman, 2005a, 2005b) is

88 Another question in the ‘curriculum self-assessment questionnaire’ (see Note 74) asked whether the lecturers saw students as: “A. lacking the skills necessary for academic success; B. the subjects of the teaching and learning process; C. active partners in constructing learning; D. disadvantaged by previous schooling”. All three lecturers selected option C.
unlikely to be effective in terms of developing students in ways that are important to the
disciplinary Discourse, the practice of marketing and to being effective learners at university and
beyond.

A marketer, you’ve actually got to sell yourself. You’ve got to be out front, you’ve got to
be there, you’ve got to be extroverted, and part of that is the ability to present...to
make physical presentations. It’s one of the toughest things to learn to do, is stand up in
front of a...a group of people and...and...and present your ideas. It’s one of the
toughest things. And, er, I was surprised...I said to them...I’m actually surprised they do
no presentation skills, presentation technique at all (Michael)

...if I sit in class and we...we’re speaking about something and I look at those guys and I
think ‘Hey, these guys are going to be marketers. Things are going to be boring in this
world’... They’re not vibey...I see marketing as, you know, although there’s having lots of
fun, it’s serious work as well, but......it’s all about coming up with crazy ideas and crazy
things that will catch people’s attention...to sell a product. So, if they’re all like so dead
and what not, how will you like get people excited about a product when you’re not
excited yourself? They’re not like amped or hyped up to do Marketing (Bongani).

The literature does indicate a shift towards more interactive, discussion based classroom
interaction in Marketing and in business studies more generally (Smart et al, 1999; Doherty,
2010), but such a shift is not yet evident in Marketing classes at UKZN. Participants had some
suggestions for how classroom interaction could be improved so that Marketing would no longer
be just “a sit-down content class” (Bongani). These included moving away from an exclusive
focus on the ‘large-group lecture-only’ format towards a mix of lectures and small-group tutorial
sessions, as well as greater use of case studies and interactive tasks in class, preferably done in
small groups.

Cos you find even, like, in all lecture rooms sometimes students, you know, they don’t
want to ask questions, they don’t want to participate. But you find that classes that have
tuts...that’s where people actually participate more and they understand better, they
understand things better, ja (Nothando)

Um...[pause]...maybe some like role-playing; maybe like, um, they give us like a specific
object, say ‘Okay, try and market this object to the class’ or something to...to get people
going, you know, laughing. I think in that way people will open up and they’ll see it’s not
such a sit-down content class. It’s more like, interaction (Bongani)

Especially for [module name], I see we’re doing a lot of case studies. Okay, like if we’re
doing the section, okay, the theory part of it, it’s just okay, we’re just understanding but,
um, when we’re doing the examples, the case studies, you know, the application, we’re
understanding it much more better (Kiara)

Okay, the students’ interaction with the lecturers are different because, okay, like I
don’t want to be biased but I have to...okay, like [lecturer’s name]... ja, I think his lecture
style, okay, the way he teaches whatever...he...it...he also entertains. He entertains while teaching so it’s...so people enjoy that. They’re not like, um, bored...... And amongst...in all of that, you’re still learning. Still getting through the syllabus. Ja. So that’s the main thing that I enjoy......even though there’s no case studies, there’s no application, people are speaking. People are not shy to...even though there’s so many people there. They’re not shy to say something or......they don’t...you know, feel intimidated that, you know, maybe they’re wrong... (Kiara)

...only when it comes to group [work]...then they’re bold to speak and then if their points are, you know, if they raise a point and they feel that it’s good enough, then they have the confidence to now say “Our group said this”. So they build on that I think. Ja, that’s what I think... I think it’s the understanding, you know, like light bulb moment. Like they realize now...okay...they didn’t expect to like give an answer like that and everyone is like agreeing with them. Okay. They’re just scared, they say “I got this answer”, and everyone agrees. They’re surprised that everyone agrees. Then that builds their confidence. That, you know, they’re saying something that that’s meaningful......that’s adding some meaning here. And, ja, that’s what builds their confidence, you know, to even give you an example, because I notice, like personalities, okay, in the class, they grow... Like sometimes they’re quiet and once they start getting group consensus – they get good remarks and whatever - ......it increases. Like for example, like if the lecturer says “Well done”, it, er, it motivates them. Um, I noted that (Kiara).

In addition to discourses around the relevance of the curriculum and teaching practices, discourses around curriculum structure were also evident.89

### 5.2.3 Curriculum structure

Participants spoke about what they thought the relationships were (or should be) between different disciplines, between the different subjects within the Marketing discipline and between the different topics within individual Marketing subjects. Common discourses that arose were those around ‘keeping apart’, ‘bringing together’ and ‘progression’.

#### 5.2.3.1 Separation versus integration

The ‘keeping apart’ and ‘bringing together’ discourses relate to the boundaries between and within disciplines and subjects. (The issue of the boundary between everyday and academic knowledge was covered in the discussion of ‘relevance to the everyday world’).

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89 The relevance of assessment practices is not included as a separate section here, as issues relating to assessment are raised under several themes in this chapter.
Boundaries between different disciplines

As outlined in Chapter 4, Marketing is offered as a major in a general commerce degree in the Faculty of Management Studies at UKZN. The structure of the degree (see Table 4.3) is typical of an undergraduate business studies curriculum, which tends to be broad in scope and which includes introductory modules from several disciplines (Ulrich, 2005) – something that may result in the scattered and superficial coverage of topics (Glenn, 2011), and thus a lack of coherence. It may also lead to confusion for students about the boundaries between Marketing and other disciplines, and how they relate to each other, as can be seen in the following extracts.

...is Management Marketing? Or it’s different, Management and Marketing? (Ben)

Like, er, I know like last year [in Marketing] we used, um...Lamb and Hair [Marketing textbook], ja. Also we did Managing People in South Africa [Human Resources textbook] (Kiara).

Participants had mixed feelings about Marketing being just one of several (business and other) disciplines that students were exposed to during the degree. While most felt that there should be much greater focus placed on Marketing in the degree and thus less attention given to other disciplines, the point was also made that marketers need to work closely with those from other business functions in the workplace and that exposure to different disciplines was therefore important.

Marketing shouldn’t be slotted in as part of a programme (Kamini)

...they should have like a Bachelor of Marketing, so you’re specialised - you know, like how you have Bachelor of Accounting. Why is it that we suddenly just have Bachelor of Commerce, Marketing? (Kamini)

...they’re doing other modules outside of the Management disciplines...that’s one of the problems as well (Nisha)

...if you are doing your [undergraduate] degree, it’s like you know less things in more modules. Unlike doing, like, your Honours because then you know you are focusing on this thing [Marketing] and you have to study this thing like 24 hours and, you know, and get to know it and...ja...unlike...unlike us as third years now, you know. We got Operations and we got all those things so you can balance that. So, ja, but I think if you are more focusing on that theme, that topic, you get used to it (Sihle)

Something we’ve never done here, but I believe we should have done is got involved with the Graphic Design people. We should have had our marketers and our Graphic
Design people, um, in their final year working together and learning how to work with
other disciplines, because that I think they’re going to do quite a lot of (Michael). 90

Thus, with the exception of Michael, participants tended to employ a discourse of ‘keeping apart’
from other disciplines. This is interesting not just because working with other business functions is
important for marketers (Barber et al, 2001), but also because Marketing itself, as a region
(Bernstein, 1996), is an amalgam of various disciplines. However, this discourse may be
prevalent because it can work to influence actions to the advantage of those in the discipline. For
Nisha, the strengthening of boundaries between Marketing and other management disciplines in
the School contributed to greater job satisfaction. Whereas previously it had been the norm for
lecturers to teach in multiple disciplines in the School, there had recently been a move towards
allocating lecturers to just one discipline where possible, thus providing a more defined career
path.

Well, now I have to say, now that there’s room for specialisation...it’s, er...you’re delving
more into the research area, you’re learning more, so I think in that...in that way, for
personal development as well, it’s better, because you will have a more, uh, more...how
shall I say it?...er, a clear vision in terms of how you actually proceed as opposed to
doing inter-disciplinary teaching with Marketing and, er, Management and having to
read a whole host of stuff (Nisha).

However, Barber et al caution that adopting a strong disciplinary focus should be undertaken with
care as it may lead to a concern with the protection of turf and because business schools need to
emphasise “the interaction among disciplines in business” (2001, p.241, citing American
Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) task force, 1996; see also Ottewill et al,
2005).

*Boundaries between different subjects in the Marketing discipline*

An overview of each of the undergraduate Marketing modules at UKZN was given in Chapter 4
(see Table 4.4).

Michael felt strongly that the Marketing curriculum at UKZN “needs to be pulled together” and that
there should be “some sort of integration” such as an “integrative course” to enable students to
look at Marketing “in totality” or “holistically”, rather than as separate, unrelated subjects.

I did find with [module name] that they have difficulty relating – and in fact I said...said
to them – “You have done Introduction to Marketing, that’s why I’m not covering this
chapter in the textbook......for heaven’s sake, it’s exactly the same. It’s not two separate
subjects; it’s the same thing...” (Michael)

90 By ‘here’, Michael is referring to the other institution at which he lectures Marketing and where his
interview took place.
But I refer to it......I refer to it. I say “Remember the buying process, remember what the buying process looks like. Think about that. Relate it”. And I said “You must stop thinking about these subjects as having...you know, I passed that last year and...” (Michael).

Part of the reason for the students approaching the courses in this way may be linked to the decision to split 32-credit-point annual courses into 16-credit-point semester courses from 2007. It has been said that the “tendency to modularise teaching which has dominated business education over the last four decades” results in a lack of coherence and a lack of opportunity for a long-term process of reflection (Crump & Costea, 2003). Modularisation is also key to the ‘credit exchange discourse’ which has been influential in shaping South African higher education curriculum policy from the early 1990s onwards (Ensor, 2004), as noted in the previous chapter and as alluded to in the following comment:

...they’re basically put into a situation, or placed into a situation - especially now with the specialisation where they’re doing four modules [in Marketing at third year] - I think it can be overwhelming (Nisha).

Another factor that may be pertinent to the students’ perceived difficulty in viewing the different Marketing modules as a coherent whole is the temporal gap between Introduction to Marketing (offered in the first semester of second year) and the third-year modules. Especially if, as students had indicated, the introductory module required simply the remembering of textbook content, it is unlikely that such content would be remembered for very long. Bacon and Stewart’s (2006) study found that students forgot most of the knowledge learned in a Marketing course soon after completing the course. Among their suggestions for facilitating long-lasting learning were focusing on depth rather than breadth (see also Wellman, 2010a) and ensuring that prerequisites were taken immediately before the course for which they were required. Thus rethinking the scheduling of the introductory Marketing module might be useful. More important, however, might be to first consider to what extent the prerequisite module is really fundamental to what happens in subsequent courses. This issue will be picked up on in the next section on ‘progression’ (Section 5.2.3.2).

Also of significance to students’ ability to view Marketing as a coherent whole may be the degree and nature of interaction between the lecturers of the different Marketing modules. In 2010, the year in which the interviews took place, the School moved away from a system of appointing coordinators for each discipline. An ‘undergraduate coordinator’ was given responsibility for overseeing the undergraduate modules in all disciplines in the School and no meetings were scheduled for the Marketing discipline in 2010. Although the School reverted to the discipline coordinator system in 2011, discipline meetings take place infrequently, generally just once or
twice a year, at the beginning of the year or of each semester. The agendas of these meetings tend to focus on operational issues (such as staffing and timetabling) for individual modules, rather than on curriculum and teaching and learning issues for the programme as a whole. Generally, only the permanent staff members attend as the part-time lecturers may not yet have been appointed. During the year, each lecturer works for the most part in isolation on their modules and may be largely unaware of what is happening in other modules. Evidence of this ‘keeping apart’ emerged when I asked one of the third-year lecturers about the relationship between concepts covered in a particular area of study at second and third year levels and was told that they would be unable to respond to that without first having a look at the second-year textbook. Speaking about another module, this time at third year level, the same lecturer reported being unsure of what the syllabus comprised. Clearly it would be difficult for students to get a ‘big picture’ view of Marketing as a coherent whole if making links and connections between modules appears not to be a focus of the academics in the discipline and if such connections have therefore not been explicitly built into the Marketing curriculum. Developing and then making students aware of a curriculum map, showing students how material in different Marketing courses relates to each other, might be a useful first step in trying to ensure that learning does not occur in a segmented fashion; such a map could also show how Marketing relates to other disciplines and to professional practice, thereby positively impacting on students’ perceptions of the relevance of the discipline and on their motivation (Kember et al, 2008).

Thus there would seem to be not just increasing separation of Marketing from other disciplines within the School (as Nisha spoke about earlier), but also separation between the different courses within Marketing. Nisha’s earlier comments about a narrower focus facilitating the development of specific research interests and a defined career path may be of relevance here too. Holbrook refers to an “overspecialised intellectual climate” in Marketing, which may be linked to a focus on the short-term incentives inherent in the ‘publish or perish’ system (2005, p.143, citing Wilkie & Moore, 2003). However, the teaching of material as “discrete subjects by specialists in the particular area” (Kember et al, 2008, p.257) could be problematic in terms of facilitating students’ knowledge of the practice of marketing and of Marketing as a discipline. Thus the ‘keeping apart’ discourse has serious implications. All of this, coupled with lecturers with no training in effective pedagogy or an Education background, makes for a troubled scenario.

**Boundaries within individual subjects in Marketing**

There seemed to be awareness among students that it was important to take a ‘big picture’ view within each subject.

> Um, I think, um, you need to have, okay, background information. Like for instance, um, we have to write, um, a test, um, for Consumer Behaviour, okay. There’s just one essay,
six chapters. So you can’t just say you’re learning only the first three chapters or whatever. You have to know everything, like, co-relates somehow. You have to have knowledge about, you know, what’s going on, you know, overall… (Kiara)

That’s one thing I’ve realized about varsity and the modules. It’s more like, “We might be testing you on section…on this section, Chapter 6 – but I want you to… I want to see you linking that to Chapter 1 and Chapter 10, linking everything to show that you do understand” (Bongani).

However, Michael pointed out that assessment practices in some modules worked against achieving this sort of ‘big picture’ by testing topics as isolated segments, rather than as part of an integrated whole.

Um, the test was chapters one to eight, and the exam was chapters nine to fifteen of the textbook. So, I had a little bit of a problem with that……that you’re not looking at the subject in totality. And with [name of module that Michael taught], they said “But we did chapters one to eight for our test, does that mean we don’t have to…?” I said “No, no, chapters one to fifteen will do for the exam, thank you very much… You have to look at it holistically…” (Michael).

In addition to integration, participants spoke about progression in the undergraduate Marketing curriculum at UKZN.

### 5.2.3.2 Progression

Table 5.3 presents a matrix that shows which areas of study are included in each of the undergraduate Marketing modules at UKZN.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AREAS OF STUDY IN THE KNOWLEDGE BASE OF MARKETING (Yiu, 2009)</th>
<th>UNDERGRADUATE MARKETING MODULES, UKZN, 2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second year First semester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Introduction to Marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer behaviour</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing research</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Segmentation &amp; targeting</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positioning &amp; branding</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing mix (4 Ps)</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer relationship mgnt</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International marketing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing ethics</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

91 This area of study is not included in the undergraduate Marketing curriculum at UKZN, but is the focus of a dedicated postgraduate module (Global Marketing) at Honours level.
Of the four ‘Ps’ that are a major focus of the Marketing discipline (Yiu, 2009), only two (‘promotion’ and ‘product’) are developed beyond the brief introduction offered in second year. ‘Promotion’ is the focus of a dedicated module (Marketing Communications), while ‘product’ is currently the primary focus of Special Topics in Marketing, a module intended to allow for contemporary developments in marketing to be represented in the curriculum. The content of this module could thus change from the current mainly ‘product’ focus – depending not only on developments in marketing practice, but also on the availability, interests and expertise of staff teaching the module.

The lack of focus on the other two ‘Ps’ (‘price’ and ‘place’) at third year may be related to an emphasis in the Marketing curriculum on aspects considered to be most relevant to the work of marketing managers. When asked to rank what knowledge areas were most important for graduates, marketing managers in New Zealand selected (in order of importance) marketing communications, consumer behaviour and product/brand management (Gray et al, 2002) – all three of which form part of the third-year curriculum at UKZN. Similarly, in the USA it was found that the knowledge areas most often required by employers included “buyer behaviour, marketing research, promotion and advertising, and global marketing” (Lincoln, 2010, p.125, citing Schlee, 2009). The first three of these are included in the undergraduate curriculum at UKZN in the third year, and the fourth is offered at Honours level.

The overlap of Marketing content with other disciplines may also be pertinent to the lack of focus on ‘price’ and ‘place’ at third year. Students in the Faculty of Management Studies are required to take two years of Economics, and ‘price’ is an aspect included in the Economics curriculum. This requirement to take Economics does not apply to students from outside the Faculty who are majoring in Marketing, however – such as the students on the Howard College campus who are registered for Social Science degrees. ‘Place’ is taught in Supply Chain Management, which has been offered as a separate discipline on the School of Management’s Westville campus since 2007. However, while all Marketing students in the Faculty of Management Studies take a level two introductory module from the Supply Chain Management discipline (Introduction to Operations Management), not all of them select Supply Chain Management as their second major in their third year of study. In addition, Supply Chain Management is not offered as a major on the Howard College campus.

The scheduling of Marketing only from second year onwards at UKZN is characteristic of undergraduate business degrees, with Marketing courses typically being taken late in students’
academic programmes (Kleine, 2002). Kamini felt that this was problematic and that students
needed to start specialising in Marketing “from the get go”.

There’s nothing in second year that’s foundational for Marketing students…..And it’s
such a jump from second year to third year…so that is why there’s such a...expectation
when they come……Ja. So there’s...so obviously they get a bit of a shock (Kamini)

Um, I sort of think from second to third year, though, I think it’s a big jump and they
expect a lot from us...er......in terms of our writing ability and what we’re supposed to
know. I think, um, and I hear a lot like of our lecturers saying ‘You’re supposed to know
this, you’re supposed to know that’...but if there was nothing in first and second year, if
the majority of us don’t know, surely there’s a problem with the teaching. Um, ja, that’s
made me a little angry... (Maxine).

Of interest is that both Kamini and Maxine in effect ‘write off’ the introductory Marketing module,
saying that there’s “nothing in second year” that helps prepare students for third-year Marketing.
In fact, Maxine felt that she might as well not have done the introductory module.

I don’t think they prepare us enough...I feel sort of like...that I could have not done first
and second [year]...and could have just...but that sort of big jump, like the amount that
they’re expecting [in third year] (Maxine).

As previously mentioned, the breadth of the introductory module Marketing module may
contribute to a superficial treatment of topics, especially as this module has only half the contact
time of the third-year modules. It also leads to some topics being set as self-study instead of
being covered in class and, because these topics are generally not assessed, most students
simply ignore them. Add to this that students report that a pass in the introductory module can be
achieved via rote learning, and that there is a gap of a semester or a year until the third-year
modules are taken, and it starts to become clear why students may feel as Maxine does.
However, it might also be the nature of Marketing, as a horizontal knowledge structure, that has a
role to play here, as such knowledge structures are less likely to result in cumulative learning
(Maton, 2009).

Level 2 is a mere intro to the basics of [subject] not giving exclusive coverage and depth
to the concept of [subject] as a whole, so although level 2 is a prerequisite module it
serves more as an Intro to Marketing in general and only superficially covers [subject]
which is an aspect of marketing management. Students progression to [subject] level 3
is not highly dependent on what they’ve covered in level 2 as we undertake a study of
[subject] intensively at level 3 from scratch, as it were (Nisha)

...there’s lots of new areas in [module name] at a third level... (Nisha)

...students don’t actually cover any of this at level 2 (Nisha)
...level 2 is merely a superficial intro which is repeated for the sake of clarity and built on in level 3 (Nisha)

To an extent the absolute basics are referenced from level 2 but the analysis is much more deeper and intensive at level 3...and lends itself to concepts and application not covered anywhere in the literature at level 2 (Nisha)

Still using the same things, Marketing – the first one, second year, third year. You find it’s the same thing even though there are some stuff that we do...but...more detail, ja. But just, but just like...I’d say the thing is just the same (Sihle).

From the comments above, it appears that there is no clear progression in terms of a graded development of concepts from one year to the next. At third year, there seems to be repetition of what has been done in the second year course, the introduction of new concepts that are not related to what was done in the second year course and the application of concepts from the second year course in new situations and contexts. However, there is not much building conceptually on what was covered in second year. These descriptions are reflective of a horizontal curriculum structure, in which “a unit of study (lesson, module, year, etc) builds upon the knowledge imparted in previous units...through segmental aggregation” rather than through integration and subsumption (Maton, 2009, p.45).

This may account for why Marketing is generally scheduled later in business degrees (Kleine, 2002). It may be that it is not necessary to schedule Marketing courses any earlier because they tend not to build vertically on concepts, but to repeat them and add horizontally to them (for example, by looking at them in terms of new applications, as Nisha indicated). Kamini, however, felt that it was because Marketing was scheduled late that it was not possible to build on concepts over the years.

...don’t just bring [subject] in third year...it’s the kind of subject that you can build into, so...so that as the years go by, you get a sense of why you do [subject]. ‘Cos students still don’t know why they must do [subject]... And most of them don’t have any intention of doing postgrad (Kamini).

From what has been presented in the preceding sections, it may be safe to conclude that the Marketing curriculum is working against students gaining epistemological access to the discipline, in that it does not offer a coherent, graded development of ideas that enables students to take on and participate effectively in the disciplinary Discourse. This could in part be attributed to the strength of the ‘keeping apart’ discourse. However, because learning outcomes are often complex and thus can only be developed slowly across entire programmes, not in individual modules, there are “significant implications for curriculum design and integration” (Fenton-
O’Creevy et al, 2006, p.12), as well as for transfer (Maton, 2009). Again this shows how discourses at the level of the real impact on students’ experiences in Marketing at UKZN, with consequences for epistemological access.

5.2.4 Marketing compared to other disciplines

In speaking about the similarities and differences between Marketing and other disciplines, several students mentioned the relative importance of providing examples in Marketing, as evidence of wider reading and of the understanding of concepts.

Like in Marketing you have to give a lot of examples. Ja. Not in HR. We don’t really have examples [in HR] because…it’s something like...how can I put it? But in Marketing we have to put a lot of examples (Lindiwe)

Ja, and putting some practical examples, that will show that you really understand (Sihle)

But with Marketing they want examples... (Thuli)

I think Marketing is all about giving examples every time (Lindiwe)

Ja, like if they were recommended by the lecturer, I’ll make sure that I at least get to know that journal and...not that I will study the journal, but I will find maybe at least two examples from that journal and I’ll use them in an exam. And that will show ukuthi, I really do some, you know, some self study (Sihle)

I think that you have to show them that you studied from your textbook, but not entirely text work...er...textbook notes or...You shouldn’t be taking straight from the textbook; you should have a little bit of that, but show greater understanding. Like with the use of your examples, incorporate that with your book – and not necessarily the book examples, but show them that you...My lecturer just this morning told us that we should have shown that we did extra reading. So I don’t...I think that’s very important, practical examples and extra readings. ‘Cos she said that the whole class lacked, um, good examples to get good marks... (Amantha).

Like Marketing textbooks in general, the textbooks used at UKZN make extensive use of examples, as revealed by these statements from the prefaces of the prescribed textbooks for the Consumer Behaviour and Marketing Research modules.

Through extensive examples, we demonstrate how the concepts and techniques presented are put into practice (Churchill et al, 2010, p.xix)

...an ongoing example drawn from a real-life marketing research project (Churchill et al, 2010, p.xix)
...short examples, drawn from the business world, are designed to engage students’ interest in the materials presented (Churchill et al, 2010, p.xix)

...numerous real-world examples (Schiffman et al, 2010, p.15)

...two cases now appear at the end of each chapter (Schiffman et al, 2010, p.15)

All professors appreciate students who bring examples related to the course to class because such initiatives favourably reflect their own ability to generate enthusiasm toward marketing and consumer behaviour among their students (Schiffman et al, 2010, p.16).

Even though many research traditions consider them to be “an inferior form of argument” and “inadequate for higher forms of thought” (Lischinsky, 2008, p.243), examples are commonly used as persuasive argument in popular business and management discourse. Lischinsky asserts that “the inherent interpretive richness of examples allows them to perform a variety of functions – establishing factuality, significance and desirability, often at the same time” and that the prevalence of examples in business and management disciplines leads to “textual forms less rigidly articulated than is usual in academic prose” (2008, p.264). As noted in Section 5.2.2.1, the prevalence during Marketing lectures of examples drawn from personal experiences and the subsequent blurring of the boundary between everyday and academic Marketing knowledge made it difficult for students to know when and how to appropriately use these two categories of knowledge in their assessment tasks.

There would seem to be some contradiction between the ‘interpretive richness’ of examples, which are widely used in Marketing and the weak semantic density that characterises the discipline. This may be due to the manner in which examples and cases are typically used in Marketing education. Referring specifically to Marketing textbooks, Hackley notes the proliferation of ‘case vignettes’ but is critical of their spurious and arbitrary use, asserting that the grounds for their application to specific techniques “are never fleshed out” (2003, p.1342). Hunt agrees that the use of examples in Marketing textbooks reflects ‘dumbing down’:

In order to understand the concept of ‘discount department stores’, do juniors, seniors and graduate students in university programmes really need to see a picture of a Wal-Mart? In order to understand that railroads are used in transporting goods, do students need to see a picture of a train? (2002, p.311).

The discourse around examples links back to the discourse of ‘Marketing as everyday’, as discussed earlier in the chapter. As was noted there, lecturers felt that students’ inappropriately drew on personal, anecdotal examples in their Marketing assessment tasks. This had implications for their recognition in the disciplinary Discourse.
With regard to case studies, Kiara, who was registered for a Social Science degree, noted that she had only encountered these in her business courses. Case studies are indeed a staple of pedagogy in the management disciplines (Schmidt-Wilk, 2010), as they are considered to be useful in helping students to think like managers. By working on cases, students get to solve problems, make decisions and apply disciplinary knowledge (Forman & Rymer, 1999). Students also gain insight into the ambiguous, complex and messy reality of management practice - although the tendency for lecturers to set ‘cleaned up’ case studies is problematic for encouraging transfer (Fenton-O’Creevy et al, 2006).

At UKZN, the amount and nature of case study work was also not felt to be ideal. Kiara noted that while case studies were done often in one of the third-year modules, the other module required hardly any case study work. Michael felt that students were often able to simply classify information in a case study – for example, in terms of a given model - rather than being able to apply knowledge to the specific scenario or to analyse the situation and make recommendations. This would seem to indicate that the sorts of questions that are being set on the cases are testing ‘understanding’ rather than ‘application’.

In other words, give them a case study, what students do is they repeat. They...they perfectly classify, let’s say, the target market and the 4 Ps from the case study. I don’t want that. I want to know what they make of it... They should propose...and what the strategy should be going forward - not what it is (Michael).

In contrast to earlier assertions that Marketing was “just facts and stuff” (Ben), mainly drawn from textbooks, many students noted that there was opportunity for them to give their own opinions and arguments.

Like in case studies – that’s a real life situation - I believe that in those cases, there’s no right or wrong answer. Just an idea what you think, what’s your opinion, ‘cos the questions that they are asking that “In your opinion, should BMW do this for their marketing, for their consumers?” (Sihle)

I don’t know...just the style might be different, um... I don’t know – more in terms of like...more sort of your point of view and not just the information you might get from the textbook. Ja, like I think Management is ‘This is that, bam’; it’s a lot how things sort of gel in a business corporation sort of thing. Marketing is a lot more perspectives sort of thing (Maxine)

...I think we are given a lot of room to...say our feelings (Amantha).
Additionally, during her interview, Kamini indicated that what she liked about Response B in the stimulus piece was that the examples in that response seemed “more realistic to the person answering” rather than being drawn from a textbook.

Differences in writing styles in different disciplines were also noticed.

Specifically, like with Economics...structure doesn’t matter if you’re given an essay question...they’ll give you maybe a graph and they’ll tell you to write about it and they give you values and things. They want you to use that in your answer. So as long as you have all the facts from that graph, they mark you based on what you actually write... So they won’t mark you on grammar or anything, as long as you have the specific points and you make it...er...you explain that this is a certain thing, then they’ll give you the marks. It’s not so much their discretion on how you’re writing......as long as you have the facts there, then you get the marks. Marketing and Management, it’s similar, very similar...You write based on your book work and examples...There is a structure. You have to have the introduction nicely, and the body, and conclusion (Amantha).

The students also spoke of how their learning strategies varied depending on which discipline they were studying for.

I mean, okay, when it comes for...the numerical studies like Maths and stuff like that...like, you have a paper, you write the...you write it down, you apply. But when you’re studying for Marketing, I mean, you get a book that’s so big. You can’t read, write, read, write. The only thing that I can do is try and understand the concept - not for MCQs, but I’m studying to understand what is happening here so I will apply it in the test. So it’s just going through it and trying to write down the understanding that I got from what I’ve been reading...just summaries in...in point form so that I can understand...I get points – maybe certain steps or something... I try to make them understandable, you know, like writing the first...only the first alphabet so that I will remember (Ben)

When...when I do like Maths, Economics...okay Maths...it’s...in a way it’s interesting ‘cos I’m doing something – writing, um, things. Whereas Marketing I have to focus and...it has to be quiet. I have to read. Read and try to understand. Like read and read and read and try to understand... There’s no practice. [Pause]. Like...how do I say this? Like with Marketing you have to read, understand. With Maths, I...I’m doing calculations.......I’m able to see whether I’m right or wrong... ...if the answer...am I getting the answer... Ja. Am I getting the answer? With Marketing, you’re reading, you don’t know what’s going to happen in the test. Is...is my example that I’m using...are they right, are they appropriate for this...section? I could be using the wrong example or... Ja. And you tend to forget when it comes to tests (Thuli).
5.2.5 Status

It was apparent from the interviews that Marketing was not very highly thought of in comparison to other disciplines. A variety of discourses contributed to this perceived low status. One of these was the ‘Marketing as easy’ discourse, which constructed Marketing as being not as challenging as other disciplines, both in terms of workload and intellectual demand.

You think you can catch up a semester work in like a week, you know, like...unlike all other modules (Sihle)

You say, for Economics, ‘I need to start studying from the first day’ because it’s...it’s...you know...ja......because like if you’re going to the library and you meet someone and you tell them ‘I’m going in for Marketing, to study now’, they say ‘Why?’, you know, ‘Why? Because you are writing Economics in three weeks time’, you know... (Sihle)

...but it’s sort of – well, especially in terms of Accounting or Health Sciences – everybody’s just like “It’s just a BCom Marketing”. I’m like ‘Hey! Stop!’ So...ja...I don’t know. Um, I just think maybe because it’s not so much...that [we] don’t have many pracs to do. And sort of Health Sciences, the amount of work and tuts and things sort of to do...; in Accounting, there’s just tons of......– but in terms of the amount of assignments and stuff, what we’re having at the moment, I think it’s the same. Um, it’s just I think people’s perspectives. They just think because you’re in Health Sciences, like they think they’re cleverer than everybody else. I think it’s the wrong perspective (Maxine)

It’s not that intense in terms of, er, demanding you...your thinking (Ben)

It is a bit different, because, I mean usually we don’t do much calculations in Marketing. But when we come to Economics we do a lot of calculations and a lot of – er, what? – assumptions. So there are...there’s a lot of, you know, debate in Economics. Sometimes the facts are not there. It’s just......if I come with my reasoning, you come with your reasoning......then it’s just like that... But when it comes to Marketing, it’s as if a product is a product; I mean, you cannot assume that there’s...I haven’t seen assumptions like...it’s something to debate for. Because, I mean, it’s just facts and stuff, ja (Ben)

...you have to, okay, just take a theory or model or whatever...and apply it to a case study or real life. Um, it’s not, I don’t think it’s challenging... (Kiara)

...most people take Marketing for granted – that’s like, just theory. They can just cram (Bongani).

It is clear from the comments above how the ‘Marketing as easy’ discourse (which exists at the level of the real) impacted on the approaches to learning that students adopted in their Marketing courses.
It was not just the students who commented on the lack of intellectual challenge in the discipline. The lecturers too described Marketing as “not conceptually challenging” (Michael) and “not rocket science” (Nisha). Compared to Marketing, Economics was described as involving “much more analysis and interpretation” and Accounting was characterised as being “very analytical as well” (Nisha). Michael also commented that “Marketing is…is not an historical…perfect science like Accounting”.

Of note is that it was the more quantitative disciplines that the participants viewed as being of higher status than Marketing. This is interesting in light of Marketing’s attempt to legitimate itself as a rigorous and ‘scientific’ discipline by adopting more quantitative approaches (Easton, 2002). At UKZN, however, quantitative work was downplayed.

No, we don’t [do much quantitative work in Marketing], but I think in Marketing you also need statistics (Sihle)

...usually we don’t do much calculations in Marketing (Ben)

...and [the course coordinator] said – at that stage I didn’t understand the difference in the [Howard College] students, obviously – “These are Social Science students. Just back off a little”. Which we did...we didn’t push it [the quantitative material] (Michael).

Something that might have sharpened the difference between the disciplines for students is that they would have been taking level 2 Economics at the same time as the introductory course in Marketing.

Another discourse that was impacted in the perception of Marketing as having low status was that of ‘quantity versus quality’, which related to the types and numbers of students who gained access to the discipline. The large number of students majoring in Marketing was attributed by some to Marketing having low admission requirements. It was felt that this attracted students with low matric points, as well as students who had failed to meet progression requirements in other (more prestigious) disciplines and who subsequently opted to change to an easier major. Marketing was thus described as an easy or soft option that was often a “second choice” (Lindiwe) or a “last resort” (Amantha) that students got into “by default” (Amantha). Thus ‘how difficult it is to get in’ (which influenced ‘how many get in’ and ‘who gets in’) was used as an indicator of disciplinary status.

...my cousins, they tell me that...it’s...um, you have so much of students because it’s the only thing people can get into, leaving school with little points... (Amantha)
...one of my friends said “Ja, but now you notice everyone’s doing Marketing”. So then it made me think, okay, “Why is everyone taking it? Because it’s very easy? Is it not regarded...as a proper profession? Are people not serious about it or whatever?” (Kiara)

I think that the Management School...it’s like the prostitute of the university. They’re easy, because everybody finds it easy to get here. That’s the problem. So we pick up just about everything and anywhere, er, with no concern for what they bring in and what was their background and whatever (Kamini)

...they shop around at the beginning of the year, say, you know, “Oops, I got in there, so maybe I should do Marketing (Michael)

When people are unable to pass Accounting...they go to Marketing thinking that “Oh, it’s going to be easy” (Amantha)

So we’ve got too much of a mishmash of everybody else’s scraps. And we don’t have what we should have - the quality (Kamini).

As Amantha’s comment indicates, for many Marketing students Marketing is not their first choice as a major. For example, of the nine students in this study, three selected Marketing either because they were unable to get a place in Accounting or because they had not performed well in and had to drop out of Accounting. Perhaps Marketing’s reputation as ‘easy’ (Hughes et al, 2005; Glenn, 2011) impacts on the types and numbers of students who enter the discipline as a second choice, with implications for their identity, motivation and performance within the discipline. According to Kleine, “the more a student identifies with being a marketing major, the more committed he or she will be to enacting behaviours that lead to success as a marketing student” (2002, p.15). This may also link to concerns that the lecturers expressed about the “calibre” (Nisha) and “quality” (Kamini) of Marketing students, with specific reference to a lack of commitment and interest.

As discussed in Chapter 4, issues of quantity (such as class size, lecturer to student ratios and so on) and quality also relate to the LCT dimension of Density (Maton, 2005a). The analysis of Marketing using Density revealed that Marketing as a discipline has high material and moral density, which are associated with low status (Maton, 2005a).

Interestingly, however, an examination of the Faculty’s admission requirements (see Table 5.4) shows that the perception that the admission requirements for Marketing are lower than those of other business disciplines (particularly Accounting and Economics) is not borne out. As mentioned previously, most students majoring in Marketing are drawn from the Bachelor of Commerce (General) degree. The table shows that the criteria for admission to the General and Accounting degrees were identical under the old requirements and are almost identical in terms of
the new requirements. And as Economics is offered as a major on the General degree, admission requirements are the same as those for Marketing.

Table 5.4: Admission requirements – Faculty of Management Studies, UKZN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMME</th>
<th>OLD REQUIREMENTS: MATRIC EXEMPTION AND...</th>
<th>NEW REQUIREMENTS: NSC-DEG AND...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>POINTS</td>
<td>OTHER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Business Science</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Maths B [HG]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Commerce (Accounting)</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Maths D [HG] or B [SG]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Commerce (General)</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Maths D [HG] or B [SG]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Business Administration</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Maths E [HG] or D [SG]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended Curriculum/Access</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Maths E [HG] or D [SG]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: [www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za), 2011

Thus the participants’ references to Marketing being easier to get into were probably not due to programme admission requirements. The continuing prevalence of perceptions to the contrary, however points to the power of the ‘quantity versus quality’ discourse in controlling how the discipline is talked about.

Instead, such references to the ease of getting into Marketing may have been linked to the participants’ belief that the introductory Marketing module (which provides access to a major in Marketing) was very easy to pass compared to introductory modules in other disciplines. As was seen in the discussion of the ‘rote learning’ discourse, it was the introductory Marketing module in particular that was singled out as requiring simply the reproduction of textbook content for success in assessments.

This is in line with Camey and Williams’ (2004) finding that students’ perceptions of and attitudes to Marketing are typically lowered after taking an introductory Marketing course - something that the authors attributed to such courses typically being taught by junior lecturers who rely heavily

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92 The old requirements would have applied when the students who participated in this study entered UKZN. In terms of these requirements, students would have had to pass the school-leaving (matriculation) examination with an exemption that qualified them for university study, obtain the specified points for their intended programme of study and obtain a pass in Mathematics on the standard grade (SG) or higher grade (HG) at a level of performance as specified in the above table.

93 In November 2008, a new school-leaving examination, the National Senior Certificate (NSC), was introduced, leading to a revision of UKZN’s admission requirements. Students entering the Faculty of Management Studies from 2009 would thus need to meet the new requirements specified in Table 5.4. They would have to pass the NSC exam at a level that enabled them to qualify for university degree studies (i.e. obtain a NSC-DEG pass), obtain the required points for their intended programme of study and also meet the Mathematics, English and Life Orientation (LO) requirements. The different points linked to the new requirements are reflective of changes to the rating scale used to calculate points and not of a lowering of admission requirements.
on publisher-provided materials. Introductory Marketing courses have also been accused of trying to cover too much (Raju, in Bolton, 2005). The emphasis on breadth rather than depth leads to a content focus and to the superficial coverage of topics, which is likely to encourage a perception of such courses as easy.

The introductory Marketing module at UKZN is in fact very broad, as it includes an overview of almost all of the topics that constitute the knowledge base of Marketing (as shown in Table 4.1). And because the module is weighted at half the credit points of the third year modules (and has half the contact time), topics are covered quite quickly and superficially, thus contributing to a perception of the course as ‘easy’.

For some students, the types of lecturers teaching in the discipline also provided a marker of disciplinary status, as the following excerpt indicates:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aradhna</th>
<th>Um...what leads to students failing in Marketing [student laughs] or not doing well in Marketing?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sihle</td>
<td>I think it’s...it’s our attitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aradhna</td>
<td>Attitude?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sihle</td>
<td>Ja, because like I’ve seen it happening in many other modules. Like you see this African lady coming to lecture you and you just take that person for granted – like this module is easy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aradhna</td>
<td>Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sihle</td>
<td>[Laughs]. I don’t know, it just happens, and you see a white guy coming in and you start to be serious. This guy knows something. Like, you know...like it’s our attitudes...I don’t know.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aradhna</td>
<td>So the race of the lecturer gives you an indication of whether the module...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sihle</td>
<td>Ja.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aradhna</td>
<td>...must be taken seriously or not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sihle</td>
<td>Ja. Like, in Economics, you only find white people there teaching Economics. And you know about Economics, that it’s a killer course. So when you’re coming to Management, you see Indians and Africans so you...you know...I think it’s the way we take Marketing for granted that leads us to fail the course.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A comparison of the academic staff in the disciplines of Economics and Marketing in 2010 on the Westville campus, where Sihle studied, does indicate that there were differences in terms of racial profiles. In Economics, most lecturers (15 out of 22) were white. By contrast, in Marketing, all of the undergraduate level lecturers on the permanent staff were Indian (the white lecturers

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94 This comparison is drawn from a list of the permanent academic staff who were based on the Westville campus in 2010, as appears in the draft Faculty Handbook. This list includes staff teaching at undergraduate and postgraduate levels.
who were employed on a part-time basis taught primarily on the Howard College campus). At the time of Sihle’s interview, all of the undergraduate Marketing courses that he had taken had been taught by Indian females and the first-year Management module that serves as a prerequisite for Marketing had been taught by black and Indian females. In comparison, in his undergraduate Economics modules, Sihle had encountered only white lecturers. According to Vila & Boluda (2008), several studies have suggested that the interaction of lecturers’ and students’ demographic characteristics impacts significantly on students’ attitudes towards both lecturers and courses. In his study of language ownership among black Access students at UKZN, Parmegiani (2008) found that the students subscribed to the idea of a racial pecking order among lecturers, with white lecturers being preferred to Indian lecturers because they were perceived to have greater competence in English. It would seem that, for Sihle, the intersection of such discourse around a racial pecking order and the relative difficulty of the subject matter in the disciplines combined to produce a disciplinary hierarchy.

Thus a range of discourses contributed to the participants’ perception of Marketing being a low status discipline at UKZN. And, as a result of this perception, several students reported “taking Marketing for granted” (for example Bongani, Nothando and Sihle). This then impacted on the time that they allocated to their Marketing studies as well as the learning approaches and strategies they adopted in Marketing.

However, such perceptions of Marketing’s status are not just limited to the UKZN context – they are much more widespread, as is evident in the literature that was referred to in previous sections and chapters. As a relatively young discipline, with an applied orientation and a weak theory base, Marketing has for a long time faced challenges to its legitimacy and status as a bona fide academic discipline. Business and management disciplines in general have been characterised as academically unchallenging, uncritical and too superficial for university level (Macfarlane, 1995; Brown, 1997; Cunliffe et al, 2002; Smith, 2008). Marketing specifically has been said to offer simply commonsense ideas and few specific skills (Aggarwal, 2007). It has also been accused of merely emulating and borrowing from other disciplines instead of pursuing its own fundamental research agenda and developing its own theory (Hunt, 1994; Crump & Costea, 2003; Rust, 2006; Glenn, 2011). Its reliance on examples – considered to be a form of argument that is inferior and thus inadequate for higher learning (Lischinsky, 2008) – further impacts on its perceived status, as does the fact that as a region, it is not a ‘pure’ or ‘traditional’ discipline (Beck & Young, 2005).

According to Kogan, “the intellectual self-confidence of the disciplines and subject areas to which the academics belong…is the context in which a sense of academic identity flourishes” (2000,
Thus the low status of the Marketing discipline could be a reason why becoming a Marketing lecturer had not been the first-choice career of any of the three lecturers in this study (see Appendix C), and why (as previously mentioned) the lecturers to some extent described themselves less as Marketing academics and more as business people or marketers – an issue that will be considered further in the next section.

5.2.6 Identity, relationships and power

This section looks at the building of identities and relationships in Marketing at UKZN, and how the ways in which participants represent and position themselves and others in the discourses they employ in this specific context has the power to influence students’ acquisition of Marketing Discourse, with consequences for epistemological access.

The discussion of Specialisation in Chapter 4 showed how a knower code underpins Marketing. This implies that the building or shaping of students’ identities as future marketers is an important aim of Marketing curricula (Kleine, 2002). But the discourse of identity also arose in the data in reference to the lecturers’ academic identities. Furthermore, the lecturers’ identities impacted on the extent to which students’ identities were being specialised in appropriate ways and on the development of students’ proficiency in the disciplinary Discourse.

In the previous section and in Chapter 4, brief reference was made to how the lecturers often represented themselves less as educators and more as content experts or even business practitioners. This is clearly evident in the following quotes:

...I’m not an educationist; I’m a marketing person... (Michael)

...I’m not qualified to teach... (Michael)

...I’m interested in whatever it is...whatever business content I’m teaching...I’m interested in that...and that’s...that’s my field (Michael)

Ja, I suppose our discipline as well; we’re more business people rather than actually teachers... (Nisha)

They [Marketing students] need to be...I don’t want them to just be academics...because I don’t consider myself just an academic. I always say they must be academic with...academics with street smarts...And...so they must...when they...they must be people that are resourceful, er, and also like a bit entrepreneurial...That’s what I want...because that’s also a background that I come from because that’s what we were maintaining – independence, um, ability to...you know...see things, go and do it for yourself, um, and you know to a large extent marketers need to be entrepreneurs (Kamini).
One potential consequence of the lecturers positioning themselves in this way is that it to some extent absolves them of the responsibility for helping students to acquire the academic literacies that are necessary for their effective participation in the disciplinary Discourse. In Chapter 4, a review of the Marketing literature revealed that good communication skills (both oral and written, but especially written) are crucial for marketers and thus for Marketing students. The lecturers had the following to say about their role in helping to develop students’ writing.

Um, I’m…I’m not a educationist…I’ve been teaching people for…about 25-odd years…I’m not sure. But I’m…I’m not an educationist; I’m a marketing person…and I assume therefore those things must be in place when I…when I deal with them. I’m probably wrong, given the work that I’m…given the job that I’m in - and if you talk to our Quality people and our Teaching people, they say I am wrong. I have to do all these other things, and it’s I must teach them about HIV/Aids and I must teach them how to speak English and I must teach them about how to write…No, I don’t do that (Michael)

A combination, because the Writing Place is obviously going to come in with certain ideas - they’re going to have emphasis on, er, grammar and…and…looking at some of the…the key structures in terms of writing – and then, from a business perspective, although we’re not so strict, but we also have certain components such as, er, touching on the topic or…or getting down to, uh, the focus of what we’re actually questioning and how…how to help the student to actually understand that. So, in terms of, er, giving them an essay, are they able to understand what you’re actually asking, and are they able to actually understand how to actually respond? So, I think a combination of the two may possibly have benefits (Nisha)  

…sometimes you have to give…you have to allow the discipline, um, to create what you need because whilst other things are of help, you still need the perspective of the discipline to bring it out. There’s only so much that…they’ll [The Writing Place] take them to a level, you know…but…beyond that…um…they’re going to have to acquire the Marketing knowledge, the Marketing terminologies…so, Marketing speak…So Marketing speak is not going to come from an English graduate [Writing Place tutor] (Kamini).

There seems to be some relationship between the lecturers’ academic identities and their views on the extent of their responsibility to their students in terms of helping them acquire the writing practices of the discipline. Michael, who is emphatic about not being an educationist, sees himself as having no role whatsoever in developing students’ writing; Nisha, who views herself as more a business person than as a teacher, sees a role for both the lecturers in the discipline and the

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95 Refer to Chapter 1 (Section 1.2.3.2) for some background information on the Writing Place.
Writing Place; Kamini, who views herself as primarily - but not just - an academic, sees a larger role for the discipline in terms of writing development.\footnote{With regard to developing students’ academic reading skills, however, all three lecturers agreed that this was not their role. One of the questions in the ‘curriculum self-assessment questionnaire’ (SAAAD) that the lecturers were asked to complete during their interviews asked who should have responsibility for developing students’ academic reading skills. Options provided were: “A. an Academic Support programme; B. the students themselves; C. the subject teachers; D. the English or Language Studies department”. All three lecturers selected option A (an Academic Support programme).}

Interestingly, some participants felt that the attributes and dispositions that were considered important for achievement in Marketing were inherent and could not be taught. For example, according to Sihle, “being creative – I think it’s just a gift”. Kamini also made several references to innate ability, speaking about “natural talent”, being the “right people” and a “different breed”. Because she felt that “you have to have the ability”, it followed that “(t)hat’s not something that you can just teach” and that “if you really have it, you’ll get it”. An implication of this is that, again, the onus of responsibility for developing students’ identities in ways appropriate to facilitating effective participation in the disciplinary Discourse and in marketing practice is shifted away from lecturers. If students are the ‘wrong kind of knower’ (Maton, 2004), this can then be put down to individual deficiencies in students. This also raises important questions around the basis for the legitimacy of Marketing as an academic discipline in higher education, and at UKZN specifically, which will be explored further in the next chapter.

This shifting of responsibility away from themselves on the part of the lecturers is thus quite likely to have contributed to the prevalence of a discourse of blame, which lecturers used in order to position others as being responsible for the students’ not meeting their (the lecturers’) expectations. Among those to whom blame was apportioned were the students themselves (for their lack of motivation, commitment, effort, participation, attendance, time management and writing ability), the lecturers of earlier modules (for not effectively preparing the students for third year), the schools the students had attended (for not adequately developing students’ writing skills) and those responsible for the selection of students (for not being more discerning in their selection of students, as was outlined in the discussion of the discourses around ‘status’).

...maybe it’s the culture of the students as well, there’s apathy, they just don’t care; to just get the bare minimum, I mean for them just a 50% is fine to show that, you know what, I got a credit for \[subject\]. \[For us\] it was very different at the time...we were striving to...fighting each other for our As and having a competition. It was a more competitive environment and...er...we put our all into it. In spare time, not sitting in the caf or sitting on our cell phone, but with our books, so it’s the culture as well. Especially coming out of school, uh, you would expect that a student knows how to write an essay because you’re doing essay writing in English literature anyway, so the excuse that they
have no idea how to write an essay in first year university, that’s a poor excuse. Or even to excuse them from writing essays at a first year... (Nisha)

I think 90% of the time, it’s always a rush effort, a last-minute effort. Ja. And, er, from the looks of it, it’s probably just swotting (Nisha)

And obviously for those that take the time out to come and see you...er, they’ve had positive reactions but, um, for those that are not interested, well... we gave them the option (Nisha)

...and I always say to them, “How did you learn to write an essay at school?” (Michael)

...you can see they’re preoccupied, they’re not really listening, and they’re chatting to—they’re bloody ubiquitous, these things [indicating cell phone]...Continuously. Um, you can see them under the desk SMSing or whatever they’re doing (Michael)

You can see students that have gone to, um, I don’t know what sort of schools you’d call it — the better schools...I don’t know what they’re called...but they’re better schools where...where...where the students have obviously done English, they’ve done grammar, they’ve done...they’ve been taught how to learn, um, that sort of thing. They...they...the presentation of their work, their...their...the, um, the um - what’s it called? - the discipline around the work, the things that have to be in on time, and that sort of thing. And then there’s the other group who’ve clearly never been schooled like that, and everything’s debatable, negotiable and, um, work is sometimes a bit sloppy and, er, they...if they’re late it doesn’t really matter because they’ve got an excuse... (Michael)

...their language is pathetic......I mean, I never thought I’d be standing in a class saying “Please don’t write in SMS language” or “Do not write in bullet points...” (Kamini)

Um, but it’s bad, er, it’s like we’ve gone backwards, and they cannot comprehend, they cannot conceptualise, and I think there’s the problem. So, instead of moving forward, they’ve actually regressed (Kamini)

...the third year students lack that ability to write properly and it carries through to postgrad. The problem is they get through the system... (Kamini)

...first and second year has not adequately...built up their skills (Kamini).

It is clear from the above that the students are often positioned as being deficient in some way, suggesting that the lecturers are drawing on deficit models (Haggis, 2004). Such statements are also located in a wider discourse of blame. As indicated in Chapter 2 (Section 2.5), literature highlights a tendency to blame students for underachievement or failure in higher education, not just in South Africa (McKenna, 2004b; Fraser & Killen, 2005; Scott et al, 2007; Boughey, 2008), but also more widely (Smart et al, 1999; Parker, 2002). Additionally, UKZN’s institutional audit portfolio notes that “student apathy appears to be growing” (UKZN, 2008a, p.97) and the Minister
of Higher Education has made reference to lazy students who do not apply themselves, resulting in the wastage of government funding (Zulu, 2009). This last comment shows that the discourse of blame is closely related to a discourse around motivation, which is also prevalent in higher education (see, for example, McKenna, 2004a). The increased emphasis being placed on research output (the ‘publish or perish’ discourse) and on accounting for low pass rates, both issues that Nisha raised during her interview, may also be relevant to the lecturers’ distancing themselves to some extent from responsibility for student success by employing a discourse of blame.

However, it was not just the lecturers who employed the discourse of blame. Lecturers themselves also came in for criticism from students for, among other things, not making their expectations clear (by not explaining assessment criteria and/or providing inadequate feedback on assessment tasks), not adequately preparing students in earlier years for the demands of third year, and not adequately preparing students for the workplace (as discussed under the discussion of the discourse of ‘relevance’).

Um, well, sometimes you just…the lecturer is not specific in terms of what she wants...in the test (Thuli)

...they [the lecturers] tell us that when you write your essay, it shouldn’t be in point form, but they not…not in detailed as to what they should...what should we do. But they just “It shouldn’t be in point form, don’t forget your introduction or conclusion...” (Thuli)

I hear a lot like of our lecturers saying “You’re supposed to know this, you’re supposed to know that”...but if there was nothing in first and second year, if the majority of us don’t know, surely there’s a problem with the teaching (Maxine)

I don’t think they prepare us enough (Maxine)

I just feel we’ve been thrown in the deep end (Maxine)

Ja, it depends on who’s the lecturer. Er, some, okay, they just give you, leave you in the deep end and expect you to...er...make it work. And come and get through it (Kiara)

...basically the lecturers tell us “Don’t come; don’t tell me your problems with your groups. When you’re working, it’s going to be like that, so deal with it” (Thuli)

Oh, and another thing is, um, make a, have a relationship with the students where they are comfortable to be free to come to you and speak to you and, you know, discuss whatever’s a problem here (Kiara).

97 With regard to feedback, an analysis of students’ marked test and assignment scripts indeed revealed that there were few, if any, comments on these scripts. Additionally, comments tended to focus on surface aspects such as spelling and grammar.
The lecturers acknowledged some of these criticisms.

Education is very specific, very well guided or well directed in terms of what it is that they expect the students to do. But Commerce, on the other hand, you’re seriously lacking...I don’t know if it’s because we don’t know how to articulate it ourselves…

(Nisha) 98

...they do no presentation skills, presentation technique at all (Michael)

They’re kind of forced to, er, to engage in this kind of, er, ‘contradiction’ I call it. That’s what I think it is. We want them to be ‘A’ but we don’t create the structures to make them like that. So, that’s the other issue that I have in terms of who they deal with, who administers their course, er, you know, those sorts of things, ja. And also the thing about not having tutorials......and proper support for them, um, those are things that you need, and they don’t have that. Because I...as much as I want them to...to be as, you know, as good as they can be, they do have obstacles. And yes, they can be immature and stuck in Facebook and whatever, but I think if you create the environment, it can change (Kamini).

The preceding discussion shows how discourses relating primarily to identity have the power to undermine students’ achievement of proficiency in the Discourse of Marketing and how they thus contribute to the discipline “not producing the kind of people that we want” (Kamini).

However, the working of power is evident in several other discourses that are implicated in sabotaging students’ chances of being fully inducted as insiders into the ‘club’, as discussed throughout this chapter. These discourses (which, as previously noted, in critical realism constitute ontological entities at the level of the real) structure educational practices and experiences in Marketing at UKZN in ways that often work against students being able to take on the disciplinary Discourse and to develop into the type of knower valued in the discipline. In summary, some of these practices include:

- **curriculum**: the way in which the curriculum fragments and repeats, instead of offering a coherent, integrated, graded development of ideas; the lack of practitioner involvement and input;

- **teaching environment**: classroom interaction is based solely on large-group lectures in venues which students view as intimidating, thus inhibiting student participation and contributing to the dominance of lecturers in these environments;

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98 Nisha is referring here to the Education Unit in the Faculty of Management Studies. Refer to Chapter 1 (Section 1.2.3.2) for some background on the Unit.
• **pedagogy**: teaching tends to be based on the transmission of knowledge, instead of adopting approaches built on interaction and application, which are important in marketing practice;

• **assessment**: assessment tasks do not always emphasise what is valued in the discipline (e.g. practical application, keeping up with current developments) and can often be passed simply using rote learning; the degree to which assessment criteria are made explicit, as well as the nature of the feedback provided to students, is inadequate to help them clearly understand what is expected of them;

• **cultural bias**: the western, specifically North American, bias inherent in the prescribed textbooks, which makes it difficult for students to relate to material and which may not be entirely appropriate in the South African marketing context;

• **race**: students’ taking Marketing for granted and/or attributing lower status to the discipline, because of the race of the lecturers;

• **language**: lack of proficiency in English, which inhibits students’ participation in class

• **schooling**: the lack of access to information about marketing as an area of study and practice, especially at rural schools;

• **student background**: the lack of social access to marketing practice, especially for students who are not from middle class backgrounds.

De Kadt and Mathonsi’s exploration of academic writing (among black students with an African language as a mother tongue, at the University of Natal) found that, within the monolingual (English) university context, “specific practices of knowledge construction and academic writing are valued, which tends to disadvantage any students not from strongly literate middle-class backgrounds” (2003, p.100). With regard to the nine student participants in this study, only three (Kiara, Amantha and Maxine) passed the exams in all five undergraduate Marketing modules at their first attempt; these same three students are also the only ones to have obtained a first-class pass (75% and above) in at least one undergraduate Marketing module over the course of their studies (see Appendix J). Interestingly, in light of the study cited above, none of these three students is black and all have English as a mother tongue. Of the six black student participants, three were from middle-class backgrounds, with parents and other family members involved in professional types of work. Two of them (Bongani and Nothando) attended ex-Model C schools from primary school level, had access to family or friends working in marketing and were themselves working part-time in marketing-related jobs.

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99 As indicated in Chapter 1, the University of Natal merged with the University of Durban-Westville in 2004 to form UKZN.
The successful acquisition of the literacy practices of school and other contexts, such as the workplace, did not appear to provide the black students with an advantage in acquiring the literacy practices valued in the discipline. Bongani, Ben and Thuli achieved school matric exam points that exceeded the minimum entry requirements for acceptance into their chosen degrees and that were equal to or better than those of the white and Indian students in the sample. Nothando was running her own small marketing business, while Bongani had received an award from his employer for being the ‘best promoter’ at the company where he performed marketing-related duties. Yet all of these students failed at least one Marketing exam during their studies, despite being high achievers at school and/or in the workplace. Even Maxine (who is white, has English as a mother tongue, had a sister working as a marketing manager and had a part-time marketing-related job herself) did not perform very well on the third-year modules. Although she passed all four modules, her marks were all in the 55-60% range.

Clearly, the valued literacy practices of the academic discipline of Marketing would seem to be quite different from the literacies that enable success in other contexts, underscoring the importance of the ability of the discipline to develop the required literacies and also perhaps pointing to the need to reconsider the relationship between curricula and marketing practice.

5.3 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed a number of discourses that were represented in the student and lecturer interviews, as well as in course documents. These discourses can be understood, from a critical realist perspective, as ontological entities at the level of the real, from which events and experiences emerge. Discourses are powerful because they are able to construct reality in certain ways which become seen to be ‘normal’, which then impacts on agents’ practices. CDA was used to show how discourses, along with contextual and power dimensions are implicated in the building of identities and relationships at UKZN in ways that often work to undermine students’ acquisition of the Discourse of Marketing. What this chapter shows is that educational practices in Marketing at UKZN are not always appropriate in terms of enabling epistemological access, in that students are not being developed into the type of knower that was identified in Chapter 4 as being important to success and achievement in the discipline.

The next chapter draws together findings from the analysis presented in this chapter and from the LCT analysis that was undertaken in the previous chapter, in order to address the specific research questions of the study. It also considers the implications of the findings and explores some possible reasons for the inconsistency between the type of knower espoused and actually produced at UKZN.
CHAPTER 6
Conclusions

6.1 Introduction

In Chapter 1, I indicated that this study was concerned with facilitating students’ epistemological access to the discipline of Marketing. The research questions that the study aimed to address were thus:

- What constitutes ‘epistemological access’ to the discipline of Marketing?
- How do educational practices in Marketing at UKZN impact on the achievement of epistemological access to the discipline?

Having in previous chapters explored the literature and the theory pertinent to these questions (Chapter 2) and having analysed empirical data from the discipline of Marketing at UKZN using LCT and CDA (Chapters 4 and 5 respectively), it should now be possible to answer these research questions. In order to do so, I first summarise the main findings (across the two types of analysis) in relation to each question. The implications of the findings are then discussed. Thereafter, issues related to the theoretical and methodological approaches adopted in the study are addressed. Finally, the contributions and limitations of the study are outlined and possibilities for future research are identified.

6.2 The research questions

6.2.1 What constitutes ‘epistemological access’ to the discipline of Marketing?

As outlined in Chapter 2, epistemological access entails acquiring the discipline-specific academic literacies that enable participation in the Discourse of a discipline. Furthermore, because the knowledge and social dimensions of disciplines are so tightly woven together (Becher, 1989), epistemological access must encompass both of these dimensions. Thus, in order to understand what constitutes epistemological access in Marketing, one must explore both the knowledge and ways of knowing, as well as the social norms, values and behaviours (ways of being), that are valued in Marketing. Maton’s work on knowledge and knower structures, encompassed in his LCT framework (2005a), enables such exploration by making explicit the bases for legitimate participation, success and achievement in particular disciplines. The LCT analysis of Marketing undertaken in Chapter 4 reveals the ‘rules of the game’ of the discipline and
thus what students need to aim to achieve in order to be considered legitimate participants in the discipline.

The findings relating to all five dimensions are summarised below. Unless otherwise stated, the same code applies to Marketing as a discipline in general and to Marketing at UKZN. The LCT analysis of Marketing shows that:

- with regard to Specialisation, the discipline of Marketing is underpinned by a knower code, meaning that knower dispositions and attributes – and not the possession of specialist disciplinary knowledge and techniques – are relatively more important to legitimate participation in Marketing. The implication of this finding is that Marketing education should focus primarily on developing students’ Marketing identities in ways that are appropriate to the disciplinary Discourse, or ‘ways of being’. Some of the attributes and dispositions identified as being important (which were outlined in Chapter 4) were communicative ability, interpersonal skills, creativity, confidence, initiative, extroversion, enthusiasm and open-mindedness;

- relating to Semantics, Marketing is characterised by strong gravity and weak density, which are not associated with the development of cumulative knowledge. Legitimation comes from producing ‘useful’ knowledge that can be applied in specific contexts, rather than from the building up of an abstract, theoretical body of knowledge. The ability to apply knowledge and familiarity with the context of application (the business world) are thus important for Marketing students;

- in terms of Temporality, a neo-prospective code applies. Marketing is a young, forward-looking and rapidly changing discipline. As such, it is important for students to be able to keep abreast of contemporary developments in the discipline and in the marketplace and to be able to consider the implications of such developments for future marketing practice;

- with regard to Autonomy, Marketing as an academic discipline enjoys relatively high autonomy and is thus relatively insulated from influence from other fields, such as business. As noted in Chapter 5, however, this may impact negatively on students’ being able to gain familiarity with the business world and thus on their ability to apply knowledge to business contexts, both of which were identified as being important for Marketing students (see Semantics, above);
• regarding Density, Marketing has been characterised as displaying a high level of diversity, (although moral density at UKZN is lower than that of the discipline in general). High diversity points to, among other things, a possible lack of consensus about what and how students should be learning in Marketing, with implications for identity formation in the discipline and thus for epistemological access.

6.2.2 How do educational practices in Marketing at UKZN impact on the achievement of epistemological access to the discipline?

In Chapter 5, the focus was on exploring Marketing in the context of UKZN in terms of the discourses of students and lecturers in the discipline, using CDA to gain insight into how these discourses construct and position participants and practices, and have the power to impact on the building of students’ Marketing identities, and thus on their achievement of epistemological access to the discipline.

This analysis showed that students’ identities were not being specialised in ways that are important to their legitimate participation in Marketing Discourse, thus impeding their epistemological access to the discipline. Among factors that were identified in Chapter 5 as being relevant in this regard were issues related to curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, the teaching environment, support structures, the academic identities of the lecturers, as well as a range of cultural and biographical factors.

With regard to curriculum, the maintenance of quite strong boundaries between, and a lack of explicit integration across, different Marketing modules works against students being able to take on a ‘big picture’ view of Marketing and thus to see how various Marketing elements need to work together in a holistic and coherent way in practice. This is exacerbated by the lack of practitioner involvement in the courses (through guest lectures, for example), as students do not have the opportunity to see how practitioners actually apply Marketing knowledge in specific contexts. They also do not have first hand exposure or insight into the ‘ways of being’ considered important for marketers, as embodied in such practitioners. Although particular ways of being are more important to one’s success in Marketing than the possession of specialist Marketing knowledge, classroom interaction tends to be lecturer-directed and largely focuses on the transmission of knowledge from textbooks, while most assessment is also content-oriented. The knowledge-based nature of the classroom interaction and assessment does not therefore facilitate the development of the knower attributes and dispositions that are valued in the disciplinary Discourse, such as creativity, resourcefulness, confidence, and so on. The large class environment is something that students find intimidating and that therefore inhibits their participation in class activities and, as there are no small-group contact sessions such as
tutorials, students do not have other opportunities for the sort of engagement that is appropriate to their being able to develop and take on the ways of being of the discipline. The heavy emphasis placed on prescribed textbooks contributes to rote learning and the neglect of wider, more contemporary reading which is important in terms of the requirement for marketers to keep abreast of current developments so as to be able to consider their implications for marketing strategy. The fact that the prescribed textbooks and other teaching materials reflect a strong North American bias is problematic as students cannot easily relate to the material and because the contexts of application they depict may not necessarily reflect the characteristics of the contexts of application that students will encounter in South Africa. Additionally, the lecturers’ academic identities contributed to some of them seeing the development of the academic literacies pertinent to the disciplinary Discourse as falling outside their ambit of responsibility. CDA was thus useful in allowing me to see how taken-for-granted ways of being in the context of Marketing at UKZN have ramifications for students’ participation and success in the Discourse of Marketing.

In addition to educational practices in the discipline, a range of socio-cultural factors also impacted on the ability of students to gain insight into and take on the Marketing ways of being. For example, social access to marketing practice and career information about marketing was not easily available to students who were not from middle class backgrounds; students who did not have English as a mother tongue were particularly unlikely to participate in classroom activities for fear of exposing their lack of proficiency in the medium of instruction; and the racial profile of the lecturing staff in Marketing led students to ‘take Marketing for granted’ and view it as ‘easy’, impacting on the amount of attention given to their Marketing courses as well as their learning strategies in the discipline.

### 6.2.3 Discussion and implications

It is clear from the summary of findings presented above that the type of knower espoused in the participants’ languages of legitimation or discourses is not the type of knower that is actually being shaped in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN. As Kamini put it, the discipline is “not producing the kind of people that we want”. A range of factors that may have contributed to this outcome were discussed in Chapter 5 and were summarised in the previous section.

Some of these factors point to the possibility of a code mismatch. In other words, the contradiction between the type of knower espoused and the type of knower actually produced in Marketing at UKZN could be linked to a mismatch between the code underlying the espoused curriculum and the code underlying the actual curriculum, pedagogy and assessment.
Drawing on Maton (2009), Baldwin (2010, pp.137-138) points to the importance of “aligning the dominant code in the curriculum with the code embedded within assessment tasks” (and of making this visible and explicit to students). If this does not happen, the result is a ‘code mismatch’, whereby there is an attempt to achieve outcomes associated with one code (for example, a knower code) using means associated with another code (for example, a knowledge code). While a knower code underlies the espoused Marketing curriculum at UKZN, the assessment tasks generally do not emphasise knower dispositions (knower code) – instead the focus is on articulating knowledge (knowledge code). As outlined in Chapter 5, test and exam questions often require students to respond in accordance with prescribed course material, such as textbooks. Questions are often content oriented and rote learning is prevalent. Pedagogy tends to be based on the transmission of knowledge by the lecturers (knowledge code) and offers few opportunities for students to display the personal dispositions and attributes - such as creativity, resourcefulness and so on - that the lecturers had identified as being important in Marketing (knower code). The lack of practitioner involvement and input, such as the absence of guest speakers drawn from industry, also means that students are not exposed ‘first hand’ to the knower attributes that are valued in marketing practice.

Additionally, although the importance of application is stressed by the lecturers, not enough attention is given to application and acquisition in the Marketing curriculum at UKZN. As noted in Chapter 2, Gee indicates that Discourses can be taken on through acquisition (modeling, trial and error) and/or learning, and that “we are better at performing what we acquire, but we consciously know more about what we have learned” (1996, p.139). Thus both acquisition and learning are important so as to maximise the potential for both performance and knowledge (Thomson, 2008). At UKZN, however, the focus is on learning rather than on acquisition. Yet it is crucial for Marketing students to also have opportunities to ‘try on’ or ‘do’ marketing, as this helps to build their self-commitment to Marketing as well as their identities as future marketers (Kleine, 2002; see also Dall’Alba, 2009).

Also of significance to the identified inconsistency in terms of the type of knower valorised and the type of knower produced at UKZN is the view adopted by some participants (as outlined in Chapter 5) that the attributes and dispositions that are important for achievement in Marketing are inherent, rather than something that can be developed at university. As noted in the previous chapter, this view may be linked to lecturers’ viewing themselves more as content specialists or practitioners rather than as educators and thus not viewing the development of academic literacies as their responsibility. However, it may also be reflective of a more general conditioned disinclination towards deep engagement with students and their lived realities. In Chapter 1, it was noted that students at South African higher education institutions are often viewed as “a-
social, a-cultural, autonomous beings whose ability to succeed in higher education depends on factors inherent in the individual, such as ‘motivation’ and ‘potential’” (CHE, 2011, p.9). This discourse around motivation was indeed represented in the data in this study and is one that may contribute to lecturers’ viewing the process of taking on the ways of being pertinent to Marketing as something that is supposedly unproblematic for students.

...but...you can tell those students that have a certain kind of, you know, foundation...and others don’t. So I don’t think it’s, er...and I know that people say “But, oh, cultural factors” and “People don’t have access to this and access to that” - and yes, it’s true - but I’ve seen people who have nothing, but have commitment and who will sit in the library and whatever, and I would see them here in the evenings and whatever, and they would come sit in class and they would ask you questions and engage you, more so than what most of the people I deal with. So, you know, it’s not just circumstances and all that, but I think, you know, if we get the right people...they will do what we want them to do. ‘Cos we want to produce good graduates. Good graduates (Kamini).

Thus, the lack of attention given to developing students’ Marketing identities at UKZN may be linked to the viewing of the required attributes and dispositions as something innate to students – and therefore as something that cannot be taught. In other words, instead of viewing the ‘gaze’ that Marketing students need to take on as something that can be acquired (Bernstein, 1999) or cultivated (Maton, 2010c) through Marketing education, it is viewed as inherent or ‘born’ (Maton, 2010).

If, as Wellman asserts, “the ability of education to develop or change individuals’ deep seated traits is questionable” (2010a, p.126), then the viewing of the dispositions that are important for achievement in Marketing as inherent has important ramifications for the discipline. In terms of the selection of students and the openness of the discipline to potential knowers, for example, would this mean that only those students who already possess the dispositions relevant to Marketing should be selected onto Marketing programmes?

It thus also raises some uncomfortable questions for the discipline regarding its purpose, legitimacy and status. Given that Marketing is underpinned by a knower code (and thus the specialising of consciousness or identity, rather than the acquisition of specialist knowledge, is crucial to legitimate participation and achievement in the discipline), what is the contribution that is (to be) made by Marketing education if the relevant identity is perceived to be inherent? And, consequently, what would then be the basis for the ongoing legitimacy of Marketing as an area of study in the university?
In speculating on why what is espoused in the participants’ languages of legitimation is not actualised at UKZN, issues of status and legitimacy may be pertinent, as is the concept of field.

As outlined in Chapter 2, Bourdieu understood fields to be relatively autonomous, relational and dynamic worlds in which struggles take place over the definition and ownership of the types of capital that confer status and authority in the field and in which members’ dispositions, beliefs and practices are structured (Maton, 2003). Principles and forces from both within and outside a field influence what types of capital are seen to be the legitimate, dominant bases for achievement in the field and thus affect the practices and the relative status of the field’s members (as well as the status of the field as a whole). Bourdieu’s concern was with “how agents’ perceptions and strategies are connected to their position in the wider society as well as their position in the specific field of endeavor” (Collins, 2000, p.67).

A reading of the data in this study points to an understanding of Marketing at UKZN as depicted in Figure 6.1. Marketing at UKZN can be understood as a specific field in its own right – one that encompasses both the discipline’s knowledge structure and a community of knowers engaged in contestations over what is considered accepted and legitimate in the field – that is also located in a wider social space (thus involving relations to other fields). A complex set of intra- and inter-field forces, principles and relations thus influence what is valued in the field, which in turn influences agents’ practices in the field.

Figure 6.1: The field of Marketing at UKZN
To understand the educational practices that manifest in Marketing at UKZN, therefore, one needs to look inwards to the knowledge structure of the discipline as well as outwards to the broader social space (comprising other fields, such as business and government) which impacts on the field of Marketing at UKZN.

Looking inwards entails gaining an understanding of the knowledge structure of the discipline of Marketing and how this structure impacts on how Marketing works by both constraining and enabling practices. From a social realist view, “knowledge has its own causal powers and tendencies. That is, different structurings of knowledge possess different affordances – they lend themselves more to certain forms of pedagogy, evaluation, identity, change over time, and so forth, than others” (Maton, 2009, p.55). For example, while agents espouse the importance of useful and applied knowledge in Marketing, the nature of the knowledge structure (horizontal knowledge structure with a weak grammar) does not facilitate a “robust relation to the world” (Muller, 2005, p.507). Additionally, as a region that amalgamates knowledge from a range of disciplines, it is likely that identity formation in Marketing will be more complicated than is the case for singulars (Beck & Young, 2005), and that Marketing will also not be seen to be as prestigious or legitimate as traditional ‘pure’ disciplines.

Looking outwards entails an appreciation of how forces from outside the field may influence what is valued in the field, and thus the practices in the field. For example, socio-political forces at play in the South African higher education setting that may impact on Marketing’s perceived status and value were outlined in Chapter 4. Reference was made to the two contesting discourses (the disciplinary discourse and the credit exchange discourse) that have dominated higher education curriculum policy in South Africa since the 1990s – and which I argued are reflective of a knowledge and knower code respectively. According to Ensor (2004, p.343), while both are strongly represented in policy documents, it is the disciplinary discourse – which foregrounds disciplinary content (knowledge code), while backgrounding “individual student needs and experiences” (knower code) - that has prevailed in practice.

Perhaps the focus on knowledge rather than on knowers in Marketing at UKZN is in an attempt to gain greater legitimacy and status for the discipline in an environment where knowledge-oriented disciplines are considered more prestigious. This is because, as a field, Marketing is engaged in struggles for status with other disciplinary fields and educational institutions in higher education. The power relations between Marketing and other disciplines and the implications for the status of Marketing were explored in Chapter 5. In addition, relations between different types of higher education institutions were raised by Kiara.
Um, I think that’s what’s different from the technikon and university. We do much more theory and, you know, going through...okay, much more learning, I think. Er, but it will count in our favour if you, you know, you do bring in these speakers and...or, you know, take us out to a company, corporate environment......and you know, then we see for ourselves exactly what’s going to happen

Yes, yes! That’s what they do think [that Marketing is an easy option]. I think maybe because they...I don’t know, but, you know, the colleges, those small colleges or whatever... They...they do have Advertising, Marketing... And maybe lots of people respond to, you know, they do that. So I don’t know, maybe everyone thinks that it’s easy to get in [to Marketing], whatever.

Kiara’s comments point to how perceptions around the range of institutions that offer Marketing qualifications may impact on educational practices and status in the discipline. For example, if technikons are viewed as sites of practical knowledge and universities as sites of theoretical knowledge, then the relative lack of focus on practical knowledge at UKZN may be linked to a perception that practical application is ‘not for university’ but rather the work of the technikons.

It may also be linked to a desire for Marketing to maintain the high degree of autonomy (academic freedom) it currently enjoys as an academic discipline, as adopting a greater focus on practical application and ‘apprenticeship’ would likely entail a lowering of positional and relational autonomy. Also of relevance here is the status of Marketing as a ‘professional’ field. According to Macfarlane, business and management studies (including Marketing), in contrast to other applied areas of study (like Law and Nursing), lacks a clear professional identity - something that is usually evidenced by “professional bodies steeped in strong and independent ethical traditions” and “an accepted and respected niche in society” (1995, p.8). Macfarlane asserts that this lack of professional identity and status is because business and management studies is "a wide-ranging amalgam" and also because it is not sufficiently committed to “humanistic values” and “a concern for the wider social consequences of economic activity” (1995, p.8). Accordingly, Hunt suggests that Marketing be viewed as a “university discipline that aspires to be a professional discipline” (2002, pp.305-306).

Another reason for the focus on a knowledge code rather than a knower code in the UKZN Marketing curriculum may be that if (as the lecturers believe) dispositions cannot be acquired, then lecturers must teach what can be acquired i.e. content knowledge.

The preceding discussion has presented a picture of Marketing at UKZN as a field that is located in a tensioned space where contestations over what should be valued and related jockeying for position and status abound. It is not surprising that the lack of agreement on what should be
valued impacts on what is taught and how it is taught in Marketing at UKZN. Thus, while a reflex reaction to the findings presented in previous sections and chapters might be to censure lecturers, viewing their practices through the lens of field gives an appreciation of the complexity of the environment in which agents in the field operate and makes their practices appear more reasonable and understandable. Marketing is located within a complex set of intra- and inter-field relations which together impact on the status of the field and which influence the nature of academic capital valued in the field, the power relations between Marketing and other disciplinary fields and the particular types of lecturers and students who populate it – and consequently the ability of its members to achieve what has been espoused.

6.3 Theoretical and methodological considerations

This section reconsiders the theoretical and methodological tools that were employed in this study and their contribution to addressing the two research questions. As all tools have both strengths and weaknesses, a combination of complementary tools was selected in each instance. The rationale for the choice of the tools was outlined in Chapters 2 and 3 respectively. Having completed the study, it is now appropriate to reflect on the extent to which the arguments made for each tool were realised in practice.

Methodologically, the analysis of the data employed LCT and CDA. Initially, my intention was to use only CDA to explore epistemological access in Marketing at UKZN. However, as I began to work with the data using CDA, it became apparent that, while CDA would be able to give insight into the world inhabited by Marketing at UKZN, it would not enable me to see the significance of what I found at UKZN in relation to what is valued and expected in the discipline more generally. For this, I would need to gain purchase on how Marketing works as a discipline and what its ‘disciplinary identity’ is. LCT was therefore used to give the structure and ‘rules of the game’ of Marketing, so as to help identify what is considered legitimate in the disciplinary Discourse. It thus enabled insight into what is valued in the discipline in general - although it could not on its own go far enough in considering why particular things are valued and others are not. CDA, however, was able to expand on this aspect by considering the dynamic, charged, contested, human world that Marketing operates in at UKZN, where issues of power, context and identity come into play. The combination of the two approaches therefore allowed for exploration of the interplay and tensions between the structure of Marketing as a discipline and agents’ practices in the field. Indeed, from a social realist approach, any analysis is considered inadequate unless it considers both structure and agency (Archer et al, 1998). The combination of LCT and CDA allowed for this dual focus in this study.
Theoretically, the study also drew on NLS (primarily Gee’s theory of Discourse, as well as work on ‘academic literacies’). This body of work enabled an understanding of literacies (including academic literacies) as more than reading and writing. Conceptualising literacy instead as social practice pointed to the importance of a consideration of the broader ‘ways of being’ and identity that are valued in Marketing – rather than simply adopting a narrower focus on student writing in Marketing, which had been my original intention.

The original focus and scope of the study were thus adjusted as the study progressed, in keeping with how the theoretical and methodological tools I was engaging with helped shaped my understanding of the research area. This process resulted in the addition of a tool (LCT) which, as noted above, was not initially part of the study.

6.4 Contributions, limitations and future research

Contributions
First, as outlined in Chapters 1 and 2, this study adds to the body of knowledge in areas that have been identified in the literature as being under-researched, especially in the South African context. For example, Boughey (2005) has called for more research into what constitutes ‘epistemological access’, while Pearse and Amos (2000) have noted a particular need for studies into ‘academic literacy’ in management disciplines. Understandings of epistemological access and academic literacies have shifted over the years, from being seen as generic towards an acknowledgement of their discipline-specific nature. This study extends that disciplinary focus by considering how the form of the knowledge structure that a discipline is built on may have implications for epistemological access to that discipline. Additionally, while academic literacies research tends to focus primarily on student writing and on non-traditional students (Lea, 2004), this study more broadly considers Discourse or ‘ways of being’ (Gee, 2005) and focuses on students in mainstream programmes.

The study is thus also relevant and timely in light of the current concern in the South African higher education context with supporting students’ epistemological access and success at undergraduate level, something which has in fact been set as the objective of the quality assurance cycle scheduled to run from 2012-2017 (CHE, 2011).

Furthermore, this study makes a contribution towards “disciplinary self-understanding” in Marketing, which is pertinent in light of Ferguson’s assertion that “very little is known about the marketing academy culturally speaking, its people, processes or knowledges” (2008, p.10).
Second, as outlined in Chapters 2 and 3, this study adopts theoretical and methodological approaches that have thus far not been commonly used in the Marketing education research domain. For example, the study’s critical/social realist framing and qualitative approach are in line with calls for wider adoption of qualitative (Brownlie & Saren, 1997; Fillis & Rentschler, 2008) and critical realist (Easton, 2002) approaches in Marketing. Furthermore, LCT is a very recent development in the sociology of education, having originally been developed by Maton in 2005 and subsequently extended. While LCT is now increasingly being used in studies exploring a range of higher education disciplines, none of the existing studies that I am aware of has explored the discipline of Marketing. Furthermore LCT analyses have tended to focus on selected dimensions of legitimation - most often Specialisation and/or Semantics (Maton, 2010b). In this study, all five dimensions were considered.

**Limitations**

The limitations linked to the research design were addressed in Chapter 3. Additionally, a possible limitation of the study might be that it was not originally conceptualised as an LCT study and thus the interview schedules were not explicitly designed with the LCT framework in mind (compared to McNamara’s 2007 study, for example). Had the interview schedules been differently designed, it may be that even richer data might have emerged around the legitimation codes that apply at UKZN. However, that it was in fact possible to undertake an LCT analysis of the data that had already been collected is interesting in itself in pointing to how languages of legitimation arise naturally in talk even when they are not explicitly solicited as such.

**Future research**

There is scope for further engagement with some of the findings that emerged from the study. For example, the LCT analysis showed that Marketing is associated with a knower code and that the specialising of identity is key – but exactly *how* would the process of specialising students’ Marketing identities occur, if not through knowledge? The inductive analysis using CDA highlighted that students subscribed to a discourse around a ‘racial pecking order’ among lecturers, which impacted on the perceived status of the Marketing discipline. Further exploration of this discourse would be valuable.

As previously mentioned, Marketing is usually one of several business and other disciplines that make up a general undergraduate business degree. At UKZN, for example, students take a variety of modules from disciplines such as Accounting, Economics, Information Systems and Technology, Statistics, Law and Management, which are likely to be underpinned by different legitimation codes (bases of achievement). There is thus scope for research into the implications of multiple legitimation codes within the same programme, with regard to the positioning of, and
knowledge and practices in, such programmes (Carvalho, 2010). Because such programmes involve the taking on of several disciplinary Discourses, and because the process of academic literacy development is one that is ongoing, I endorse Van Schalkwyk’s (2008) call for more longitudinal research that tracks students in the process of academic literacy acquisition over the duration of their undergraduate studies.

Additionally, in this study, the bases for achievement and status in Marketing have been determined via an analysis of the languages of legitimation of students and lecturers, for reasons outlined in Chapter 1. However, it may be useful to also include practitioners in future studies.

Finally, further engagement with the use of LCT as theoretical tool would be useful.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter has brought me back full circle to the questions and contexts that were raised in the opening chapter of this thesis. In this chapter, I have addressed the research questions that were raised in Chapter 1 and have reconsidered the relevance, contribution and implications of the study in relation to the different contexts that were sketched there.

On a personal note, doing this thesis in a discipline (Education) that is not the discipline that I teach in or obtained my first two degrees in (Marketing) has given me an increased appreciation of the challenges that students such as the ones who participated in this study face in taking on the sometimes contradictory ways of knowing and being of the multiple disciplines that they encounter during their undergraduate commerce studies. It has certainly led me to engage in a great deal of reflection on my own teaching practice.

My hope is that such research might serve as a stimulus for wider reflection, discussion and debate in the discipline of Marketing, an acceptance of the importance of more explicitly addressing the ways of knowing and being pertinent to Marketing in mainstream Marketing education and a reconsideration of some of the taken for granted practices in the discipline which have implications for students’ gaining of epistemological access.
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Dear Student

I am conducting a research project as part of my PhD studies. The aim of the project is to explore teaching and learning in Marketing. Specifically, I am interested in trying to understand what factors are considered important in order for students to be successful in their Marketing studies.

Your experiences and opinions, as Marketing students, are naturally of great importance to this project. I therefore ask that you please complete the following short questionnaire as fully as possible. This should take about 15 minutes of your time.

In order to obtain more detailed information than is possible via this short questionnaire, I am also interested in interviewing approximately ten Marketing students. If you are interested in participating in these interviews, please indicate this in the relevant section of the questionnaire.

If you would like to know more about this project, please feel free to contact me or my supervisor.

Regards,

Aradhna Arbee

My contact details:
Aradhna Arbee
Phone: 031 – 260 3159
E-mail: arbee@ukzn.ac.za
Office: Room M1-207, M Block, Westville campus, UKZN
Sh816, Denis Shepstone Building, Howard College campus, UKZN

My supervisor’s contact details:
Dr Carol Thomson
Phone: 033 – 260 5567
E-mail: thomsonc@ukzn.ac.za
Office: Room 49, School of Education and Development, PMB campus, UKZN
**SECTION A: Biographical and contact details**

*Please complete all questions in this section. This information is important in order to ensure that the group of students who are interviewed come from diverse backgrounds.*

1. **CONTACT DETAILS**
   - Student number: ...............................................................
   - Phone number: ...............................................................
   - E-mail (if different from UKZN Groupwise e-mail) ..................

2. **STUDY DETAILS**
   - Degree: ...............................................................
   - Campus: ...............................................................

3. **GENDER**
   - Female
   - Male

4. **RACE**
   - Black
   - Coloured
   - Indian
   - White
   - Other

5. **MATRIC POINTS**
   - Up to 29
   - 30-31
   - 32-35
   - 36-37
   - 38+

6. **ENGLISH is my:**
   - Mother tongue/ first language
   - Second language
   - Other
SECTION B: Your studies in Marketing

Please answer the following questions as fully and honestly as possible. There are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers.

1. Thinking about your Marketing studies in general at UKZN so far, what do you think is expected or required of you in order to be successful in your Marketing modules? Please give concrete examples where possible.

2. In what ways does this differ from what is required to be successful in your other modules (in other disciplines or fields of study)? Please give concrete examples where possible.

SECTION C: Participation in the project*

Please circle the appropriate response.

1. I would like to participate in this research project if possible.       Yes  No

2. I am happy to be interviewed during the first semester this year.       Yes  No

*NB: if you agree to participate in the project, all confidentiality and ethical issues will be discussed and negotiated before any interviews take place. Interviews will take place at times and places that are convenient for you.

Thank you for your time.
NOTHANDO
Nothando was a black female student on the Howard College campus, registered for a Social Science degree. She had attended Model C schools.

In 2010, she was repeating two of the four third-year Marketing modules, which she had failed the previous year, and was taking the other two modules for the first time. She had had a part-time job as a ‘radio personality’, but had recently given this up to start her own small marketing business, with the radio station as her first client. She did not intend to proceed to Honours level studies, choosing instead to focus on growing her business.

Marketing was her first choice as an area of study, although her parents wanted her to be a lawyer or a doctor. Her choice of Marketing was influenced by the perceived fit with her personality, her knowledge of marketing gained via watching TV shows, speaking to friends and family who studied/worked in marketing, participating in Junior Achievers business projects at school and her own work experience at the radio station. She spoke of herself as a successful business woman, though “not the greatest student when it comes to marks”. She felt at a disadvantage because of the emphasis placed on ‘theory’ instead of creativity and application in her Marketing courses.

SIHLE
Sihle was a black male student on the Westville campus, registered for a Commerce degree. He had attended a rural school.

His interest in Marketing began through watching television advertisements and wondering who had created them and what they needed to learn in order to be able to do so. He did commercial subjects at school, which he passed well. He also described himself as a creative person. His roommate in first year was an Honours student in Marketing. In 2010, he was attempting the four third-year modules for the first time. He intended to proceed to Honours level studies in Marketing.

LINDIWE
Lindiwe was a black female student on the Westville campus. She had attended a rural school, which she described as ‘disadvantaged’.

She was the only one of the nine student participants who was not registered on a mainstream programme. Instead, she was registered on the Access programme in the Faculty of Management Studies. Marketing was not her first choice. She wanted to major in Accounting, but did not meet the entrance requirements. In 2010, she was repeating two third-year Marketing modules that she had failed the previous year. She spoke of herself as a ‘bad’ student.

KIARA
Kiara was an Indian female student registered for a Social Science degree on the Howard College campus.

She chose Marketing because she saw it as providing access to ‘endless’ job opportunities, as being a good fit with her personality (she described herself as creative and versatile) and because of the influence of her aunt, who worked in marketing. In 2010, she was taking all four third-year modules for the first time.
BONGANI
Bongani was a black male student registered for a Commerce degree on the Westville campus. He had attended Model C schools.

He initially intended to major in Accounting as he had performed well in this subject at school, but found that he did not enjoy Accounting at university. After taking on a part-time job in promotions, he decided that Marketing was a better fit with his personality and changed his major. A family friend worked as a marketing director and he was able to draw on her experience and knowledge.

Because of the schools he went to and the way he spoke and dressed other black students referred to him as 'the white boy' or a 'coconut'.

In 2010, he was taking all four third-year modules for the first time.

AMANTHA
Amantha was an Indian female student registered for a Commerce degree on the Westville campus.

Marketing was her first choice, because she saw it as a good outlet for her creative side.

In 2010, she was taking all four third-year modules for the first time.

BEN
Ben was a black male registered for a Commerce degree on the Westville campus. He had attended a rural school, where he did commercial studies.

Accounting was his first choice, but he found it difficult and changed to Marketing after enjoying the introductory Marketing module and finding it to be more practical than Accounting. However, he intended to continue with his studies in Accounting after graduation.

In 2010, he was attempting all four third-year modules for the first time.

MAXINE
Maxine was a white female student registered for a Commerce degree on the Westville campus.

Her choice of Marketing was influenced by family (an older sister who worked in marketing and a mother who enjoyed discussing advertising), her part-time job in promotions and her description of herself as a 'people’s person' who did not want a desk job.

In 2010, she was attempting all four third-year modules for the first time.

THULI
Thuli was a black female student registered for a Commerce degree on the Westville campus. She was the first person in her family to study commerce.

Her choice of Marketing as a major was influenced by the introductory Marketing module, which she found enjoyable, because she could relate it to her everyday life.

In 2010, she was attempting all four third-year modules for the first time.
APPENDIX C: BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES - LECTURERS

MICHAEL
Michael is a white male who is permanently employed as a lecturer at a university of technology and who lectures at UKZN on a part-time basis on the Howard College campus. He does not possess any formal qualifications in Marketing, but worked in a marketing position in industry before applying for a lecturing job. Because of his practical experience, he was appointed to teach Marketing. In 2010, he had been teaching Marketing for approximately 25 years.

NISHA
Nisha is an Indian female who lectures on the Westville campus. She studied Marketing as part of her undergraduate and postgraduate degrees, but did not specialise in Marketing. Teaching Marketing was not her first choice. She would have preferred to teach Management, but got into Marketing because it was what was available when she applied for a lecturing position. She subsequently came to enjoy teaching Marketing and, in 2010, she had been teaching Marketing for approximately 5 years and was in the process of working on her PhD thesis in Marketing.

KAMINI
Kamini is an Indian female who lectures on the Westville campus. She originally intended to work in the marketing industry, but became interested in an academic career while undertaking her postgraduate studies. In 2010, she had been teaching Marketing for approximately 13 years, and was engaged in her PhD studies in Marketing.
APPENDIX D: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE – STUDENTS

1. **Background questions:** Can you tell me a bit about your background? How/why did you decide to study/major in Marketing?

2. **Response to the stimulus piece:** Which piece is written better? Which would achieve higher marks? Which do you prefer? Why?

3. Can you achieve as you would like to in the written assessments (tests, projects, exams) for Marketing? Do you know what is expected of you? What problems do you experience?

4. What is your experience of learning in Marketing? How/what do you learn? What have you struggled with in Marketing? Describe the best learning experience you have had so far. And the worst.

5. What type(s) of written work are required in your Marketing modules? What guidance do you receive on writing? From where/whom? What sort of feedback do you receive on your written work? How do you use this feedback?

6. How important is writing in Marketing?

7. How do you think writing for Marketing is similar to or different from writing in another discipline?

8. What prior learning and/or writing experiences prepared you for writing in Marketing? How so?

9. In terms of the material/texts you are required to read/engage with for your Marketing modules, can you understand the texts? Where do problems lie? Can you begin to write in ways considered appropriate and modeled in the texts?

10. What are the main outcomes of your Marketing courses? What is the rationale for these outcomes? Can you meet these outcomes?

11. Can you describe a typical classroom session in Marketing? How does learning take place? What is the role of the lecturer? What is the role of the students?

12. Mention one incident/experience (or session, or assignment) that you really enjoyed, and describe in some detail what happened there to make it so enjoyable.

13. What are the main factors leading to a student’s success in Marketing? How would you describe a ‘good’ student in Marketing?

14. What factors lead to failure in Marketing? What can be done to help students be more successful?

15. How important are students’ backgrounds, experiences, and exposure to the practice of marketing in terms of facilitating their success in Marketing?

16. Whose role is it to help students develop their academic writing skills i.e. writing for Marketing purposes? What do you think is/should be the role of Marketing lecturers in this regard? What is/should be the student’s role? What does/should the university and the discipline do to improve student success? If it IS your role to develop your Marketing discourse proficiency, how would you go about doing this?

17. Is there anything that I did not ask that you would like to talk about?
APPENDIX E: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE - LECTURERS

1. **Background questions:** Can you tell me a bit about your background? How/why did you decide to study-major in Marketing as a student? How/why did you choose to become a lecturer in Marketing?

2. **Response to stimulus piece:** Which piece is written better? Which would achieve higher marks? Which do you prefer? Why?

3. To what extent do students meet your expectations on written assessments (tests, projects, exams)? If not to a great extent, where do they fall short? And what strengths do they display in their writing?

4. What type(s) of writing are students required to do in your modules and discipline? What guidance do you provide/is available on student writing? How do you comment on and evaluate student written work?

5. How important is writing in your module/programme/discipline?

6. How do you think writing for Marketing is similar to or different from writing in another discipline?

7. What types of texts/material do students have to read/engage with in your module? Can students understand these texts? Where do problems lie? How do you think students can begin to write in ways considered appropriate and modeled in the texts?

8. What are the main outcomes of your course? What is the rationale for these outcomes? Can your students meet these outcomes?

9. What is your experience of student learning? How/what do students learn? Problems? How does this compare to how you learn?

10. Can you describe a typical classroom session in your module? What signs/ indicators do you look out for that tell you students are or are not learning? Why do you consider these important signifiers? What is your role in the classroom? What is the students’ role in the classroom?

11. What are the main factors leading to students’ success in your module/the discipline? How would you describe a ‘good’ student in Marketing?

12. What factors lead to failure in your module/the discipline?

13. How important are students’ backgrounds, experiences, and exposure to the practice of marketing in terms of facilitating their success in your module/the discipline?

14. Whose role is it to help students develop their academic writing skills i.e. writing for Marketing purposes? What do you think is/should be the role of lecturers in the discipline in this regard? What is/should be the student’s role? What does/should the university and the discipline do to improve student success? If it IS your role to develop your students’ Marketing discourse proficiency, how would you go about doing this?

15. Is there anything that I did not ask that you would like to talk about?

16. **Completion of SAAAD quiz**
QUESTION
Marketers need to know about and understand product classifications because different types of products are marketed differently. There are four categories of consumer products, which are usually classified according to consumers’ shopping habits. You’re required to elucidate the ‘convenience products’ category and its sub-groupings, with the aid of examples.

RESPONSE A
A convenience product is a relatively inexpensive item that is bought regularly and merits little shopping effort (i.e. pre-purchase planning, information collection or comparison between different brands). Examples are chocolates, cold drinks, milk, and headache tablets. Convenience products can be subdivided into three sub-groupings. Staples are products such as toothpaste and cigarettes that consumers buy routinely, because they have developed a sense of trust and confidence in the brand. Impulse products are bought quickly without planning. Many chocolates and magazines are bought unplanned while shoppers wait in supermarket queues. Emergency products are purchased immediately and under duress when a great need exists e.g. an umbrella when you have been caught in a rainstorm.

RESPONSE B
Convenience products are the products which are everywhere and have little shopping. These are goods that are not expensive and are known by the consumers and do not require information searching e.g. coca cola. There are staples, impulse and emergency products. Staples bought on a regular basis e.g. toothpaste. They are normaly brand that are trusted by consumers e.g. Colgate toothpaste. Impulse are those goods that were not planned to be purchased but a consumer decides to buy the good e.g. ice cream on a hot day at the beach. They are placed in an convinent place like vending machines. Emergency product is maybe you were going on the trip and you are in the airport and you forgot your toothbrush at home, and now you have to buy a new one. The price is not considered at that moment because it is needed and consumer cannot be without, so the marketer is able to charge more.
Dear Respondent,

I am conducting a research project as part of my PhD studies. The aim of the project is to explore teaching and learning in Marketing from the perspectives of Marketing students and lecturers. Specifically, I am interested in trying to understand what factors and practices are considered important in order for students to be successful in their Marketing studies. In order to undertake this project, I need to interview Marketing students and lecturers. As a Marketing student/lecturer, your input will be very valuable in helping me to understand the area of research. The findings of the research may be useful in informing future teaching and learning practices, and in facilitating students’ success in their Marketing studies.

You are thus invited to participate in this research project on a voluntary basis. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. Your anonymity will be protected by not identifying you in the thesis or in any other dissemination of the research findings. Confidentiality of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the School for a period of five years, after which such documents will be disposed of in accordance with Ethical Committee instructions.

If you agree to participate, I will interview you once or twice during the first semester of 2010 at a time and place that is convenient for you. The interviews should take between 30-60 minutes, and will be tape recorded.

If you have any questions or concerns about participating in this study, please contact me or my supervisor (see contact details at top of page). This project has been approved by the Ethical Clearance Committee at UKZN (clearance number HSS/0986/09D).

Sincerely,

A. Arbee
UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

PhD Research Project:
Students’ and lecturers’ constructions of academic literacy in the discipline of Marketing at UKZN

DECLARATION

I………………………………………………………………………………………………………………….. (full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

………………………………………………………………………
SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

……………………………..
DATE
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example from data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Conceptions of Marketing</td>
<td>This set of codes relates to students’ and lecturers’ perceptions of the academic discipline of Marketing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Marketing as a discipline</td>
<td>This category includes responses that allude to the nature and characteristics of the Marketing discipline.</td>
<td>• “I don’t think Marketing is... conceptually challenging, really” (Michael)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 The outcomes of Marketing education</td>
<td>This category includes responses about the perceived and desired outcomes of Marketing education.</td>
<td>• “you’re in academia to get a degree to be something” (Kamini)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Good Marketing students</td>
<td>This category includes responses that describe the characteristics of ‘good’ Marketing students.</td>
<td>• “…they must be people that are resourceful, er, and also like a bit entrepreneurial” (Kamini)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Factors contributing to success in the discipline of Marketing</td>
<td>This category includes responses about the factors and practices that are considered important for success in the Marketing discipline. In addition to the identification of specific practices, it also includes statements around such practices (e.g. that students are expected to be familiar with these practices by the time they get to university; that they are not made explicit in courses)</td>
<td>• “To be successful, you need to understand from a theoretical point of view, and you need to apply” (Nisha)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 Factors contributing to failure in the discipline of Marketing</td>
<td>This category includes responses about the factors and practices that are considered to lead to failure in the Marketing discipline.</td>
<td>• “…people take...like they take Marketing for granted like, you know, they think ‘Oh, gosh, it’s Marketing, I just need to open the textbook when it’s a week before the exam and I’ll just get this done”” (Nothando)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Excerpt from coding schedule, focussing on ‘Conceptions of Marketing’

*Based on Chen (2010)*
The title reflected in the above letter was the original title of the study that was registered in 2009 and that was in place when the above protocol was implemented in 2010. The subsequent application for a change of the above title to the study’s current title was made in September/October 2011 and was approved by the Faculty’s Higher Degrees Committee at its meeting held on 01 November 2011.
APPENDIX J: STUDENT PARTICIPANTS’ PERFORMANCE ON MARKETING MODULES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RACE</th>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>FIRST LANG</th>
<th>CAMPUS</th>
<th>MATRIC POINTS</th>
<th>PERFORMANCE*** ON LEVEL-TWO AND LEVEL-THREE MARKETING MODULES</th>
<th>SUMMARY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>LEVEL 2</strong></td>
<td><strong>LEVEL 3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CB** [SEM1]**</td>
<td>MR [SEM1]**</td>
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<tr>
<td>NOThANDO</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Zulu</td>
<td>Howard College</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>KIARA</td>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Howard College</td>
<td>38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BONGANI</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Zulu</td>
<td>Westville</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMANTHA</td>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Westville</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

101 A mark of at least 50% constitutes a pass. A supplementary (supp.) exam (denoted in the table by the letter ‘S’ after the year) may be written by a student who has failed a module but has obtained a mark in the range 40%-49%. In special circumstances, a student with a mark below 40% may also be allowed to write a supplementary exam. A mark of 75% and above constitutes a first-class pass.

102 The 8-credit point ‘Introduction to Marketing’ module was first offered in 2009. Prior to 2009, students took ‘Introduction to Marketing and Human Resources’, a 16-credit-point module (for which they received an overall module mark and not separate marks for the Marketing and Human Resources components). Any 2008 marks for ‘Intro’ are thus a combination mark, as there was no ‘stand-alone’ introductory Marketing module until 2009.

103 The level-three modules are Consumer Behaviour (CB), Marketing Research (MR), Marketing Communication (MC) and Special Topics in Marketing (ST).
Caroline Goodier Educational Consulting
Tel: 031 261 3922
083 566 8036
e-mail: caroline.goodier@gmail.com

12 January 2011

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN
Editing of PhD thesis: Aradhna Arbee

I hereby confirm that I have edited Ms Arbee’s thesis: Knowledge and knowers in the discipline of Marketing at the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Yours faithfully

CAROLINE GOODIER
(D Litt et Phil in Applied Linguistics, UNISA)
APPENDIX L: TURNTIN REPORT SUMMARY

Turnitin Originality Report
thesis - without ref list by Aradhna Arbee
From thesis check (ARBEE thesis)

Processed on 2012年01月10日 7:24 上午 CAT
ID: 223395917
Word Count: 78060

Similarity Index
8%

Similarity by Source
Internet Sources: 5%
Publications: 5%
Student Papers: 2%

sources:

1. < 1% match (publications)

2. < 1% match (internet from 1/22/11)
   http://eprints.lancs.ac.uk/34174/1/20100011_S_Baldwin_Thesis.pdf

3. < 1% match (student papers from 11/21/11)
   Submitted to Gardner-Webb University on 2011-11-21

4. < 1% match (Internet from 9/3/11)

5. < 1% match (Internet from 9/3/09)
   http://eprints.ru.ac.za/771/01/McKenna-Phd.pdf

6. < 1% match (Internet from 8/8/09)
   http://eprints.ru.ac.za/906/01/LO_Thesis_20070402.pdf

7. < 1% match (Internet from 5/13/09)

8. < 1% match (publications)

9. < 1% match (Internet from 12/7/09)
   http://ghr.sagepub.com/cgi/reprint/17/10/1372.pdf

10. < 1% match (publications)

11. < 1% match (Internet)
    http://lanca-lee.comp.lancs.ac.uk/sociology/papers/ailcough-wheelerham-critical-realism...

https://www.turnitin.com/newreport_printview.asp?eq=0&eb=1&csm=10&aoid=22338... 1/10/2012