The Business Education curriculum in 21st century South Africa: A meta-study of Master's and Doctoral studies

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

Signature

Date: October 2020

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All glory to my heavenly Father for giving me the wisdom, strength, and courage to undertake this study. None of this would have been possible without His grace and great mercy.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to Erens Pieter Le Hanie (1983–), Chris van Zyl (1956–), and Mariana van Zyl (1961–) without whom this journey would not have been possible.

ABSTRACT

Fifteen years ago, Maistry (2005) drew attention to the fact that there was a dearth of research on Business Education. Research in the field of Business Education has increased exponentially since then. Master's and Doctoral students, as significant contributors to the knowledge economy in the 21st century, have researched different aspects of Business Education. This research explores the intellectual projects in Business Education of a sample of Master's and Doctoral studies. At the same time as addressing the research aims of the study, the in-depth analysis of these theses and dissertations has led to valuable insight into the field of Business Education. The particular aims of this study were to (a) explore what constitutes education in the 21st century landscape in South Africa; (b) identify literature with regard to current trends in the Business Education curriculum in South Africa; (c) establish the theoretical gaps, contextual trends, and future directions for Business Education in South Africa based on the analysis of Master's and Doctoral studies conducted between 1997 and 2018; and (d) ascertain whether the Business Education curriculum in South Africa is aligned with the needs of South African citizens in the 21st century.

The methodological framework used was a qualitative meta-study. Critical theory best complemented this study since it enabled me to critically engage with my study on a theoretical and methodological level. Habermas's perspective on critical theory, which directly resonates with the work of Freire's emancipatory theory, underpins this study on curriculum development. Habermas's theory of communicative action enabled me to engage with the purposive sample of 118 Master's and Doctoral studies. The criteria used to select the sample were successfully completed theses and dissertations at South African public universities in faculties of Economic and Management Sciences, faculties of Education, and faculties where technology degrees related to Business Education are offered. The studies selected all have a title that was related to education. This study focused on theses and dissertations from 1997 to 2018 because 1997 was when Business Education became a priority in the education system. It took me from 2017, when I commenced my studies in 2017 to the end of 2018 to have enough data to start my data analysis in 2019. The theses and dissertations focused on different levels of education, including higher education, teacher education, school education, and vocational education. For the purpose of this study, I have chosen to refer only to education in general and not to each type of education in the literature, findings and contributions. Clearly, a study confined to one level of education would not have provided a sufficient basis for reaching conclusions on optimal Business Education for South African citizens in the 21st century. Another criterion was that only theses and

dissertations that were written in English would be used in the interests of language consistency. Since Atlas.ti™ software was used for data analysis purposes, theses and dissertations also had to be electronically available and not too large to scan. A pilot study was conducted to (a) determine if the Master's and Doctoral studies should be analysed separately as the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) lists different outcomes for these; (b) arrive at the review questions to be used for data analysis purposes; (c) establish initial codes and determine inclusion and exclusion criteria, (d) determine whether the data were relevant to the research questions, and (e) ensure the trustworthiness and validity of the data analysis process. Ten per cent of the 118 studies were used for the pilot study. The pilot study focused on nine Master's studies and three Doctoral studies. There were far more Master's studies in the initial cull and, therefore, more Master's studies were included in the pilot study. I did an inductive analysis of the theses and dissertations. This involved two data analysis cycles. The first data analysis cycle focused on open coding. The second data analysis cycle consisted of axial and selective coding. The process of open, axial, and selective coding formed part of thematic analysis.

The interpretations and findings derived from the meta-study revealed five contextual trends in Business Education within the South African context. These include a) neo-liberal agendas in Business Education, b) the integration of 21st century learning in Business Education, c) integration and fragmentation of independent entities in the Business Education curriculum, d) massification, marketisation, and commercialisation of Business Education in relation to dropout rates, and e) emerging trends in changing the Business Education context. The theoretical gaps and future directions were identified within each of these contextual trends.

The data revealed that the majority of Master's and Doctoral students often view Business Education from a narrow perspective as an instrument which is focused on growth momentum. The "benefits" of this instrumentalism are a two-edged sword. They have negative effects such as widening the inequality divide in South Africa. In South Africa, the Business Education curriculum is situated in a Tylerian mould. The Tylerian rationale as a reactive force of *currere* is inadequate since it led to the ossification of potential movements, the domestication of the self, the deterritorialisation of discipline knowledge, and the emergence of transdisciplinary trajectories, among other things. Freire is critical of Tyler's top-down approach. His work led to *currere* being seen as an active force. For Freire, education and curriculum should be non-egoic, de-hierarichal and inter-communicative. Freire proposes the emancipatory theory as an alternative to the Tylerian approach. The emancipatory theory uses a problem-solving method that necessitates dialogue and critical participation between educators, community members, and students to develop critical consciousness of the world in which they find themselves. Freire's work directly resonates with those of Habermas since they both focused on the action of

deliberation to beget change. Tyler's rationale and Freire's emancipation theory underpinned this study with specific reference to *currere* as a reactive force and to *currere* as an active force. Although the Business Education curriculum continues to be dominated by a single bottom line of economic prosperity, there are signs that Master's and Doctral students are starting to shift their perspective. The data revealed emerging trends in Business Education such as social awareness, environmental awareness, social justice, sustainable development, and ethics. These emerging trends could form part of a benchmark for international comparison of curricula, especially in countries such as South Africa that have emerging economies. If not clearly stated, these emerging trends could be interpreted as an instrument for social change or emancipation. However, one must be cautious not to substitute one form of instrumentalism in Business Education for another. It would be better to reach a dialogical understanding through asking critical questions on how Business Education is understood.

The work presented in this thesis makes a theoretical and contextual contribution to understanding Business Education in the South African context. This study also identifies theoretical gaps in Master's and Doctoral studies. These include (a) differentiated interpretations of 21st century learning, (b) the voices of different stakeholders to reform the Business Education curriculum, (c) international historical moments as a benchmark for curriculum reform, (d) *homo economicus* and the lack of Ubuntu, and (e) Business Education as an instrument.

Finally, I make evidence-based recommendations for further research. Critical research could be conducted into transcendental accounts of Business Education in the 21st century South Africa, ontological questioning of the inherent nature of Business Education, and support programmes to promote the effective use of technologies in Business Education classrooms in South Africa. In addition, different factors that affect the dropout rates in Business Education in South Africa could be researched. The possible contribution the voices of students, curriculum developers, practitioners, and community members could make to reforming or transforming the Business Education field needs to be investigated. As a final recommendation, meta-study design as an explorative gateway to unite the literature and the data could present new avenues for research and theoretical and contextual insights.

Key concepts: Business Education, business, 21st century learning, 21st century skills, communicative action, curriculum development, neo-liberalism

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PRE-REFLECTIONS ON MY PHD

There's always gonna be another mountain
I'm always gonna wanna make it move
Always gonna be an uphill battle
Sometimes I'm gonna have to lose
Ain't about how fast I get there
Ain't about what's waitin' on the other side
It's the climb

~Miley Cyrus "The climb"

Life is a journey. Doing research is a journey. A PhD is a journey.

I would like to give a glimpse of my life journey that led to my enrolling for a PhD. I have been passionate about Economics and Business Studies since high school. After matriculating, I enrolled for a BEd Senior and Further Education and Training (FET) phase at the North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus). Not surprisingly, I chose Business Studies and Economics as my specialisation modules. I enjoyed every module in my BEd programme, but some more than others. My passion for Curriculum Studies, Assessment, Economics, and Business Studies was evident in the awards I received for the best student in these modules. I also received the award for the best student in the BEd Senior and FET phase. This award was a mark of how dedicated I was to my studies and how much I loved education. After completing my BEd degree, I was not sure that I wanted to begin my journey as a teacher. I had to ask myself where I saw myself in the future. The answer came easily: I wanted to be a lecturer in Curriculum Studies and Business Education. I had a great love for these fields and was eager to learn more from my much-admired role models (lecturers).

I completed my honours in Curriculum Studies. The honours programme made me love Curriculum Studies even more. It is during this time frame that I realised that Curriculum Studies is much more than only a policy. I wanted to learn more. I continued my academic journey by enrolling for a master's in Curriculum Studies. My master's degree focused on the socio-economic background and motivation of students and the impact they had on their self-directedness to learn. While doing my master's degree, I lectured part-time in Assessment, Curriculum Development, Business Studies, and Economics at a public higher education institution. A dream came true. I was able to develop my academic knowledge and skills while lecturing. Teaching Business Education and Curriculum Studies also broadened my view of these fields. I enjoyed my master's degree journey, but I knew that I had not found the focus of my study challenging enough to continue with this academic focus in future studies. I decided to do a PhD in Curriculum Studies with a focus on Business Education. I applied for permanent academic positions but received comments such as – "you are too young" and "you need school experience to teach at the Faculty of Education". Why should my age play a role? Yes, I am a young woman, but I have a master's in Education and two-years' experience of teaching undergraduate students. These comments did not stop me from dreaming. Instead, they encouraged me to think critically about all aspects of life and to embrace change.

I started to teach at a primary school in Klerksdorp. I taught Economic and Management Sciences (EMS), Social Science, Technology, and Life Orientation to Grades 4 to 7 students. Certain aspects about teaching at a primary school stood out. First, students wanted to be "spoon-fed" and struggled to apply even basic skills on their own. Secondly, the school focused on balancing academics, culture, and sporting activities. Certain parents were very competitive and enrolled their children in a great number of cultural and sports activities. They expected their children to be ranked among the top 10 achievers. This placed strong pressure on students to perform. Parents and students became consumers, education institutions started to operate as businesses, and education came to be seen as a commodity. Thirdly, this primary school, just like other schools, uses the students' achievements as a marketing strategy to attract more enrolments. More enrolments meant more profits. Fourthly, I was the only teacher with a master's degree, the other teachers had only the minimum qualification to be a teacher or were assistant teachers who were enrolled for an education programme. I observed that the teachers did not fully understand how to implement the curriculum effectively. Most teachers rigidly applied the curriculum rather than adapting it to the context of the school and the students' backgrounds. I enjoyed being a teacher. Nevertheless, I missed being a lecturer in the intellectually stimulating atmosphere at a higher education institution.

I wanted to develop my curriculum development skills therefore I became the head of curriculum development and quality assurance at a private higher education institution in Pretoria, where I had succeeded in having two educational programmes accredited. At the same time, I lectured part-time to undergraduate students at the same institution. I lectured on Assessment and Curriculum Studies. During this time, I observed that stakeholders (educators, students, curriculum developers, etc.) usually view the curriculum as a static entity. When a permanent position for a lecturer opened at the institution where I was working, I decided to apply so I could satisfy my desire to teach at a higher education institution. I loved developing programmes, but I felt that my true calling was lecturing. Often people think that lecturing only involves teaching, but a lecturer has many other roles to play from being a facilitator, programme/study material developer, assessor, to having pastoral responsibilities. Currently I am lecturing on Research Theory, Research Methodology, and Curriculum Studies. My paramount concern is hearing the student voices that are often silenced. These student voices help me to think critically about the education landscape. I hope to become a leading scholar in both of my fields (Curriculum Studies and Business Education). The ethos in the academic work environment has made me eager to do further academic research.

My journey as a student, a teacher, curriculum developer, lecturer and researcher, has made me think about the challenges and opportunities 21st century learning poses in the South African context. While reading literature on this topic, I have noticed that several scholars refer to the opportunities of 21st century learning, without recognising the challenges it poses. Can it be that 21st century learning is seen as a cure for the socio-economic ills in South Africa? If this is the case, then 21st century learning and, more specifically, education and curriculum, should be focused on market principles to secure economic growth momentum in South Africa. Is this a good thing or not? I wonder if indeed Business Education is specifically focusing on these market principles since Business Education content is concerned with aspects such as business practices, economic growth initiatives, socio-economic issues, demand and supply, and entrepreneurial activities. I wonder whether Master's and Doctoral graduates have researched aspects related to 21st century learning, curriculum, and Business Education in South Africa? If so, what have they discovered, what recommendations have they made? Have these recommendations been implemented or are their academic voices silenced in libraries and databases? These students could have contributed to the knowledge economy which could guide curriculum reform in Business Education or start complicated conversations in the Business Education field. Why should one research the impact of 21st century learning in Business Education or 21st century curriculum reform initiatives in Business Education if Master's and Doctoral students had already done so? What can one learn from the voices of Master's and Doctoral students? I believe it is worth investigating what intellectual projects Master's and

Doctoral students have done on Business Education. It might open new avenues for research and/or present new insights into the Business Education field for the 21st century South Africa.

After conversations with Professor Petro du Preez, I have decided to enrol for a PhD. What I will discover is not known and what contributions I will be making are not yet clear. But it is a journey I am excited to embark on. If I am going to conduct a meta-study, I need to read as much as possible about a meta-study methodology and how to apply it to my research since this is the first attempt at doing a meta-study. I have decided to make use of Atlas.ti™ to analyse documents in an organised and structured way. Since I have never used Atlas.ti™, I have decided to do a basic and advanced course in Atlas.ti™ (Addendum A). This will help me to use all of the functionalities of the software fully in my data analysis.

My PhD is an adventure; it's an exploration; a journey into the unknown.

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

"EMS [Economic and Management Sciences] teaching and learning
was a relatively new phenomenon in the South African education context,
and as such had not been subject to intensive research."

(Maistry, 2005:6)

1.1 Introduction

Twenty-first century South Africa is characterised by high unemployment rates, poverty, inequality, undemocratic political activities, obsession with money, competitiveness, an inability to generate growth momentum, and a struggle for power. In the South African context, a neo-liberalist economic ideology is the order of the day. A neo-liberalist economic ideology frequently affects our ability to maintain a clear vision of the purpose of education and curriculum. For example, several scholars believe that 21st century learning is a set of prescribed skills that will help students to meet the transformative challenges of the Fourth Industrial Revolution. There is also the belief that 21st century learning is a panacea that will guarantee that more people will be employed. The opening quote, based on research conducted by Maistry 15 years ago, might still have some truth, but there is at least some evidence of a steep increase in Master's and Doctoral students conducting research in the Business Education field. My research focused on the intellectual advancement of Business Education to establish the theoretical gaps, contextual trends, and future directions for Business Education in 21st century South Africa. In the next section, I elaborate on the South African context as the background to the problem statement and research questions that guided me through this study.

1.2 South African context

South Africa, economic hub of Africa, has witnessed nationalist and democratic political regimes that brought about contested economic dispensations. For example, the demise of apartheid resulted in neo-liberal solutions being posed to spur economic growth in an attempt to address injustices and inequalities of the past. Similarly, in other countries, neo-liberal principles have infiltrated the education sector as a powerful platform to redress inequalities and injustices of the past. As noble as this might sound, one can rightly question whether this is not an instrumentalist approach to dealing with issues of social justice and equity, at least in economic terms. But first,

some brief notes on more recent developments on the economic front, and education landscapes of South Africa.

The South African context has changed over the decades, with economic measurements seen as the lever to influence change. This section begins by alluding to some South African economic measurements such as unemployment, poverty, inequality, and economic growth, amongst others since these measurements are important to shape policy and growth momentum in the economy from a neo-liberalist perspective. A counter to this neo-liberalist perspective is neo-Marxism that highlights interventionist approaches to the economy through measures like government policy and trade union activism. It has become clear that a single economic approach is not sufficient to address socio-economic issues in South Africa (Freund, 2019; Mosala, Venter & Bain, 2017; Terreblanche, 2002). Neo-liberal solutions that accentuate economic growth need to include the critical capacity to deal with issues of equity caused by global economic inequality and the legacy of apartheid.

1.2.1 Economic landscape of South Africa

Since the democratic transition in 1994, South Africa has found it difficult to achieve sustainable economic growth (Gumata & Ndou, 2019; Khobai, Kolosi, Moyo, Anyikwa, & Dingela, 2019; Rodrik, 2008; Wakefield, 2020; Walters & Vorster, 2019; Van der Merwe, 2020). The South African economy and polity have had disappointing economic growth and employment rates (Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016; Ncanywa & Masoga, 2018; Rodrik, 2008). Specific determinants have led to stagnated growth in South Africa. These are revenues shortfalls, high debt levels, persistent electricity shortages that inhibit productivity, particularly in the manufacturing sector, and epidemics (Abodunrin & Oloye, 2020; Gumata & Ndou, 2019; Khobai *et al*., 2019; Ncanywa & Masoga, 2018). Since the 1990s, low growth and high unemployment are both the result of the shrinkage of the non-mineral tradable sector (Erten, Leight & Tregenna, 2019; Nguyen, 2018; Rodrik, 2008). Structural change has contributed to unemployment in non-mineral trades including manufacturing (Erten *et al.*, 2019; Ferreira and Rossouw, 2016; Rodrik, 2008). The weakness of export-orientated manufacturing has deprived South Africa of growth opportunities (Nguyen, 2018; Rodrik, 2008). The shrinking of the manufacturing sector has led to a collapse in the demand for young and unskilled workers (Rodrik, 2008). Developed countries have coped with similar labour market issues through the absorption of young and unskilled job seekers into the informal sector (Erten *et al*., 2019; Mahata, 2020; Rodrik, 2008). South Africa's informal employment growth rate remains low in comparison to that of other developing countries (Erten *et al*., 2019; Rodrik, 2008).

According Mahadea and Kaseeram (2018), unemployment is concentrated in the unskilled, young, and black population. Even though the apartheid regime started to unravel from the 1980s, the majority of the black population remains deprived of economic and political freedoms (Mahadea & Kaseeram, 2018; Rodrik, 2008). Rodrik (2008) has identified three trends in the South African economy which have put a damper on the demand for low skilled workers. Firstly, there is a clear move towards employing skilled workers in every economic sector (Rodrik, 2008). Secondly, there is evident structural change in low-skilled activities in the economy, for example, tradables (Erten *et al*., 2019; Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016; Rodrik, 2008). Lastly, production techniques in tradables have become more capital-intensive (Rodrik, 2008). As a result of on-going patterns in technological change, these three trends have escalated over the past two decades (Katiyatiya, 2020). These trends in the demand for labour have made it easier to comprehend why the unemployment rate in South Africa is high (Rodrik, 2008). If South Africa's tradable and manufacturing sector could expand rapidly, economic growth would be higher and more jobs would be created for the relatively young and unskilled population (Rodrik, 2008).

The sectors with the most unemployed people in 2019 were in trade (159 thousand people), manufacturing (39 thousand people), and utilities (14 thousand people) (Statistics South Africa, 2020b). Currently, the socio-economic challenges in South Africa are becoming more complex. Ferreira and Rossouw (2016:829) state that "there have been sectoral changes in unemployment, attributable to a structural shift in production away from the employment-intensive primary sector to the tertiary sector". South Africa's unemployment rate[1] remained unchanged at 29.1% between Q3:2019 and Q4:2019, as compared to 13% in 1993 (Statistics South Africa, 2020b). In 2020, a year-on-year increase of 2.0% unemployment rate has been recorded thus far (Statistics South Africa, 2020b). The expanded or hidden unemployment rate[2] increased from Q3:2019 to Q4:2019 by 0.2% (Statistics South Africa, 2020b). The high unemployment rate in South Africa presents an economic trajectory as it poses a threat to the eventual health and stability of democracy in South Africa (Baker, Yu & Roos, 2018; Bhorat, 2015; Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016; Masipa, 2018; Rodrik, 2008; Wakefield, 2020; Wakefield, Yu & Swanepoel, 2020).

This highlights the inability of South Africa's economic policies to address the unemployment phenomenon (Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016; Mahadea & Kaseeram, 2018). The government urgently needs economic policies that will effectively address the complexity of unemployment

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1 The **official expanded definition of unemployment** is those aged between 15 and 64 years who: a) did not find employment in the particular reference week, b) actively searched for work or attempted to start a new business; b) were available and able to work or start a new business at a definite time in the future (Statistics South Africa, 2020b).

2 **Expanded or hidden unemployment** refers to those people between the ages of 15 and 64, who searched for work and are available to work but are discouraged work-seekers and /or have certain reasons not to search for work (Statistics South Africa, 2020b).

(Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016). Ferreira and Rossouw (2016) suggest that the government needs to increase the employment intensity of the economy to reduce the skill mismatch (Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016). In this sense, policy interventions could include a more vocational approach to education, the establishment of government-funded programmes that are focused on the promotion of entrepreneurial skills, and providing job search assistance (Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016). These policy interventions are evident in the national curriculum of schools (Le Grange & Reddy, 2017). A Tylerian approach means that the curriculum objectives are aligned to achieve a particular purpose in the society and in the economy (Le Grange & Reddy, 2017; Van den Berg, 2014) (1.3.4). In South Africa, an instrumentalist approach has predominated in schools in the twentieth and twenty-first centuries (Le Grange, 2014a; Le Grange, 2016; Le Grange & Reddy, 2017). This instrumentalist approach implies that the curriculum is seen as a reactive force (Le Grange, 2014a; Le Grange, 2016; Wallin, 2010). The dominance of *currere* as a reactive force in education needs to be understood in terms of the Western's society's commitment to transcendence (Le Grange, 2019). This commitment separated humans from nature, leading to the destruction of nature, and created an education system that reinforces dualism (Le Grange, 2019) (1.3.4.). Using a critical theory lens, transcendental thinking is informed by Horkheimer, Adorno, Marcuse, Benjamin and Lawenthal at the Institute for Social Research in Frankfurt (Casterino & Hasen, 2019) (1.6.1). Instead, the immanence of Habermas's communicative action, which highlights dialogue and rational decision-making, presents alternatives to instrumentalist approaches. Habermas's approach, which is located in critical theory, emphasises that one should avoid an instrumentalist approach as it offers unilateral, one-sided and reductionist solutions to socio-economic problems (Blake & Masschelein, 2003; Delanty & Strydom, 2003; Strydom, 2011) (1.6.1). I elaborate on this instrumentalist approach to education in Section 1.2.2. In Chapter Three, I also give attention to this instrumentalist approach specifically in Business Education. But first, I would like to continue the discussion of economic underperformance in South Africa.

The State of the Nation Address (SONA) in 2020 acknowledged critical aspects of economic underperformance in South Africa. South Africa has unsustainable levels of high debt which influence economic growth negatively (Kaplan, 2020). Although the SONA referred to structural reform in the near future, it did not elaborate on new growth-enhancing initiatives (Kaplan, 2020). According to Kaplan (2020), it is vital to establish growth-enhancing initiatives to promote Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth and increase employment rates.

If the government prioritises the success of business ventures with the aim of eliminating possible barriers to job creation, inequlities could still remain unchanged (Bhorat & Van der Westhuizen, 2008; Kaplan, 2020; Polus, Kopiński & Tycholiiz, 2020; Statistics South Africa, 2020a). The per-

capita expenditure Gini-coefficient, which was 0.67 in 2006, dropped to 0.65 in 2015 (Statistics South Africa, 2020a). It appears that female workers earn almost 30% less than male workers (Statistics South Africa, 2020a). It should also be noted that most black African workers are on the lowest wage scale (Statistics South Africa, 2020a). These inequalities might be the reason why the bottom 60% of households depend on social grants to make a living (Statistics South Africa, 2020a). Bhorat and Van der Westhuizen (2008) propose that the focus should be placed on policies for increasing economic growth to enable change in the economy's income distribution (2.2.1). Currently, unequal income distribution contributes to the high unemployment rate[3] in South Africa.

Rodrik (2008) asserts that employment generation and economic growth, from a neo-liberalist perspective, are inadequate to deal with the structural problems of the South African economy. Terreblanche (2002), speaking from a neo-Marxist perspective, offers alternative solutions to the socio-economic issues facing South Africa that require greater government interventions and distributive justice. Education is seen as crucial to prepare business and government to deal with these complex and conflicting economic challenges (Howard, 2018).

To examine the effect of high unemployment on South Africa's lack of growth momentum, I focus on the challenges that poverty poses. Poverty is manifested in economic, social, and political ideologies (Statistics South Africa, 2017). It is mainly women, children, black Africans, and people with little to no education who are the victims of poverty in South Africa (Statistics South Africa, 2017). Statistics South Africa (2017) proposes that Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) be implemented and promoted to alleviate poverty in South Africa. SDG's indicator baseline report recommends 17 goals (Statistics South Africa, 2017). The first goal aims at ending all forms of poverty by creating conditions or opportunities for entrepreneurship (Statistics South Africa, 2017). This goal specifically aims to eliminate poverty below South Africa's Lower-bound Poverty Line (LBPL) (Statistics South Africa, 2017). In 2006, 14% of the South African population lived below the international poverty line but in 2015 poverty decreased to 7.4% (Statistics South Africa, 2017). The second goal of the SDGs is to end hunger and ensure food security[4] (Statistics South Africa, 2017). One action taken is the National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security which aims at ensuring food security at the household and national level (Statistics South Africa, 2017).

Furthermore, the SDG aims to promote the well-being of all people (Statistics South Africa, 2017). The National Development Plan (NDP) is working towards a process of having a health system for everyone in South Africa by 2030 (Statistics South Africa, 2017) (2.2.1). Statistics South Africa

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[3] The **unemployment rate** is the percentage of the labour force that has been identified as unemployed (Statistics South Africa, 2020b; Van der Merwe, 2020).

[4] **Food security** refers to the availability and affordability of foods (Statistics South Africa, 2017).

(2017) reported that the fourth goal focused on eradicating poverty, reducing inequality, and economic growth of 5.4% with an unemployment rate of 6%. However, there was an unemployment rate of 29.1% in 2019 and inequalities had largely remained unchanged. The other goals of the SDGs include gender equality, sustainable management of sanitation, affordable and sustainable energy for everyone, sustainable growth, industrialisation and consumption patterns, reduction of inequalities among and within countries, the establishment of safe human settlements, combating climate change, restoration of ecosystems, sustainable use of, inclusive social development, and the strengthening of global partnerships (Statistics South Africa, 2017).

The spread of COVID-19 has influenced the economy globally and nationally. The COVID-19 pandemic has already led to a drop in consumer spending, instability and losses in financial and stock markets, worsening of unemployment, poverty and inequalities, amongst other things (Abodunrin & Oloye, 2020; Ataguba, 2020; Du Preez & Le Grange, 2020; Van der Merwe, 2020). COVID-19 has not only had an impact on the economy, but also on the education system. Education institutions have had to transform their daily activities (Du Preez & Le Grange, 2020; Dube, 2020; Ramrathan, 2020). This provides evidence of the intricate connection between economics and education. Opinions differ as to the full extent, form, and nature of this connection in South Africa. Maistry (2014) refers to this connection as *educationomics*.

1.2.2 'Educationomics'

Mbiza (2018) notes that an increase in the education budget does not improve the quality of the education system. Chalkiadaki (2018:2) contends that "countries invest in education on the expectation that it will contribute to their long-term economic well-being and sustainability". South Africa spends a higher percentage of its budget on education than the United States of America and the United Kingdom, but delivers poorer education (Mbiza, 2018). According to the World Economic Forum 2016-17 Global Competitiveness Report, South Africa's primary education system rated 126th out of 138 countries (Mbiza, 2018). South Africa's higher education system was rated 134th out of 138 countries (Mbiza, 2018). These statistics imply that South Africa's education system performs worse than Zimbabwe, Kenya, and Swaziland (poorer nations) (Mbiza, 2018). These statistics make it evident that South Africa, despite its monetary investment in education, continues to lag behind. Here the tightly knit relationship between economic discourses and education systems needs to be interrogated.

Economic discourses find their way into the education system through pseudo-economic discourses known as *educationomics*, which highlights the instrumental link between education and economics (Maistry, 2014). For example, Lourie (2020) asserts that education is often

required to address economic challenges, and therefore one of the aims of education is to equip students to be more productive within a transformative knowledge-based globalised era. This conception of education sees the purpose of education as the production of human resources (productive innovative knowledge-workers) for the knowledge economy to secure economic growth (Howard, 2018; Lourie, 2020). Educational institutions that are producing human capital for a labour force predominate nationally and internationally (Gray, 2016; Lourie, 2020; Maistry, 2014). For example, in 2011 the Umalusi Higher Education South Africa (HESA) and Higher Education Learning and Teaching Association of South Africa (HELTASA) seminar was held to discuss the value of the National Senior Certificate (NSC) for higher education and its vocational potential (Maistry, 2014). At this seminar, educational leaders reiterated the view that the purpose of education is to prepare students for the labour force or to provide them with a 'licence' to enter higher education (Howard, 2018; Maistry, 2014). This confirmed the instrumentalist agenda that is uncritically endorsed in South Africa. From Habermasian perspective (1.6.3), the theory of communicative action encourages multilateral dialogue that moves beyond instrumentalist agendas (Caterino & Hasen, 2019). These instrumentalities may subject the social world to pathological developments that limit the autonomy and freedom of participants by perpetuating ideologies that tend to control and oppress citizens (Caterino & Hasen, 2019). These pathological developments can be social, political or psychological (Caterino & Hasen, 2019). A reductionist perspective on education that encourages profit-making thus submits society to instrumentalism (Caterino & Hasen, 2019).

1.2.3 The rhetoric of the 21st century and education in South Africa

The competitiveness underscoring education across nations is not only evidence of a culture of performativity, but also of uncritical embrace of international policies and discourses (Fataar, 2019; Sutherland, 2020). One such discourse concerns the rhetoric of the 21st century and the Fourth Industrial Revolution (Fataar, 2019; Sutherland, 2020:234). These are arguably merely policy discourses, based on the assumption that it is inevitable and benevolent (Fataar, 2019). However, such discourses might increase socio-economic polarisations and keep deeply entrenched historical inequalities intact (Fataar, 2019). At the same time, these discourses have the potential to enrich education and bring about socio-economic progress in a deeply-divided country like South Africa (Fataar, 2019; Sutherland, 2020). The latter should be seen in the context of 21st century hallmarks that include community involvement, technological communication, digital literacy, financial literacy and visual literacy. Against this background, Short and Keller-Bell (2019) assert that students need to evince tolerance, appreciation of humanity, responsibility, and a commitment to cooperation (Short & Keller-Bell, 2019).

At first glance these hallmarks and dispositions seem unassailable, but in effect they steer education on an instrumentalist course. Gray (2016) mentions that educational institutions and the curriculum are being subordinated by market forces which bind education to economic growth. Education and thus the curriculum are adapting to a knowledge economy, a digital economy, and the economy of advanced technologies (Lourie, 2020). As a result of this, educational institutions and the curriculum are stripped of the arts and humanities and there is a strong focus on 21st century learning, which emphasises ICT and digital technologies, and knowledge that contributes to the broader knowledge economy (Gray, 2016; Howard, 2018; Lourie, 2020).

Education seen purely as an instrument for advancing the profitability of the corporate sector and initiating economic growth implies that a reductionist approach to the fundamental nature of education has been espoused. Ali (2017) fears that once intrinsic human beings are stripped of their dignity, a state of savagery might result. Maistry (2014:68) also warns of the consequences of an instrumentalist agenda of education as "[w]hen neoliberal market imperatives drive the education agenda it clouds the ability to see others as human beings rather than as instruments for profit". I agree with Ali (2017) and Maistry (2014) that economic forces are redefining education and academic life.

Howard (2018:2) states unequivocally that

> …neoliberalism, globalisation, and the knowledge economy taken together as ideological constructs, exert considerable shaping force on education systems…

Knowledge is the driver of economic growth, improved competitiveness, the establishment of entrepreneurialism, and the notion of greater productivity (Hirschman & Wood, 2018: Howard, 2018; Lourie, 2020). In this context, it is important to distinguish between the terms 'knowledge economy' and 'knowledge society'.

Knowledge-based economies are market-driven and perform according to market-driven ideologies (Sörlin & Vessuri, 2007). These market-driven ideologies result in a democratic deficit (Sörlin & Vessuri, 2007). A society with a democratic deficit is characterised by inequalities, authoritarianism, and unethical practices (Norris, 2011). The democratic deficit needs to be addressed for society to operate effectively in a global era (Norris, 2011; Sörlin & Vessuri, 2007). Knowledge-based economies do not acknowledge the democratic, normative, and ethical dimensions of science (Sörlin & Vessuri, 2007). The commodification of knowledge and the increase of international trade of degrees are features defining the knowledge economy (Sörlin & Vessuri, 2007). On the other hand, a knowledge society is open to change and it has methods of enriching the life of the individual and of fostering democratic gains (Sörlin & Vessuri, 2007). It

can be argued that the knowledge society underlines the principles of critical theory since it aims at strengthening democratic processes (Sörlin & Vessuri, 2007). These democratic processes are based on equality, greater participation by the oppressed, the promotion of critical consciousness, and the encouragement of debates, discussions, and public engagement in the sciences (Sörlin & Vessuri, 2007).

The knowledge economy and the knowledge society have different understandings of how the world should function (Sörlin & Vessuri, 2007). The norms of the knowledge society project the ideal or a vision of the world in which one would want to live (Sörlin & Vessuri, 2007). According to Sörlin and Vessuri (2007), the knowledge economy may result in a richer economy, but it also results in a divided society. Paradoxically, attempts to enrich the economy also leads to the exacerbation of socio-economic ills, when entrepreneurship is merely seen as an instrument for profit and businesses work in service of market forces (Cunningham & Menter, 2020; Sörlin & Vessuri, 2007). Furthermore, the knowledge economy leads to "the perception that students must acquire certain dispositions, qualities, and skills in order to participate in modern, globalised economies" (Hirschman & Wood, 2018:23). Various scholars have identified different essential skills needed to participate in global economies in the 21st century (Donovan, Green & Mason, 2014; Kaufman, 2013; Kivunja, 2014; O'Neal, Gibson & Cotton, 2017; Soulé & Warrick, 2015).

O'Neal *et al*. (2017) list the essential skills for the 21st century as critical thinking, initiative, innovation, information, and communication technology literacy. Kaufman (2013), however, argues for research, organisation, evaluation, and communication skills through technology. Students must be self-driven, digitally-agile and lifelong students, who have characteristics such as the ability to be independent thinkers, to arrive at creative solutions through applying problem-solving skills, to be lifelong researchers and to think beyond content knowledge (Chalkiadaki, 2018; Hirschman & Wood, 2018; Howard, 2018; Önür & Kozikoğlu, 2020; Van Laar, Van Deursen, Van Dijk & De Haan, 2017; Vanada, 2014). All of these skills are encapsulated in the Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21) (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011).

Numerous studies refer to the P21 as a focal starting point for identifying and implementing 21st century skills (Chalkiadaki, 2018; Hirschman & Wood, 2018; Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011; Trilling & Fadel, 2009; Vanada, 2014). The P21 identified four essential skills needed to survive in the 21st century: (a) critical thinking and problem solving, (b) creativity and innovation, (c) communication, and (d) collaboration (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011; Trilling & Fadel, 2009). These skills, which are referred to as the 4Cs, are needed to live successfully in the 21st century (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011). The 4Cs are also seen as core skills needed in the 21st century to teach subjects in a learning environment which has resources such as information, media, and technology (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011). In addition to

the skills listed above, the P21 recommends that interdisciplinary themes be used to develop the curriculum and pedagogy (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011). These interdisciplinary themes include global awareness, financial literacy, business and entrepreneurial literacy, environmental literacy, and health literacy (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011).

Many scholars wholeheartedly endorse 21st century skills, seeing them as the panacea for the world's problems, to address challenges in the workplace, and to develop good citizens (Howard, 2018). However, there is a lack of awareness of the actual drivers of education (Mehta, Creely & Henriksen, 2020). Firstly, it is important to note that all teaching and learning practices must take account of context (Mehta *et al*., 2020). For this reason, there will be different conceptualisations of 21st century education. For example, a high-income education institution will possibly envisage a 21st century classroom with the newest technological aids. In contrast a low-income education institution, limited to the traditional classroom with its desks and blackboard will have a very different 21st century classroom. The notion of the ideal 21st century education rests on the assumption that all students have equal access to resources (for example technological aids) and have no difficulty using technology (Hirschman & Wood, 2018). In the South African context, not all students and/or education institutions have the necessary resources (Du Preez & Le Grange, 2020). Consequently, there is social inequity, which widens the economic divide between those students who are technology 'smart' and those who are not (Hirschman & Wood, 2018).

Secondly, scholars focus on the development of 21st century skills, forgetting that skills cannot be taught or applied since the core knowledge is derived from a variety of disciplines (Mehta *et al*., 2020). Currently, 21st century learning lacks direction and purpose (Howard, 2018). Twenty-first century learning should focus on knowledge and skills that may be required in the future (Mehta *et al*., 2020; Winch, 2017). Various articles describe 21st century skills but not 21st century knowledge because of the tendency to think that knowledge is merely something that is information that can be recalled (Lourie, 2020). According to Lourie (2020), 21st century learning should focus on knowledge that incorporates knowing, being, and doing. Knowledge in the 21st century can be dived in two categories: *knowledge-how* (subject procedural knowledge) and *knowledge-that* (propositional or subject conceptual knowledge) (Lourie, 2020).

Thirdly, the purpose of education is workforce preparation (Howard, 2018; Larson, 2011; Lourie, 2020; Maistry, 2014; Mehta *et al*., 2020; O'Neal *et al*., 2017; Soulé & Warrick, 2015). This type of education does not make provision for the development of the whole person, mentally, emotionally, and physically (Ali, 2017; Mehta *et al*., 2020). It is important to focus on the whole person to form lifelong students, community members, and responsible citizens (Mehta *et al*., 2020). For this reason, humanising pedagogy focuses on the development of the whole person, the promotion of critical consciousness, the facilitation of liberation with critical reflection and

action, and the promotion of a human-centred world that honours inclusive principles (Freire, 1998; Freire, 2004; Mehta, *et al*., 2020).

Lastly, educators and/or scholars cannot prescribe a set of skills to survive in the 21st century because they often find that '21st century learning' is both complex and vaguely defined (Chalkiadaki, 2018; Mehta *et al*., 2020; Mirra & Garcia, 2020).

1.3 Concept clarification

For clarity sake, I have defined particular concepts that have a seminal role in the thesis and also provide the reader about my position on these concepts. These include: Business Education, business, 21st century skills vs 21st learning, curriculum, and neo-liberalism.

1.3.1 Business Education

From an international perspective, the term 'Business Education' refers to the formal teaching and learning of all aspects of the business which include, but are not limited to general management, business management, marketing, entrepreneurship, human resources, accounting, economics, operational management, and so on (Everett & Page, 2013; Goorha & Mohan, 2010). In the South African context, the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) document speaks of Economic Management Sciences (EMS) which consists of entrepreneurship, business management, financial literacy, and economics (America, 2016; Department of Basic Education, 2011; Modise, 2016). For the purposes of an international readership, the term 'Business Education' will be used in this study. This study focused on spectra of education including higher education, teacher education, school education, and vocational education. It was important to include higher education, teacher education, school education, and vocational education because reliance on school education alone could not provide the necessary foundation for Business Education for educators teaching the subject(s) in the 21st century (Clark, Schug & Harrison, 2009). For the purposes of this study, instead of referring to each type of education in the literature, findings and contributions, I have referred only to education in general. Therefore, in the context of this study, the term education includes the full spectrum of higher education, teacher education, school education and vocational education.

1.3.2 Business

What 'business' constitutes has dramatically changed over the years from being a simple element with a single financial focus on the bottom-line to being much more complex (cf. Rathbone, 2020). Contemporary understandings of business are informed by socially embedded theories [i.e. domains of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)] (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003), the inclusion of a

variety of stakeholder theories in decision-making processes (Freeman, 2002; Freeman, 2017), and a more acute awareness of ethical principles such as sustainability, environmental awareness, corporate citizenship, and social justice (Matten & Crane, 2005) and equity.

In this study, I will specifically focus on Carroll's domains of CSR that informs my understanding of business. Carroll's domains of CSR have been utilised by numberous theorists in business and gained popularity among Social Issues in Management (SIM) scholars (Carroll, 1999). Such uses of the CSR domains has made it a leading theory in the social issues in Management fields (Carroll, 1999). For Carroll (1999), social responsibility of business encompasses the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary expectations that the society has of businesses at a given space and time. In order to better understand this definition of CSR, he created a pyramid framework of CSR. The pyramid framework suggests a hierarchy of the four domains of the CSR (Carroll, 1999). The four domains of CSR include economic responsibility, legal responsibility, ethical responsibility and philanthropic/discretionary responsibility (Carroll, 1999). I will briefly discuss each of the four responsibilities. Firstly, economic responsibilities involve those activities that are intended to have direct or indirect positive impact on a business (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Direct economic actions are intended to increase sales and indirect actions to improve employee morale or the public image of the business (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). The positive impact can also be based on two criteria, namely to maximise profits and to maximise share values (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Secondly, legal responsibilities pertain to businesses' responsiveness to legal expectations mandated by society in the form of state, local, and federal jurisdictions (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz, & Carroll, 2003). Legality can also be viewed in terms of compliance, avoidance of civil litigation, and anticipation of law (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Thirdly, society expects businesses to follow ethical norms and act in an ethical way (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). These ethical behaviours and practices go beyond what is required by law (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Fourthly, philanthropic/discretionary responsibilities entail voluntary roles that businesses assume (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). For example, training programmes for the unemployed or in-house programmes to support people who lost their jobs because of COVID-19.

Many theorists made the conclusion that philanthropic responsibilities are the most valued domain as it is on the top of the pyramid. While the economic domain at the base of the pyramid is the least valued CSR domain. This is not what Carroll intended the pyramid to depict since he avers that the economic and legal domains are the most fundamental and the philanthropic responsibilities less important than the other domains (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Since the pyramid framework was misunderstood, Carroll developed an embedded three-domain model of CSR. This model comprises three responsibilities which include economic, legal and ethical

(Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). The philanthropic domain is subsumed under the ethical and economic domain (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). The reason for this placement is that it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between philanthropic and ethical activities on both a theoretical and practical level (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Furthermore, philanthropic activities might simply be based on economic interest (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Carroll avers that it is unnessary to have philanthropic activities as a domain as it is inaccurate or a misnomer to call these activities responsibilities because of their voluntary or discretionary nature (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). In this sense, philanthropic activities cannot be considered a responsibility in itself (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Philantropic actions are not the duty or social responsibility of business (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Instead they are merely desirable or beyond what duty requires (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003).

Carroll argues that none of the three CSR domains (economic, legal or ethical) in his three domain model are more important than others. The three domains are interwoven with one another to improve the understanding of the relationship between business and society as well as the relationship between ethics, law and economics. The three-domain model of CSR is illustrated in Figure 1.1.

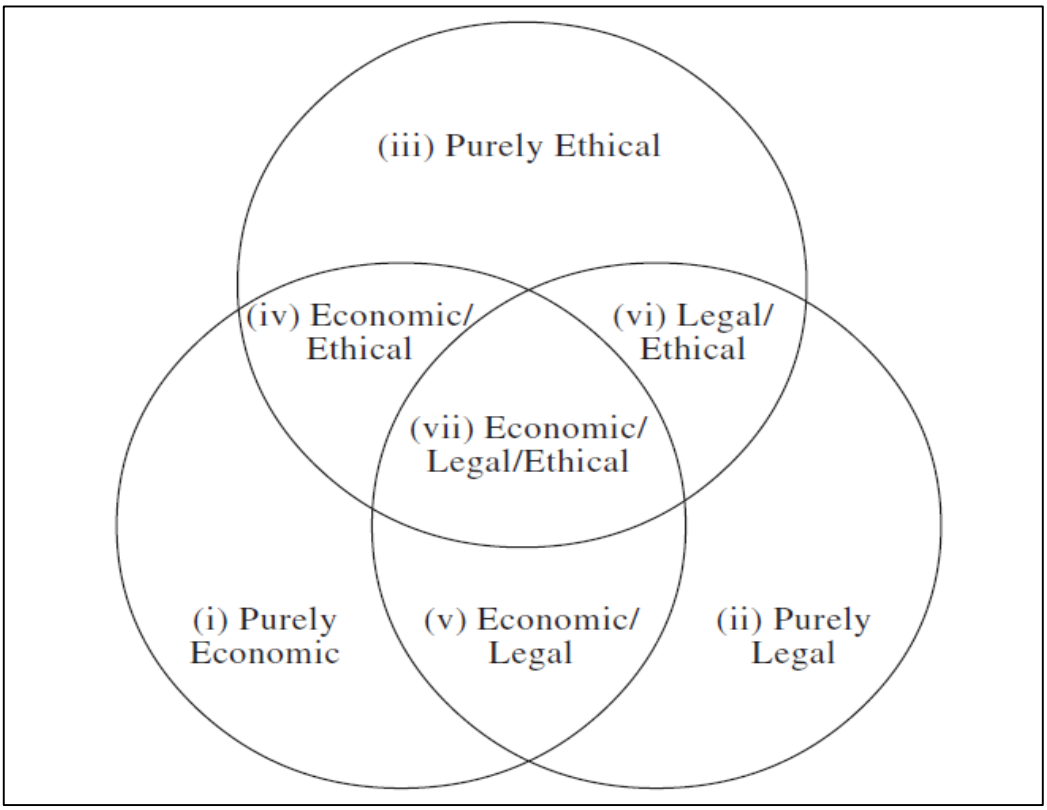

Figure 1.1 The embedded three-domain model of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) (Taken from Schwartz & Carroll, 2003:519)

The Venn diagram highlights the overlapping nature of the domains and creates seven categories within the CSR. The ideal overlap resides in the centre where economic, legal and ethical responsibilities are simultaneously fulfilled (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). This overlap illustrates business practices that go beyond instrumentalism (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). The economic, legal, and ethical responsibilities are in conversation with another for business operations to be in becoming (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Within the other six overlaps, ther is instrumentalism since a particular responsibility is given up and other responsibilities are seen as more significant. In this sense, these categories are inadequate for businesses.

The purely economic category involves activities that are purely economic in nature which have a direct and indirect economic benefit (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). These activities are also illegal or passively comply with the law, and can also be considered unethical or amoral (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). The purely legal category is based on activities that are not considered ethical and have no direct or indirect economic benefit (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Purely ethical activities have no direct or indirect economic or legal implications (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). These activities are seen as ethically based because it is based on at least one moral principle despite its lack of legal and economic impact (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). The ethical and economic category is not based on legal considerations (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003), while the economic and legal category is not considered to be ethical (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Finally, the legal and ethical category involves certain business activities which do not occur for economic benefit, but rather because they are ethically and legally required (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003).

1.3.3 21st century skills vs 21st learning

Since the 1980s, policymakers, educators, the government, and large corporations in the United States have been publishing reports on global education trends in the hope that students could be better prepared for the demands of a digital society and the knowledge economy in the 21st century (Howard, 2018; Lourie, 2020). They have also formed coalitions such as the Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21) (Howard, 2018). Since 2000, they have argued that deeper learning and higher-order thinking skills and abilities are essential for success in a digitally connected and globalised world (Howard, 2018). In the last decade, the term '21st century skills' has been replaced by '21st century learning' (Howard, 2018; Lourie, 2020). '21st century learning' is more than just a particular theory or set of agreed-upon ideas; it is a cluster of new ideas, theories, practices, and knowledge (Lourie, 2020). This cluster comprises ICT/digital technologies and the particular knowledge that is required for the knowledge economy in the 21st century (Lourie, 2020).

1.3.4 Curriculum

The concept curriculum is not easy to explain or to define. Many curriculum scholars, pedagogues, and policymakers use different lenses to explore the concept of 'curriculum' (Aoki, 1999; Grumet, 1981; Pinar, 2010; Wallin, 2010). The multiple definitions that have resulted illustrate that 'curriculum' is a dynamic social construct that is developed through human deliberation (Reddy, 2014). Similarly, Breault and Marshall (2010:179) take the view that "the multiplication of curriculum definitions is not an urgent problem to be solved", but a scholarly space to be explored.

The word 'curriculum' is derived from the Latin word *currere* which means to run the course (Le Grange, 2014a, Le Grange, 2016; Pinar, 2010). Pinar (2010) shifted its focus away from common experience to individual experiences and complex conversations since everyone is different and, therefore, the running of each course is different (Le Grange, 2016; 2019). Drawing on Deleuze and Guattari (1994), Canadian scholar Jason Wallin (2010) revised the notion of *currere* from being a mere label to a focus on the way the world is being approached. It is against this background that Wallin (2010) describes the paradoxical character of *currere* as an active conceptual force or a reactive force. An active conceptual force cannot be static, which implies it does not convey a prior image of a pedagogical life in which everyone and everything becomes something new (Le Grange, 2014a; Le Grange, 2016; Le Grange, 2019; Wallin, 2010). In Western education, the active force was territorialised into a reactive force (Le Grange, 2014a; 2019). The previous meaning of *currere* (a course to run) has changed. Le Grange (2014a:1288) argues that curriculum as a reactive force meant that "one way of doing [became] the way of doing". This view of *currere* as a reactive force has dominated education systems during the twentieth century and beyond where an instrumentalist approach shapes the purpose of education (Le Grange, 2014a).

In the South African context, the Tylerian approach to the curriculum is followed. This implies that all curriculum revisions are based on instrumentalist logic that manifests what Wallin (2010) refers to as an *a priori* image of a pedagogical life, also known as the reactive force of *currere*. The Tyler rationale was first introduced in 1949. Tyler felt that students' interests should be taken into account when selecting objectives (Le Grange, 2019; Tyler, 1949; Van den Berg, 2014). Tyler was a behavioural scientist who grounded his work on a) Bobbitt's work in which the curriculum was couched in industrial terms, b) Skinner's behaviourism, and c) Dewey's ideas of progressive education which is focused on changing students' patterns of behaviour (Le Grange & Reddy, 2017; Null, 2008; Van den Berg, 2014). His curriculum rationale was published in 1949 in the book titled *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*. To develop the curriculum, Tyler contends that four questions should be asked. These questions include a) What educational

purposes should the school seek to attain? b) What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes? c) How can these educational experiences be effectively organised? and d) How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained? (Tyler, 1949). According to Null (2008), these questions were not intended to serve as a formula but rather as a series of steps that would make curriculum development more effective. Tyler's rationale has had a profound influence on curricula, nationally and internationally (Le Grange, 2019). With regard to South Africa, Le Grange (2014b:472) writes:

> Both the NCS [National Curriculum Statement] and its extension CAPS are underpinned by a Tylerian approach to curriculum, with the latter having even heavier touch of this curriculum approach, given its more prescriptive nature as to what, when and for how long teachers must teach different topics. Even though 'outcomes' have be [sic.] excised from the national curriculum for schools, given its heavier touch CAPS might serve to further deskill teachers and limit the becomings of teachers.

Naidoo, Kruger and Beukes (1990) invoked a curriculum model to develop the national curriculum. This model is referred to as the Reseach, Development, Dissemination and Adoption (RDDA) model. An explaination of this model confirms Le Grange's (2014b) argument that the CAPS deskill teachers and also limit the becomings of teachers as encaptualed in the above quote. The RDDA model entails a top-down process to curriculum development which is framed in the Tylerian mould. The first step in the RRDA model is to do research. Research is conducted by university academics in different disciplines. Curriculum developers in education departments draw on this research to align knowledge with the needs of society, the economy and other state imperatives. These imperatives could be to redress past inequalities based on gender, race or class. State imperatives are often used as the principles on which the CAPS is based, for example social transformation, and valuing indigenous knowledge. The second step in the RDDA model is to make decisions about what knowledge from research needs to be included in developing the curriculum. The development phase includes the formulating of general aims, school subject aims and topics. In the case of CAPS, it mandates when, what and how teachers are to teach. All curriculum decisions are compiled into documents. After the curriculum documents, including ancillary documents and learning materials, are approved by the Department of Education (DBE), they are disseminated to schools by the Provincial Department of Education (PDE). In the phase, teachers, who have had no imput in the curriculum development process, are required to adopt it. The RRDA model can be illustrated as follows:

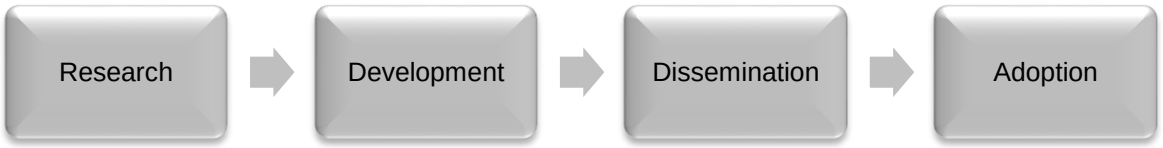

Figure 1.2 The Research, Development, Dissemination and Adoption (RDDA) model of curriculum development

The RRDA model, framed within a Tylerian mould disempowers teachers since they no longer have the power to decide what knowledge is worth learning (Le Grange & Reddy, 2017). This is ill-advised since teachers know their learners and the context in which learning takes place (Le Grange & Reddy, 2017). Le Grange (2019) further critiques the Tylerian approach by stating that each one of us is different and our experiences of the world are different. This implies that the running of our courses is different (Le Grange, 2019). In running each of our courses, we interact with other stakeholders and complicated conversations occur. These conversations are excluded from the dominant Tylerian approach (Le Grange, 2019). Tyler's rationale as a reactive force of *currere* leads to the ossification of potential movements, freezing of living, domestication of the self, the thwarting of experimentation, deterritorialisation of discipline knowledge, and the emergence of transdisciplinary trajectories (Le Grange, 2014a; 2016; 2019). Le Grange (2014b) argues that South Africa's way to escape from the Tylerian mould might be to view its viarants such as Outcomes Based Education (OBE) as potential that could carry alternative possibilities. Put differently, it is not about what OBE currently constitutes, but what it might become, how it can become different and how it can change or transform what it is and was (Le Grange, 2014). The Tylerian varients such as OBE could be imagined differently which makes practices possible for multiple becomings of pedagogical lives (Le Grange, 2014).

There are also other alternative approaches to curriculum development to be considered. One of these approaches is the participatory process of curriculum development (Le Grange & Reddy, 2017; Van den Berg, 2019). Participatory models of curriculum development were inspired by scholars such as the Brazilian Paulo Freire in his book *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, published in 1970. Participatory models of curriculum development have a grassroots orientation towards curriculum development instead of a top-down process framed by Tyler's rationale (Freire, 1970; Le Grange, 2019; Tyler, 1949). For Freire, education is a non-egoistic, de-hierarchical and inter-commnicative activity (Freire, 1970). Participatory models of curriculum development, such as Freire's emancipatory theory of curriculum development (also known as problem-posing education), involve a problem-solving method that necessitates dialogue and critical participation between teachers, community members, and students to develop a consciousness of the world

in which they find themselves (Freire, 1970; 1993). Van den Berg (2014) proposed a process to implement the emancipatory theory of Freire. This process includes a) generation of themes that represent the reality of education and the broader social context, b) a group of teachers, community members, and students can engage in a dialogue about these themes to develop materials for the curriculum, c) the curriculum materials are then circulated among the group to provoke critical thinking, and d) action takes place which realises the ideal of the participatory approach to curriculum development. Given the fact that the Tylerian approach to curriculum is the one currently used in South Africa, teachers might find opportunities at the school level to implement aspects of Freire's emancipatory theory of curriculum development (Freire, 1970; Le Grange, 2019).

1.3.5 Neo-liberalism

In the 21st century, neo-liberalism has had a profound effect on the global economy and politics (Turner, 2014). Neo-liberalism is often described as a laissez-faire stance and natural process; free markets are viewed as an instrument to deliver benefits to the society that should not be disrupted by government interventions (Friedman, 1962; Hayek, 1944; Hayek, 1948; Rodgers, 2018; Turner, 2008; Turner, 2014). This instrumentalist perspective views non-interventionism as a means of economic growth and prosperity. Friedrich August von Hayek (1899–1992), who wrote *The road to serfdom* (1944) and *Individualism and economic order* (1948), was a leading figure in neo-liberalism. His work strongly influenced the economist Milton Friedman, whose works include *Capitalism and Freedom* (1962). Von Hayek's ideas also had a major influence on the Reagan and Thatcher administration, specifically in terms of their economic policies (Navarro, 2007; Rodgers, 2018; Wilson, 2018).

1.4 Problem statement

Babbie and Mouton (2001) refer to the three worlds framework to highlight the real-world problem(s) that could exist in research. World one includes the knowledge people have acquired through experience and tradition concerning their everyday life (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Two research questions address the real-world problem in world one: 'What constitutes education in the 21st century landscape in South Africa?' and 'What does the literature reveal about the current trends in the Business Education curriculum in South Africa?' (1.5.2).

The 21st century poses unprecedented challenges and opportunities for education (Howard, 2018; Lourie, 2020). Engaging in any form of research pertaining to education in the 21st century necessitates critical engagement with the extent to which marketisation and commercialisation of education have given rise to an over-emphasis on market-driven principles (Abraham, 2018,

Chukwu & Ezepue, 2018; Hogan, Enright, Stylianou & McCuaig, 2018, Özgün, Dholakia & Atik, 2017). An understanding of these principles is vital in attempts to equip students with skills they need to navigate the world of work (Ajetomobi & Comfort, 2019; Ajuluchukwu & Osakwe, 2019; Badawi, Reyad, Khamis, Hamdan & Alsartawi, 2019; Calma & Davies, 2020; Christian, 2019; Nwosu & Amahi, 2019; Oduma, Nkem & Ndidi, 2019; Oguejiofor & Okeke-Ezeanyanwu, 2019; Orah & Umoru, 2018; Sanli, Mohammed & Aliyu, 2017; Van Laar *et al*., 2017). Arguably, the relationship between marketisation, commercialisation, and 21st century skills is at its most complex in the field of Business Education. The complicated nature of this relationship is exacerbated in neo-liberal economic ideologies (Gray, 2016). Neo-liberalist agendas foregrounding Business Education, at least in the South African context, ought to be investigated as they could create the impression that 21st century learning can cure societal ills such as high unemployment rates, poverty, inequality, undemocratic political activities, obsession with money, competitiveness, inability to generate growth momentum, and the power relations struggle (Howard, 2018; Mehta *et al.*, 2020).

Nationally and internationally, education institutions are producing human capital for the labour force to ensure growth momentum (Gray, 2016; Lourie, 2020; Maistry, 2014). Specifically, in the South African landscape, Maistry (2014) highlights that neo-liberal imperatives have infiltrated the education sector (1.2). These neo-liberal imperatives include competition, individualism, the commodification of knowledge, commercialisation of education, and marketisation of education amongst other things (Maistry, 2014). The curriculum and education system are subordinate to market forces (Gray, 2016; 1.2.3). In this sense, neo-liberal ideologies foregrounded an instrumentalist view on curriculum and education to ensure growth momentum, instead, it also led to democratic deficit, authoritarianism, unethical practices, and the worsening of the economic divide between rich and poor (1.2.1; 1.2.3).

The real-world problem in world two presents the world of science where researchers use the phenomenon in world one as an object for research (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). In the first decade that the Business Education curriculum was implemented, there was a dearth of research on the topic (Maistry, 2005). There is recent evidence that enrolments in subjects such as Accounting and Business Management have declined (Koopman, 2018; Rader & Meggison, 2007). The implication is that teacher education should focus on conducting research and presenting papers related to curriculum (Koopman, 2018; Rader & Meggison, 2007).

More recently, research in the field of Business Education has increased. One avenue of investigating the nature of Business Education in the 21st century South Africa is to explore key stakeholders' contributions to knowledge. Initially, 124 Master's and Doctoral studies were collected in the Business Education field (Addendum C; Table 1.1). None of these studies

employed a meta-study methodology (Addendum C; Addendum D), which suggested that Master's and Doctoral students might be reinventing the wheel when conducting research instead of capitalising on existing research. A meta-study of Master's and Doctoral studies was thus used to identify new insights into Business Education. The main research question used was: What intellectual projects do Master's and Doctoral students in Business Education undertake? (1.5.1).

The real-world problem in world three presents meta-sciences to develop academic disciplines (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The object of research in world two is reflected upon in world three (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). In this study, I employed critical theory to rethink the dominant theoretical gaps and contextual trends and to what extent (if any) the Business Education is aligned with the needs of the 21st century. Habermas's view on critical thinking (1.6.1) enabled me to engage in a critical dialogue with the intellectual projects of Master's and Doctoral students in Business Education in the South African context. This entailed an understanding of the different positions presented and a critical scrutiny of differences that may reveal new possibilities for the real-world. The following research questions addressed the real-world problem in world three: 'Based on the analysis of Master's and Doctoral studies conducted between 1997 and 2018, what are the theoretical gaps, contextual trends, and future directions for Business Education in South Africa?' and 'To what extent, if any, is the Business Education curriculum aligned to the needs of the 21st century in South Africa?' (1.5.2). Figure 1.3 provides a schematic presentation of the three worlds of Babbie and Mouton (2001) specifically related to this study.

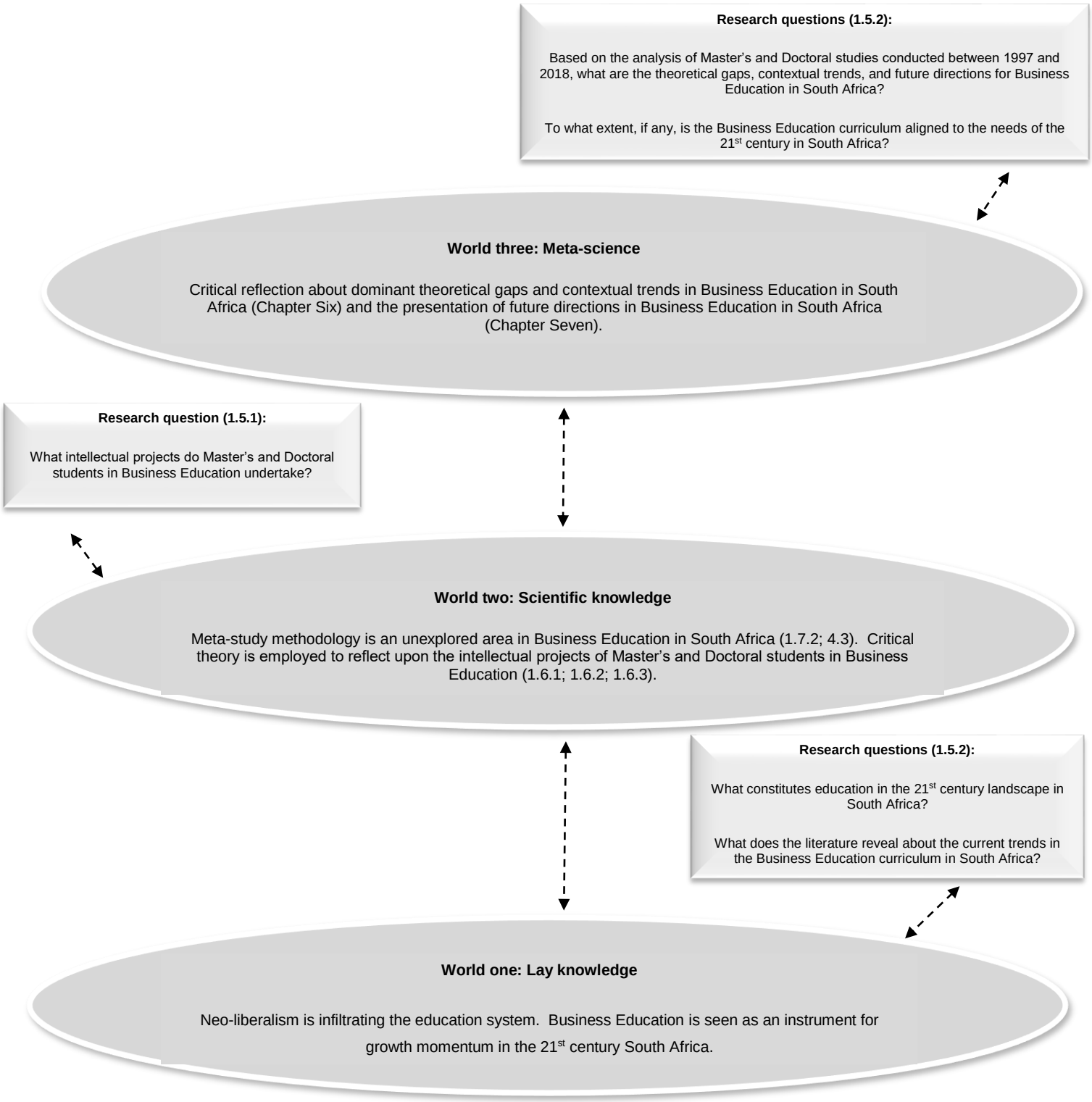

Figure 1.3 Schematic presentation of Babbie and Mouton's (2001) three worlds as related to this study

1.5 Research questions and aims

To attend to the problem statement, the following questions and aims were arrived at to enable me to navigate the course of this study.

1.5.1 Main research question

What intellectual projects do Master's and Doctoral students in Business Education undertake?

1.5.2 Secondary research questions

The study addressed the following secondary questions:

i. What constitutes education in the 21st century landscape in South Africa?

ii. What does the literature reveal about the current trends in the Business Education curriculum in South Africa?

iii. Based on the analysis of Master's and Doctoral studies conducted between 1997 and 2018, what are the theoretical gaps, contextual trends, and future directions for Business Education in South Africa?

iv. To what extent, if any, is the Business Education curriculum aligned to the needs of the 21st century in South Africa?

The main research aim and secondary research aims follow.

1.5.3 Main research aim

The main purpose of this research was to determine intellectual projects that Master's and Doctoral students in Business Education undertake.

1.5.4 Secondary research aims

The study addressed the following secondary aims:

i. To explore what constitutes education in the 21st century landscape in South Africa.

ii. To identify the literature on current trends in the Business Education curriculum in South Africa.

iii. To establish the theoretical gaps, contextual trends, and future directions for Business Education in South Africa, based on the analysis of Master's and Doctoral studies conducted between 1997 and 2018.

iv. To ascertain whether the Business Education curriculum is aligned to the needs of the 21st century in South Africa.

1.6 Philosophical perspective

The philosophical perspective of this study was critical theory. Critical theory best complemented this study since it enabled me to critically engage with my study on a theoretical and methodological level. Although critical theory can be viewed from different perspectives, it is important to first focus on a brief background to critical theory (1.6.1). After presenting a brief background to critical theory, I briefly explore the ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions that underpin critical theory in this study (1.6.2). Finally, I have elaborated on the principles of critical theory (1.6.3). Critical theory is based on several principles (Cohen *et al*., 2018; Nieuwenhuis, 2016a). Five of these directly resonate with this study.

1.6.1 A brief background to critical theory

Various theorists (Hegel, Marx, Horkheimer, and Habermas, amongst others) have contributed to the philosophical understanding of critical theory (Alexander, 1991; Blake & Masschelein, 2003; Delanty & Strydom, 2003; Kearney, 1994; Leonard, 2010; Ng, 2015). Critical theory originates from the work of Hegel and Marx (Alexander, 1991; Delanty & Strydom, 2003; Kearney, 1994). Hegel's view is expressed in *Phenomenology of Spirit* (Alexander, 1991; Kearney, 1994). In this volume, Hegel emphasises the need for a developmental sequence that is simultaneously logical, historical, and psychological (Alexander, 1991; Kearney, 1994; Ng, 2015). He argues that the source for moving beyond each stage is discovered in the experienced inadequacies (illogic, social tension, and frustration) within each state itself (Alexander, 1991). Building on Hegel's philosophy, In *Das Kapital*, Marx notes that human agency is both scientific and historical in nature (Alexander, 1991; Delanty & Strydom, 2003; Kearney, 1994; Ng, 2015). Marx concludes that capitalism is simply a phase in human development and cannot be viewed as the beginning or the end of all history (Kearney, 1994). Horkheimer, together with his associates at the Institute for Social Research in Frankfurt, has adopted a transcendent criterion of rationality towards critical theory as a basis for anti-capitalist critique (Alexander, 1991; Delanty & Strydom, 2003; Kearney, 1994). Habermas set out a way to justify critical theory's standard of immanent rationality (Alexander, 1991). Habermas is a more contemporary critical theorist who initiated what is known as the second-generation of critical theorists of the Frankfurt school (Alexander, 1991; Blake &

Masschelein, 2003). Habermas draws on the work of Hegel and Marx rather than those of Horkheimer and his associates (Alexander, 1991). He developed a theory of communicative action (Blake & Masschelein, 2003; Caterino & Hasen, 2019; Delanty & Strydom, 2003; Leonard, 2010; McNeil & Feldman, 1998; Strydom, 2011) that uses speech act theory to extend the immanent rationality of critical theory (Alexander, 1991).

I will elaborate on Habermas's perspective on critical theory since it directly resonates with the work of Freire's emancipatory theory which underpinned this meta-study (1.3.4). Both Habermas's theory of communicative action and Freire's emancipatory theory are focused on deliberation (1.3.4). This deliberation is not to reach a particular means or to simply enhance understanding concerning social phenomena, but to create a critical consciousness to bring about the transformation of such social phenomena (Alexander, 1991; Freire, 1970; Grundy, 1987; Habermas, 1984). Habermas agues that in the process of attaining mutual understanding through communicative action, one needs to invoke several presuppositions or validity claims (Alexander, 1991; Blake & Masschelein, 2003; Grundy, 1987). These claims include a) the interlocutor should express something understandably, b) the interlocutor should offer something to be comprehended, c) in the process, the interlocutor should make her/himself understandable, and d) the interlocutor should come to a mutual understanding with co-interlocutors (Grundy, 1987). The communicative intention of interlocutors is to express their views on a social phenomenon with the aim of making it possible for co-interlocutors to understand and acknowledge the validity of what was communicated (Alexander, 1991; Blake & Masschelein, 2003). The validity claims should be contested or critiqued by co-interlocutors. In communicative action, understanding can also not be conceived *a priori* (Alexander, 1991). Interlocutors and their co-interlocutors should not bring any preconceived ideals or predeterminded outcomes to the process of communicative action, whether to advance personal interest or to promote dominant hegonomies. Instead, communicative action encourages multilateral dialogue between interlocutors to move beyond instrumentalism. This is another reason why Habermas's perspective of critical theory is significant for this study since this study critiques an instrumentalist approach to education which uses a Tylerian mould (1.3.4). It is against this background that communicative action is also directly linked to the active force of *currere* (1.3.4). The active force of *currere* does not set any *a priori* images or agendas. Instead it opens alternative pathways for phenomenas to be in becoming. For Freire, predetermined agendas and *a priori* images which play a role in curriculum development are the logic behind teachers and students' failure to achieve the desired emancipatory education. To fully comprehend a holistically perspective on critical theory, one needs to familiarise oneself with the ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions that underline this theory.

1.6.2 Ontology, epistemology and methodology

The term 'ontology' comes from the Greek *on* meaning 'being' and *logos* meaning 'theory' (Delanty & Strydom, 2003). Ontology is thus the "theory of being of being" from which the theory of nature or the nature of social reality is derived (Delanty & Strydom, 2003:6). Critical theorists agree that criticism, which is subjective and constructive, distinguishes emancipation and/or liberation from oppression and critiques issues of power, competition, and individualism (Blake & Masschelein, 2003; Freire, 1993; Lather, 2006; McNeil & Feldman, 1998; Strydom, 2011). The nature and knowledge of the social reality of critical theory encourage reflection, communicative action, critical consciousness, and dialogue (Blake & Masschelein, 2003; Kearney, 1994; McNeil & Feldman, 1998). This reality should help people to critique and rethink the history or tradition which dominates knowledge (epistemology) within a society with the focus on change (Leonard, 2010). However, reality is not separate from observers that require communicative action to engange and deliberate to bring about change.

The term 'epistemology' is derived from the Greek: *episteme* meaning 'knowledge' and *logos* meaning 'theory', thus "the theory of knowledge" (Delanty & Strydom, 2003:4). Epistemology refers to a fundamental branch of philosophy that investigates the structure, methods, limits, origin, and truth of knowledge (Delanty & Strydom, 2003). Critical theory foregrounds reflective knowledge which consists of transformative and critical knowledge (Delanty & Strydom, 2003). Transformative and critical knowledge is a dialectic process to change existing oppressed structures through empowerment and emancipation (Blake & Masschelein, 2003; Delanty & Strydom, 2003; Freire, 1993; McNeil & Feldman, 1998).

The term 'methodology' comes from the Greek: *methodos* meaning "way towards or procedure for the attainment of a goal" and *logos* meaning 'theory' (Delanty & Strydom, 2003:4). Methodology is thus the "theory of the way in which knowledge is acquired" (Delanty & Strydom, 2003:4). In German, it is referred to *Wissenchaftstheorie* or *Wissenchaftslehre* which is "the theory of science" or "the philosophy of science" in English (Delanty & Strydom, 2003:4). From the late 19th century, methodology which was related to logical accounts was referred to as "the logic of science" (Delanty & Strydom, 2003:4). Later in the 20th century, science came to be understood as research, and therefore "logic of research" was used instead of methodology (Delanty & Strydom, 2003:4). Habermas's critical theory adheres to a dialogical approach involving rational evaluation of the assumptions and content of the arguments of interlocutors.

In short, my philosophical perspective was an ontology that called on me to engage in a process of rethinking, questioning critically and reflecting on the intellectual projects of Master's and Doctoral students in Business Education in the South African context. This was articulated in my

main research question (1.5.1): What intellectual projects do Master's and Doctoral students in Business Education undertake? Epistemologically, critical theory enabled me to critically rethink the dominant theoretical gaps and contextual trends that constitute Business Education. My intention was to bring about change through recommending future directions for the '21st century learning' Business Education curriculum. The methodology consisted of a meta-study of 106 Master's and Doctoral studies (4.4; Table 1.1; Addendum C). Each study presented certain arguments related to Business Education. Atlas.ti™ assisted me to bring the arguments of Master's and Doctoral students into conversation with one another (4.6, Addendum D). It is important to note that this conversation with Master's and Doctoral students' studies was not aimed at pointing out whether their arguments were right or wrong. Instead, it was to identify theoretical gaps, contextual trends and future directions for Business Education in the South African context. This was articulated in the following research question (1.5.2): Based on the analysis of Master's and Doctoral studies conducted between 1997 and 2018, what are the theoretical gaps, contextual trends, and future directions for Business Education in South Africa? I have critically engaged in a discussion with Master's and Doctoral students' arguments in my interpretation and findings chapter. In this sense, Master's and Doctoral students and I engaged in a communicative action process.

1.6.3 Principles of critical theory

Cohen *et al.* (2018) and Nieuwenhuis (2020b) describe the principles on which critical theory is based. The following five principles are relevant to this study in terms of the research questions and concomitantly the research findings. I have also elaborated on each principle on a theoretical and methodological level. Firstly, critical theory regards positivist and interpretivist paradigms as incomplete accounts of social behaviour if they fail to scrutinise the role of ideology, hierarchical power relations, and the politics of research (Cohen *et al*., 2018). On a methodological level, I have employed a qualitative research design situated in a critical theory paradigm (1.7.1). Critical theory enabled me to engage in a communicative action process (1.3.4) with Master's and Doctoral studies to understand and open up new connecetions of what Business Education constitutes in the South African context. In this process, theoretical gaps and contextual trends emerged. I critically engaged with these gaps and trends to recommend future directions Business Education should take on a theoretical level (Chapter Seven).

Secondly, critical theory critiques and reveals hidden ideological assumptions within society (Cohen *et al*., 2018; Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). These include the historical rootedness of many ideological assumptions about class, gender relations, race, intelligence, language, and ethnicity. It is significant to comprehend historical ideological assumptions; however, it is even more important to investigate alternative approaches to living in a society to empower transformation

(Cohen *et al*., 2018; Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). Theoreticaly, critical theory enabled me to reveal hidden ideologies in the South African economy and education system. It is evident that neo-liberal ideologies underpin the South African economy (1.2; 1.2.1; 1.2.2; 2.2; 2.2.1; 2.2.2; 2.2.3). These neo-liberal ideologies have infiltrated the education system (1.2.1; 1.2.2). This infiltration highlights the tension between business and education (3.3). In this sense, curriculum development is framed within a Tylerian mould (1.3.4). This Tylerian mould is inadequate as it leads to the deterritorialisation of disciplinary knowledge and the emergence of transdisciplinary trajectories amongst other things (1.3.4). Methodologicaly, Habermas's theory of communicative action (1.6.1) and Freire's emancipatory theory (1.3.4) assisted me to engage in multilateral dialogue with Master's and Doctoral studies (4.4) to unveil hidden ideologies in their theses and dissertations.

Thirdly, critical theory reveals the oppressive structures in society (Cohen *et al*., 2018; Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). On a methodological level, Master's and Doctoral students' voices are foregrounded in their research. Master and Doctoral studies are often reduced to becoming static documents in libraries and online databases that silence their intellectual contributions. These Master's and Doctoral studies generated valuable research data that assisted in determining theoretical gaps, contextual trends, and future directions in Business Education. On a theoretical level, critical theory revealed that education is moulded in a Tylerian approach (1.2; 1.2.1; 1.2.2; 2.2;2.2.1; 2.2.2; 2.2.3; 6.2; 6.3.2; 6.4.1). For Freire, this Tylerian approach is similar to the banking education model which replicates oppression (1.3.4; 3.5). The oppressors decide what knowledge is worth learning and what outcomes should be achieved. Students are merely the receptacles of knowledge. Consequently, for Freire, the relationship between teachers and students becomes one of oppressor and oppressed (Freire, 1970). Freire emphasises that this banking education model needs to change. He advises emancipatory education (1.3.4). In emancipatory education, teachers and students engage in multilateral dialogue. The oppressive subject-object relationship is therefore being replaced with one of co-subjects in praxis.

The fourth principle advocates a mind-shift from epistemological privileging certain knowledge and under-representing other knowledge (Cohen *et al*., 2018; Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). Politics and interests construct certain values and beliefs as valuable and recognised (Cohen *et al*., 2018; Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). Researchers should not allow themselves to be persuaded to deliberately focus only on certain research agendas (Cohen *et al*., 2018; Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). On a methodological level, a meta-study enabled me to capitalise on existing data to determine the theoretical gaps and contextual trends in Business Education (4.3). This enabled me to propose new avenues of research in Business Education to avoid the epistemological privileging of some knowledge and under-representing other knowledge. On a theoretical level, the Tylerian approach

which is followed in South Africa entails a top-down process of curriculum development (1.3.4). This signifies that curriculum developers decide what knowledge is worth learning (see the RRDA process in Section 1.3.4). Freire is sharply critical of Tyler's approach to curriculum development. For Freire, curriculum development and education must be an inter-communicative activity. He recommends that multilateral dialogue should occur among educators, community members, and students to make rational decisions about what should be excluded or included in curricula (1.3.4). The Master's and Doctoral students also revealed that *knowledge-how* is being over-emphasised and *knowledge-that* under-emphasised (6.3.1). Privileging *knowledge-how* and under-presenting *knowledge-that* makes Business Education abstract (6.3.1). Master's and Doctoral students encouraged the promotion of entrepreneurship education content and skills mostly to ensure economic growth (5.4.1; 5.4.2; 6.4.1). Although privileging of certain knowledge was evident, some Master's and Doctoral students had expanded their understanding of Business Education beyond instrumentalism (6.6).

By adding the fifth principle to the fourth, critical theory embraces respect for and the promotion of social justice (Cohen *et al*., 2018; Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). When mutual respect between citizens and social justice are embedded in society, it is possible to foster an ethical and democratic environment in which researchers are able to make full use of critical thought in their research (Cohen *et al*., 2018; Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). On a methodological level, Habermas's theory of communicative action (1.6.3) and Freire's emancipatory theory (1.3.4) created a democratic environment which highlighted Master's and Doctoral students' arguments in their discussion of Business Education. On a theoretical level, several Master's and Doctoral students identified numerous inequalities that exist in different spheres in the South African economy, for example, social inequalities in terms of class, race, and gender, and unequal redistribution of wealth (6.6.2).

1.7 Research design, methodology and methods

It is important to have a good planning structure (which includes research design, methodology, and methods) in place for a study to effectively be conducted and for contributions to be made. In the following paragraphs the research design, methodology, and methods for this study are described.

1.7.1 Research design

The research design is a plan that specifies the researcher's philosophical assumptions and choices regarding the selection of methodology, sampling methods, methods of data collection, and data analysis (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011; Nieuwenhuis, 2020a; Punch, 2006). A research

design is a blueprint that indicates which theories and methods will be used in a particular study (Hartell & Bosman, 2016). This study's research design is illustrated in Figure 1.4.

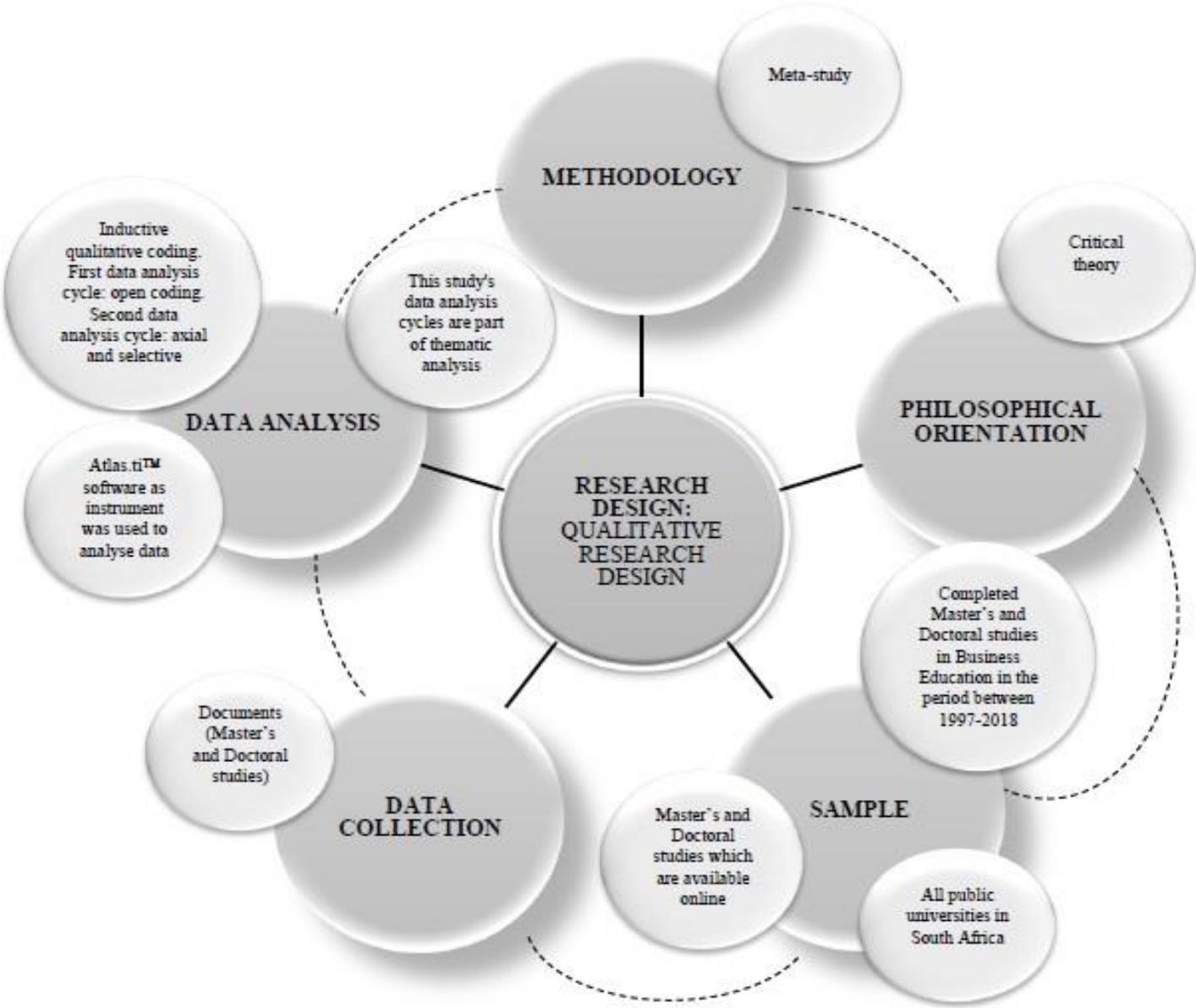

Figure 1.4 Research design

1.7.2 Methodology

This study employed qualitative research. Qualitative research focuses on gathering rich, meaningful, descriptive data and involves an in-depth investigation of a certain phenomenon (Engelbrecht, 2016). It also involves an interpretative process which is used to study and

transform the world (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Qualitative research enabled me to gather rich data and do an inductive qualitative analysis. Documents as a source of data were employed to address the research questions. Thus, qualitative research assisted me to gain a more nuanced understanding of what intellectual projects, Master's and Doctoral students undertook in Business Education.

A meta-study design was employed for this study. Different meta-study designs include meta-analysis, meta-sociology, meta-ethnography, meta-synthesis and meta-studies (Du Preez & Simmonds, 2014). This study employed a meta-study (also see Section 4.3). Meta-studies have increasingly been used in the Social Sciences since the 1970s (Card, 2012). The rise of the knowledge economy created a need for research to be synthesised less relatively and for more trustworthy generalisations to be made (Pope, Mays & Popay, 2007). Researchers often engage in reinventing certain research foci instead of capitalising on existing research (Paterson, Thorne, Canam & Jillings, 2001). Education research has recently acknowledged the value of meta-study designs. Most high-ranking academic journals focus on publishing meta-study research (Suri, 2018). These academic journals include *Educational Research Review*, *Research Synthesis Methods*, *Review of Education* and *Australian Education Review* (Suri, 2018).

A meta-study involves the analysis of existing studies to make meaning of a specific phenomenon (Paterson *et al*., 2001). Paterson *et al.* (2001) conceptualise meta-studies as a research approach in which theory and methods of qualitative research are analysed to form new insights or new methods of thinking about a phenomenon. Meta-studies are dynamic and iterative and therefore require tailored methods and approaches based on review questions posed (Du Preez & Simmonds, 2014; Du Preez, Ramrathan, Le Grange, 2018; Pope *et al*., 2007; Simmonds & Du Preez, 2014). The review questions emanated from the analysed pilot study and are therefore not predetermined propositions or hypotheses (Pope *et al*., 2007).

Paterson *et al.* (2001) and Pope *et al*. (2007) highlight important questions as a starting point for designing and conducting a meta-study. These questions include: What is the purpose of a meta-study? (To contribute to knowledge development in a certain field or discipline? To contribute to policy decision-making processes? To synthesis findings or determine current trends and directions in a certain cluster of studies?) What is anticipated while conducting the meta-study?

This meta-study's purpose is to contribute to knowledge in the Business Education field and to determine current research trends and future directions in Business Education. I was not interested in aggregating the findings of the theses and dissertations but rather in integrating the findings. I interpreted the recommendations, conclusions, and theoretical contributions of the theses and dissertations in the context of the review questions (4.9).

A meta-study design has interpretative undertones (Jansen, 2016). Thus, meta-studies seek to make meaning of a collection of works (Jansen, 2016). My intentions exceeded what interpretivism can offer. I was concerned with determining the theoretical gaps and contextual trends in the Business Education field with the intent to bring upon change in the Business Education curriculum through suggesting some future directions for research in this field. In what follows, the philosophical orientation underpinning this meta-study will be discussed.

1.7.3 Sampling strategy

Purposive sampling can be described as a process of "hand pick[ing] the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgement of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought" (Cohen *et al*., 2018:218). I employed purposive sampling *before* data collection (4.4). More specifically theory or concept purposive sampling best complemented this study. This enabled me to select my sample based on certain criteria or characteristics which are important to address the research questions and problem statement of this study (Babbie & Mouton, 1998).

Theses and dissertations at faculties of Economic and Management Sciences and Education as well as faculties where technology degrees relating to Business Education, were selected. These faculties were chosen because they were sources of rich data in the field of Business Education that could be used to address the research questions. The criterion for the selection of the Master's and Doctoral studies was a title relating to education. This study focused on theses and dissertations from 1997, which is when Business Education became a priority for the educational system. This included the full spectrum of education, i.e. higher education, teacher education, school education, and vocational education. This was because relying on school education alone would not provide the necessary foundation for Business Education for today's 21st century South African citizens (Clark *et al.,* 2009). Studies written in Afrikaans were excluded to ensure language consistency of data. Theses and dissertations which were not electronically available were also excluded from the accessible population size. Various online databases (NEXUS, EDT, SEALS, and SABINET) were used to collect Master's and Doctoral studies of all public universities in South-Africa where Master's and Doctoral students had conducted research in the field of Business Education. A pilot study was conducted to examine the relevance and suitability of the data (1.8). A detailed breakdown of the sample of this study is given in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Breakdown of the sample

Sample breakdown	Total of studies
Initial collection of Master's and Doctoral studies based on titles related to education	124
Afrikaans studies excluded because of language consistency	6
Total of sample before pilot study was conducted (86 Master's studie's and 32 Doctoral studies)	118
Total sample for conducting the pilot study (10% of the sample. This include 9 Master's studies and 3 Doctoral studies)	12
Total sample for actual data which were analysed for interpretations and findings	106

1.7.4 Method of data collection

Document collection focuses on all written communication on a particular phenomenon (Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). Written documents may include published and unpublished documents such as letters, reports, electronic mail, journals, newspaper reports, and so forth (Creswell, 2014; Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). A distinction must be drawn between primary and secondary document collection. Primary data refers to data that are unpublished but they may also have been published in the form of a letter in a newspaper or minutes of a meeting (Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). This is usually the original source and forms part of data analysis and data collection. Secondary documents refer to any material, for example, books and articles based on previously published work (Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). The primary documents used were completed Master's and Doctoral studies (unpublished works) between 1997 and 2018 (4.5). As already said, 1997 was the year when Business Education became a priority for the educational system. The sample consisted of theses and dissertations successfully completed before the end of 2018 since I had commenced my studies in 2017 and needed to start the data analysis in 2019 to successfully complete my study. The advantages of using documents are that they can be accessed at any time and they constitute written evidence which saves time and the expense of transcribing (Creswell, 2014). Creswell (2014) points out that documents represent data that have already received attention in the research field. The documents allowed me to address the research questions effectively to identify the trends and directions in the Business Education field.

Documents as a method of data collection can be challenging. Master's and Doctoral studies that are currently being done cannot be included in the sample as the information is not yet publicly available and these studies do not yet have definitive findings. Master's and Doctoral studies in Business Education had to be available in electronic format to meet the requirements of Atlas.ti™.

1.7.5 Method of data analysis

I made use of inductive qualitative coding through Atlas.ti™ software. Inductive analysis is defined by Creswell (2014:186) as "working back and forth between the themes and the database until the researchers have established a comprehensive set of themes". This data analysis process consisted of two data analysis cycles. The first data analysis cycle focused on open coding. Open coding enabled me to start an initial form of coding by entering a coding system (4.6). The second data analysis cycle consisted of axial and selective coding. Axial coding aimed at creating semantic relations between data, which provided rich meaning to the interpretation of the research process (4.6). While selective coding enabled me to identify the meta-trends that formed part of my findings (4.6). Open, axial, and selective coding can be classified as inductive methods within a qualitative research design. The process of open, axial, and selective coding forms part of thematic analysis (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Feza, 2015).

Thematic analysis is used to code qualitative information by making use of explicit codes (4.6) (Boyatzis, 1998; Feza, 2015). These explicit codes consist of a list of themes, indicators, or a model with themes (Boyatzis, 1998; Guest, MacQueen & Namey, 2012). Vaismoradi, Turunen and Bondas (2013) define thematic analysis as a method of identifying, analysing and reporting themes. A theme can be identified from manifest text (direct observable information) or on a latent level (underlying the phenomenon) (Boyatzis, 1998). The thematic analysis presents a procedure for identifying themes in a manner that is credible and transparent (Guest *et al.,* 2012). The process involves identifying codes, categories, and themes through reading and re-reading the data (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Feza, 2015).

To structure the data analysis process of this study, I made use of Creswell and Poth's (2018) data analysis spiral. The data analysis spiral is used for qualitative research and presents analytic circles rather than providing a linear depiction (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The data analysis spiral helps to structure a fixed course of action while working on Atlas.ti™. The data analysis spiral is illustrated by Creswell and Poth (2018) as follows:

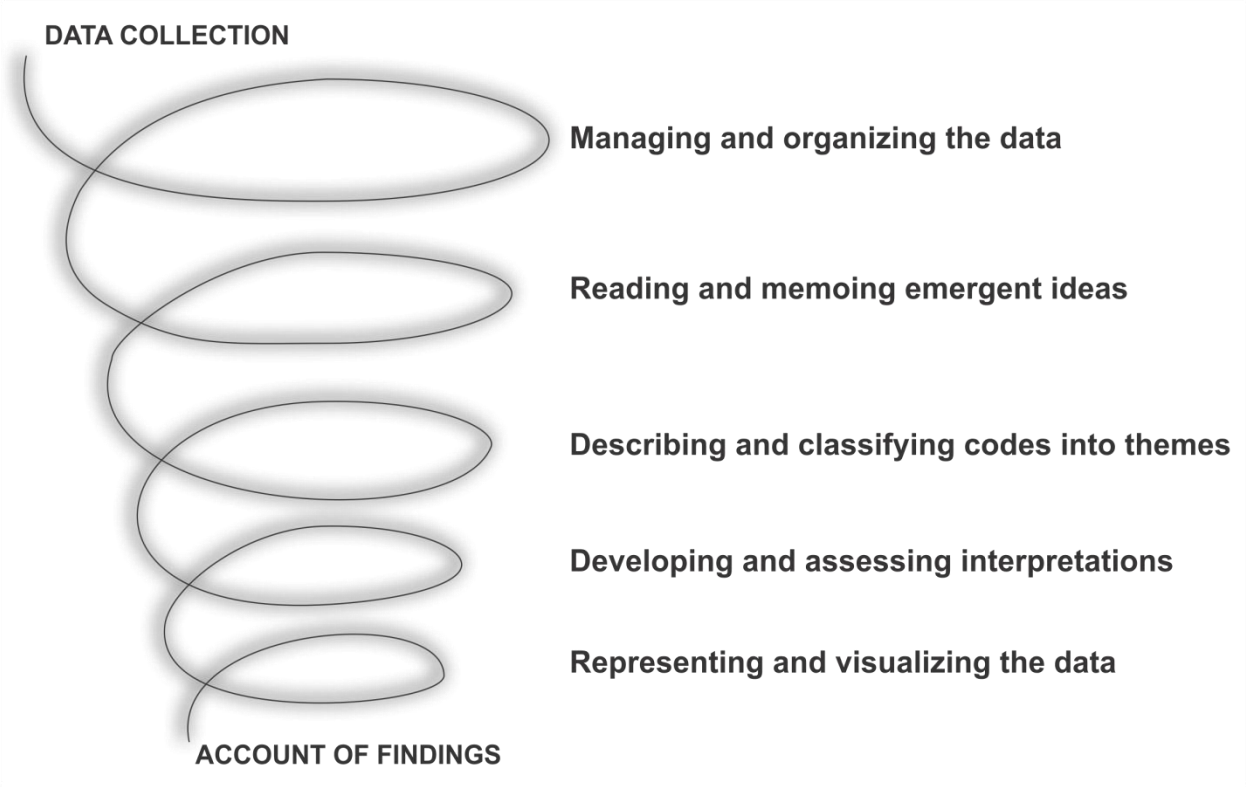

Figure 1.5 The data analysis spiral (Taken from Creswell & Poth, 2018:186)

I have used Creswell and Poth's (2018:187) summary of the data analysis spiral activities, strategies, and outcomes (see Table 1.2). In this summary, a clear structure is presented to do qualitative analysis through Atlas.ti™. I have added a column to indicate the course my data analysis took.

Table 1.2 The data analysis spiral activities, strategies, and outcomes

Data analysis spiral activities	Analytic strategies	Analytic outcomes	Structure of the data analysis of this study
Managing and organising the data.	Preparing files and units. Ensuring ongoing secure storage of files. Selecting mode of analysis.	File naming system and organizing database of files and units of text, images and recordings. Creation of long-term file storage plan. Use of software, by hand or hybrid.	Atlas.ti™ software as an analysis tool was used. The researchers name and year were used for file naming. Long-term storage is made after working with the data by saving a project-based file from Atlas.ti™.
Reading and memoing emergent ideas.	Taking notes while reading. Sketching reflective thinking. Summarizing field notes.	Written memos leading to code development, reflections over time. And/or summaries across files or questions or project.	Inductive coding was employed for both the pilot study and the actual data-analysis process. The inductive coding consisted of open, axial and selective coding.
Describing and classifying codes into themes.	Working with words Identifying codes Applying codes Reproducing codes to themes	Naming of initial codes. List of code categories and descriptions. Assign the codes to units of text, images, and recordings. Finalized codebook.	The codes were linked to categories to establish meta-trends.
Developing and accessing interpretations.	Relating categories/themes/families. Relating categories/themes/families to analytic framework in literature.	Contextual understandings and diagrams. Theories and propositions.	Networks were created on Atlas.ti™ to demonstrate the semantic relationship between the meta-trends.
Representation and visualizing the data.	Creating a point of view. Displaying and reporting the data.	Matrix, trees, and models Account of the findings.	Reporting the data.

1.8 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted to examine the relevance and suitability of the data (4.9). The pilot study process started with listing all the Master's and Doctoral studies I had collected on an Excel spreadsheet. The author's surname and initials, year of submission, type of degree, format of the degree, the title of the study and the educational institution were listed in the spreadsheet. Firstly, the data were organised according to the year of publication, thus from 1997 to 2018. Secondly, the Master's and Doctoral studies were separated into two different groups according to the degree. Every tenth study was randomly selected to form part of the pilot study. The pilot study consisted of a sample of ten per cent of the total of 118 Master's and Doctoral studies. A total of nine Master's studies and three Doctoral studies were used for the pilot study. The studies that formed part of the pilot study can be viewed in Addendum C. The majority of the sample consisted of Master's studies (see Table 1.1) and, therefore, more Master's studies than Doctoral studies were included in the pilot study. The study's core motives for employing a pilot study were as follows:

i. To determine whether the Master's and Doctoral studies should be analysed separately as the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) have different outcomes;

ii. To arrive at the review questions to be used for data analysis purposes;

iii. To establish initial codes and to determine inclusion and exclusion criteria;

vi. To determine whether the data are relevant to the research questions; and

v. To ensure the trustworthiness and validity of the data analysis process.

1.9 Trustworthiness and validity

Nieuwenhuis (2020c:143) emphasises the importance of trustworthiness in qualitative research in his statement that "trustworthiness is the acid test of your data analysis, findings and conclusions". To ensure trustworthiness, different components of trustworthiness should be taken into account. The following components of trustworthiness apply to this study, namely: credibility, dependability, transferability, triangulation, and methodological verification. These components are discussed in more depth in 4.7.1.

According to Creswell and Poth (2018), validity can be applied to both qualitative and quantitative studies depending on the researcher's lens. The following components of validity apply to this study: investigator triangulation, uncovering of any disconfirming evidence, classifying codes and

categories (through a pilot study) for further data analysis purposes, and disclosing any bias, experiences, and values. Further information on validity is provided in 4.7.2.

1.10 Ethical considerations

Research ethics are an important consideration when planning and conducting research (Flick, 2009). The concept of *ethics* is derived from the Greek word *ethos* which means the disposition of one's character (Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole, 2013). Understanding the principles of research ethics helps ethical scholars to avoid research abuses (Bless *et al.,* 2013). A code of ethics involves respecting the rights of participants as well as acting with integrity (Denscombe, 2010). The Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education (EduREC) reviewed the study and gave permission for it to be done. The ethics number of this study is NWU-01603-19-A2. See Addendum B for the letter of ethical approval from EduREC. Principles of research ethics were applied in each step of the research process. Authenticity, credibility, and meaning were prioritised (4.8.1). The principles of confidentiality and anonymity were not applicable to this study since Master's and Doctoral theses and dissertations are in the public domain. Ethics related to data analysis (4.8.2) and ethics in reporting and dissemination were honoured (4.8.3).

1.11 Summary

This chapter gave an overview of this study by presenting the blueprint of how this study was conducted. An outline of the remaining chapters is given below. All the subsequent chapters will contribute to the research questions and research aims as explained in Section 1.5. The review of the literature is explored in chapters two and three.

CHAPTER TWO: South African education landscapes in the 21st century

This chapter addresses the research question: What constitutes education in the 21st century landscape in South Africa? (1.5.2). This chapter starts by discussing neo-liberalism and its economic manifestation in the South African educational context (2.2) in terms of the historical background of the South African economy (2.2.1), massification, marketisation, and commercialisation of education (2.2.2) and a critique of underlying dimensions of neo-liberalism that contradict the social realities of critical theory (2.2.3). Next it unpacks '21st century learning' in terms of 21st century ICT/digital technologies and 21st century knowledge (2.3.1 & 2.3.2). Finally, it presents a critique of the Fourth Industrial Revolution in the South African context (2.3.3).

CHAPTER THREE: The Business Education curriculum

This chapter addresses the research question: What does the literature reveal about the current trends in the Business Education curriculum in South Africa? (1.5.2). In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of scholarship, but much more research needs to be done in Business Education, current trends of technology, and business practices. This chapter highlights national and international historical moments which are important to take note of when designing and developing Business Education curricula (3.2). The tensions between business and the education are unpacked to reveal inherent contradictions in Business Education (3.3). A discussion of Business Education trends follows (3.4). Finally, a critique of neo-liberal instrumental agendas in Business Education is presented (3.5).

CHAPTER FOUR: Research design and processes

A qualitative research design with a critical theory philosophical orientation made it possible to address the research questions and research problem of this study effectively (4.2) using a meta-study methodology (4.3). Each phase in the meta-study is discussed (4.3.1–4.3.4) and then schematically depicted in Figure 4.1. Theorical or conceptual purposive sampling enabled me to handpick the sample based on particular criteria (4.4). The sample consisted of 118 Master's and Doctoral studies (4.4; Table 1.1; Addendum C). To explore the effectiveness of the data collection and data analysis, a pilot study was conducted (4.9). This study used of Atlas.ti™ to analyse the data (4.6). Thematic analysis was applied (4.6); a process of open, axial, and selective coding was used (4.6). Finally, trustworthiness (4.7.1), validity (4.7.2), and ethical considerations (4.8) applicable to this study are discussed.

CHAPTER FIVE: Presentation of meta-trends

This chapter presented the data generated by this study and addresses the following research question: What intellectual projects do Master's and Doctoral students in Business Education undertake? Reference is made to the data register in Addendum C and the Atlas.ti™ project in Addendum D. The data register lists the relevant information on the theses and dissertations: surname and initials of student, year of submission, whether is was a Master's or a Doctoral study, the format of the degree (e.g., thesis or dissertation), institution at which the degree was obtained and the title of the study. The Atlas.ti™ project can be imported into any Atlas.ti™ 8 or 9 software to view the studies in PDF-format. The chapter highlights seven meta-trends that emerged from the data. There is also an in-depth discussion of each meta-trend.

CHAPTER SIX: Interpretation and findings

This chapter addressed the research question: What are the theoretical gaps, contextual trends, and future directions for Business Education in South Africa based on the analysis of Master's and Doctoral studies that were completed between 1997 and 2018? (1.5.2). A meta-semantic relationship network is presented to depict the contextual trends that emerged from the meta-design. Theoretical gaps and future directions within the contextual trends are identified.

CHAPTER SEVEN: Conclusion and future directions

This chapter addresses the research question: To what extent, if any, is the Business Education curriculum aligned to the needs of the 21st century in South Africa? The theoretical and contextual contributions are discussed (7.2). Next theoretical gaps in Master's and Doctoral studies are identified (7.3) and evidence-based recommendations are suggested for further research (7.4). Finally, the limitations of this study are identified (7.5).

CHAPTER TWO
SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION LANDSCAPES IN THE 21ST CENTURY

"…we have no idea how the world and the job market will look in 2050, we don't really know what particular skills people will need."

(Harari, 2018:241)

2.1 Introduction

In the book, *21 lessons for the 21st century*, Harari (2018) wrote that nobody knows how the 21st century will unfold. According to Harari (2018), most people assume that technological advancements will lead to equality and better global networks. However, the Fourth Industrial Revolution might lead to mass unemployment and inequality of education between classes, genders, and races. Harari (2018) contends that the 21st century might lead to greater inequalities in society than ever before. The only certainty of the 21st century seems to be *change* (Harari, 2018). In similar vein, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills (2011) asserts that the entire world needs to focus on particular skills and respond to the needs and challenges of this century (1.2.3). Harari (2018) notes that educators should not only focus on a set of prescribed skills for the 21st century, but also on the development of the ability a) to handle change, b) to maintain a mental balance in an unfamiliar situation, and c) to use general life skills.

Reimers and Chung (2016) agree with Harari (2018) in that they believe the 21st century confronts us with volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity. Although they see education as pivotal for getting and staying ahead in life, Reimers and Chung (2016:12) sketch possible challenges education might encounter in the 21st century:

> teacher education programs and education leadership preparation programs in many of the world's developed and emerging economics [sic.] are not only based on theories of the past, but are delivered in outmoded ways such as rote classroom instruction. The other is that we lack a unified theory of how the various twenty-first-century competencies relate to one another to inform the design of curriculum and pedagogy to promote their development.

Since education is not immune to the turbulence of rapid transformation (Lategan, 2009; Reimers & Chung, 2016) it is important to elaborate on the possible education landscapes in the 21st century in South Africa.

This chapter explores neo-liberalism and its economic manifestation in the South African educational context. This chapter also addresses the research question: What constitutes education in the 21st century landscape in South Africa? (1.5.2).

2.2 Neo-liberalism and its economic manifestation in the South African educational context

South Africa finds itself in the socio-economic context, where the truth of the expression that the 'poor are getting poorer, and the rich is getting richer' is irreists because the economic divide between the poor and the rich is increasing. Unemployment rates remain high and could be the main reason for the poverty problem in South Africa (1.2.1) (Feinstein, 2005; Freund, 2019, Statistics South Africa, 2020b; Stoddard, 2020; Van der Merwe, 2020). Unemployment and poverty also put many at a serious disadvantage, particularly where health and education are concerned (Freund, 2019; Shapiro & Tebeau, 2011).

Against this background, the South African economy is plagued with low economic growth and development (Feinstein, 2005; Freund, 2019; Terreblanche, 2002). The current economy is characterised by a neo-liberalist economic ideology (1.2.1). Many scholars argue that a neo-liberalist economic ideology had made education an instrument for economic performance (1.2.1). This instrumentalist market-driven education agenda has transformed educational institutions into academic capitalised market-place enterprises where a degree is viewed as a valuable commodity that makes a positive contribution to economic market forces (Friedman, 1970). Massification, marketisation, and commercialisation of education are taking place on a global scale, in service of market-driven policies that are informed by neo-liberalist ideologies. In the sections to follow, I discuss the historical background of the South African economy (2.2.1); massification, marketisation, and commercialisation of education (2.2.2); and critique neo-liberalist economic ideology in education (2.2.3).

2.2.1 Historical background to the South African economy

In the 1970s, the South African economy was dominated by a racist political agenda that privileged the minority white population (Feinstein, 2005; Matola, Fomunyam, Sibusiso & Govender, 2019; Terreblanche, 2002). In 1994, a democratic capitalist economy was introduced (Feinstein, 2005; Freund, 2019; Terreblanche, 2002). However, the country has continued to face social, economic and political challenges. This is a result of the social legacy of apartheid that failed to give all citizens an equal opportunity to become participants in the market economy (Feinstein, 2005; Mohale, 2020; Matola *et al*., 2019; Mosala *et al*., 2017; Terreblanche, 2002). This legacy includes major socio-economic problems such as unemployment, poverty, inequality,

and the lack of competitive capacity (Feinstein, 2005; Mackett, 2020; Mosala *et al*., 2017; Shapiro & Tebeau, 2011; Terreblanche, 2002; Van der Merwe, 2020).

The democratic government has implemented various initiatives and policies to redress unemployment, poverty and inequality, but not all of them have been effective (Freund, 2019; Mosala *et al.*, 2017; Terreblanche, 2002). The reason for this is that the government has been constrained by global partnerships, economic crises, and the legacy of apartheid (Terreblanche, 2002; Vally, 2020). In broad terms, when it gained power, the ANC government had to choose between two approaches to economic transformation. First, the nationalisation of economic activities. This is based on the assumption that political control will automatically translate into economic power for the population previously excluded from full participation in the economy (Mosala *et al*., 2017). This implies that the nationalisation of economic activities would benefit the poor and address economic inequality in an inclusive economy that would redress past injustices (Bieber, 2018; Born, Müller, Schularick & Sedláek, 2019; Holzer, 2019; Westheimer, 2019). The rationale for this view is that nationalist political actors value and protect national unity and prioritise national interest at any cost (Bieber, 2018; Holzer, 2019). The second option is the promotion of macro-economic development policies that could address questions related to employment, income distribution, production, and money in circulation levels of the economy to ensure economic growth (Mosala *et al*., 2017). After 1994, the government adopted a process of economic liberalisation in which a macro-economic philosophy was prioritised (Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016; Mosala *et al*., 2017). The purpose of the macro-economic philosophy was to stabilise and grow the economy by addressing unemployment, an immense contributor to poverty and inequalities in South Africa (Mosala *et al.*, 2017). The role of the corporate sector and globalised free-market economics was accentuated (Kgatle, 2020; Terreblanche, 2002). This meant that corporates and individuals could invest capital across geographical locations and participate in the globalised market (Terreblanche, 2002). By opting for this approach, the government bound itself to a neo-liberal orthodoxy (Kgatle, 2020; Mosala *et al*., 2017) to reduce high levels of unemployment, alleviate poverty, and address inequalities. However, as Vally and Motala (2017) point out, a core capitalist economy represents secular stagnation with little or no economic growth, rising unemployment rates, and low productive capacities.

Part of the macro-economic philosophy of the ANC government provided the impetus behind the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (Bikam, 2016; Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016; Ndedi & Kok, 2017; Mohale, 2020; Vorster, 2019). The RDP White Paper advocated a Government of National Unity (GNU) to commit to fiscal and monetary discipline while omitting any reference to nationalisation (Kgatle, 2020; Mosala *et al*., 2017). This document prioritised the creation of employment via economic growth, alleviation of poverty, addressing unequal

developments in the country, development of the capacity of all citizens, increasing manufacturing exports and democratising the society and state (Bikam, 2016; Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016; Mohale, 2020; Mosala *et al*., 2017; Ndedi & Kok, 2017; Sutherland, 2020). The RDP was successful in areas of social security where the government established a welfare system (Bikam, 2016).

As a result of inadequate economic growth to finance the RDP and lack of good policy coordination, the government abandoned the RDP after two years (Mohale, 2020; Mosala *et al*., 2017). In 1996, they adopted another economic policy referred to as the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) strategy to rebuild the economy (Bikam, 2016; Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016; Mohale, 2020; Ndedi & Kok, 2017; Pikoko & Phiri, 2019; Vorster, 2019). GEAR focused on aspects such as privatisation, lowering inflation, a more flexible labour market, tariff reductions, and liberalising capital flows (Bikam, 2016; Mohale, 2020; Mosala *et al*., 2017; Ndedi & Kok, 2017; Ngqulunga, 2019). In short, it embraced neo-liberal objectives. GEAR, which had similar goals to the RDP, was not successful in reducing high unemployment levels by 2005 (Bikam, 2016; Mosala *et al*., 2017; Ngqulunga, 2019). This led to the implementation of the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA), which focused on alleviating poverty by 2010 and reducing unemployment by half by 2014 from the level in 2004 (Bikam, 2016; Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016; Kgatle, 2020; Mosala *et al*., 2017; Ndedi & Kok, 2017; Pikoko & Phiri, 2019). Despite the implementation of this policy, poverty, and unemployment remained at unacceptably high levels.

The government introduced the New Growth Path (NGP), which replaced ASGISA (Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016; Mosala *et al*., 2017). The NGP also focused on addressing unemployment, poverty, and inequalities through accelerating economic growth (Mosala *et al.*, 2017). In 2012–2013, the National Development Plan (NDP) built upon the goals of the NGP with a specific focus on creating 11 million jobs by 2030 and attempting to have a corruption-free society (Bikam, 2016; Ferreira & Rossouw, 2016; Mosala *et al.*, 2017; Pikoko & Phiri, 2019). Notwithstanding these macro-economic policies, South Africa's socio-economic problems remain (Waghid, 2019). Unemployment, poverty, inequalities, commodity prices linked to market forces, corruption, the 2008 financial crisis and currently the COVID-19 pandemic are economic challenges that are exacerbating the problems facing the South African economy (Burger, 2020; Du Toit, 2020; Gcoyi, 2020; Khobai *et al*., 2019; Majozi, 2020; Makoni, 2020; Malope, 2019; Mantzaris, 2019; Ncanywa & Masoga, 2018; Omarjee, 2020; Sunter, 2018; Van der Merwe, 2020; Walters & Vorster, 2019).

South Africa's government also focused on social grants as a method of addressing unemployment, poverty, and inequality (Heppell & Rathbone, 2020; Mackett, 2020). The purpose of social grants is to support vulnerable groups with a low socio-economic position (Mackett,

2020). The social grant system has a significant influence on the South African economy since many grants are paid out, and these grants represent a massive social investment (Heppell & Rathbone, 2020). Therefore, there are aspects of welfare economics and social democratic economics that resonate with many European economies, e.g., Sweden (Heppell & Rathbone, 2020). This highlights the diverse influences on the South African economy (Heppell & Rathbone, 2020). However, sustainable economic alternatives are necessary that require a focus on citizens in need, and opportunities to develop skills and to contribute to a burgeoning South African economy (Heppell & Rathbone, 2020). The problem is that the social grant system creates an economy of dependency (Heppell & Rathbone, 2020). This economy of dependency is characterised by the debt between the governing party and the beneficiaries of the social grant system (Heppell & Rathbone, 2020). It does not contribute to the stabilisation and growth of the economy, but instead widens the inequality gap (Heppell & Rathbone, 2020). In similar vein, Mackett (2020) argues that the high levels of unemployment threaten the effectiveness and sustainability of the South African social grant system because of the strain that is placed on tax revenues (Mackett, 2020). Often those who receive grants support the members of the household who are unemployed (Mackett, 2020). Theoretically, these unemployed household members should be among the employed who earn an income and contribute to the tax base and thus help to finance the social grant system (Mackett, 2020). As a result of this, the grant system is not able to mitigate poverty.

Paradoxically, the government-initiated strategic initiatives support the interests of capitalism, but at the same time they have strengthened trade unionism and populist politics that focus on economic justice (Terreblanche, 2002; Vally, 2020). These strategic initiatives have led to systemic exclusion and neglect (Shapiro & Tebeau, 2011; Terreblanche, 2002). The ANC's only way of delivering the promised outcomes of strategic planning, rooted in the macro-economic policies, is to achieve high economic growth (Terreblanche, 2002). At present, South Africa has a dual economy with unequal power relations, unequal income distribution, and uneven socio-economic developments (Statistics South Africa, 2020b). This means that a higher rate of economic growth is unlikely to be achieved in a short period (Feinstein, 2005; Ncanywa & Masoga, 2018; Terreblanche, 2002; Van der Merwe, 2020). Terreblanche (2002:247) highlights the difficulty of increasing economic growth in his statement that "[t]he lack of skilled and professional labour – including imaginative entrepreneurship – imposes even greater constrains on economic growth than the lack of capital". It, therefore, seems vital for South Africa to invest in developing entrepreneurial initiatives since not even increased spending on the education budget could help to increase economic growth (Terreblanche, 2002). Entrepreneurial initiatives also reflect neo-liberal objectives. These objectives have infiltrated the education system in

different ways, evident in the educationomics in the South African context (1.2.1). These different ways include the massification, marketisation, and commercialisation of education.

2.2.2 Massification, marketisation, and commercialisation of education

The neo-liberalist economic ideology has influenced the functioning of both schools and higher education institutions in South Africa. Le Grange (2009:106) mentions the impact of the neo-liberalist economic ideology on specifically universities by referring to the "rise of the neo-liberal university". A neo-liberal school or university illustrates the shift from academic labour to an industrial economy (Le Grange, 2009). An education system driven by a neo-liberalist economic ideology can be unpacked using the notions of massification, marketisation, and commercialisation of education (Mulya, 2018). Massification refers to the exponential increase in the number of students that have access to public education. As a result of this exponential increase, there has been a need to streamline education hence the marketisation of education. The more the market principles have been applied in the education system, the more the education system has become commercialised.

2.2.2.1 Massification of education

Education in South Africa has experienced several well-documented changes since the democratic transition in 1994 (Breetzke & Hedding, 2019). One of these changes is the massification of education (Breetzke & Hedding, 2019). The concept 'massification' is used to refer to the dramatically increased student enrolments in a higher education system (Adetiba, 2019; Breetzke & Hedding, 2019; Kipchumba, 2019; Mohamedbhai, 2014). Blue-collar workers whose children were previously educated by parents at home have now obtained access to public education (Frankema & Waijenburg, 2019; Koekemoer, Fourie & Jorgensen, 2019). This has resulted in a massive influx of students into the basic education system; education was no longer exclusively for the elite. More people have access to education, which has had an impact on higher education enrolments (Adetiba, 2019; Hornsby & Osman, 2014; Levy, Cameron, Hoadley & Naidoo, 2019; Mohamedbhai, 2014). This is partly the result of the programme of transformation suggested in White Paper 3, which focuses on redressing equity, promotion of democratisation, fostering of academic freedom, development of human capacity, and encouragement of institutional autonomy and public accountability (Jansen, 2003). However, this move to transform education is not new. The National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE) proposed in 1995–96 that higher education should be massified (Cloete, 2006). The NCHE's purpose of massification

> was the first proposal that attempted to resolve the equity-development tension since increased participation was supposed to provide greater opportunities for access (equity) while also producing more high-level skills that were necessary for economic growth (Cloete, 2006:59).

South Africa's tertiary enrolment increased by 16%, between 1999 (632 911 students) and 2005 (735 073 students), with an annual average increase percentage of 3% (Kipchumba, 2019). Most African countries have a low higher education enrolment, but they have experienced an increase in the number of the student population over the years (Kipchumba, 2019). This indicates that a substantial number of private education institutions have entered the higher education landscape (Swartz, Ivancheva, Czerniewicz & Morris, 2018). Initially, private education institutions were encouraged by the government because they were seen as a way of providing greater access to higher education (De Wit & Reisberg, 2017; Swartz *et al*., 2018). The mushrooming of private higher education institutions attracted as many as 800 000 students (Swartz *et al*., 2018). However, this has posed several challenges to the public education system.

Massification leads to challenges in terms of societal demands to address socio-economic issues such as equity. For instance, it puts pressure on institutions and systems to provide education of quality and relevance (Kipchumba, 2019; Mohamedbhai, 2014). Adetiba (2019) and Kipchumba (2019) claim that the massification of higher education will destroy the quality of education and discourage students from choosing longer professional programmes since the widely held assumption is that the quicker one graduates, the better chance one has of finding a job. A direct result of a greater demand for higher education is that higher education institutions are challenged by a) inadequate capacity to accommodate large classes, b) inadequate funding which results in insufficient instructional material and equipment, c) obsolete library sources, d) weakening leadership, e) unqualified staff, f) low quality or outdated curricula, g) stifled academic freedom, and h) the absence of academic rigour (Allais, 2013; Hornsby & Osman, 2014; Kipchumba, 2019; Mohamedbhai, 2014; Van der Merwe, 2020).

Another concern is that knowledge in higher education institutions is becoming a matter of production (Adetiba, 2019; Kipchumba, 2019; Swartz *et al*., 2018). If knowledge intends to promote industrial societies, knowledge becomes a profitable commodity to achieve market-related principles. The presumption is that all knowledgeable students with higher education qualifications are able to work effectively, and thus contribute to economic development (Hornsby & Osman, 2014; Mohamedbhai, 2014). Allais (2013) asserts that this presumption is used to justify the rise of education's massification. Providing a higher level of education to a significant number of students would be a great benefit if all students left education without student debts and the prospect of a good job and could contribute to the tax base and to funding the education

of forthcoming generations (Allais, 2013). The reality is that higher education qualifications do not necessarily result in better jobs (Allais, 2013). Even though students have unprecedented levels of formal knowledge and qualifications, unemployment is increasing (Allais, 2013). Frequently the youngest and the most educated students are last in the queue for jobs (Allais, 2013). Allais (2013) further specifies that employers use qualifications as a significant screening device for jobs. Therefore, students are obliged to obtain higher and higher levels of education to improve their position in the job queue (Allais, 2013). The cost of obtaining higher and higher levels of qualifications are beyond the reach of most students (Allais, 2013). Even middle-class students are often unable to afford to enrol for higher levels of qualification, which, in turn, make it difficult for them to find employment (Allais, 2013). In this sense, massification will not redress equity but will increase inequality issues. Cloete (2006) confirms that there is no equal massified education system since these systems are inherently differentiated systems.

2.2.2.2 Marketisation of education

Marketisation is a fundamental ideology known as an 'epidemic', an 'ethical dilemma', and a 'paradigm shift' in education throughout the Western World (Furedi, 2011; Hall, 2018). Marketisation of education is a political, ideological process, and as such, an economic phenomenon (Bowl, 2018; Furedi, 2011). The rapid rise of marketisation is a direct result of neo-liberalist policies and ideologies that transform education (Özgün *et al*., 2017). Marketisation of education, which focuses on the application of economic principles in education, has been a global trend in education policy since the late 1970s, (Brown, 2010; Fejes, Runesdotter & Wärvik, 2016; Furedi, 2011; Hall, 2018).

The marketisation of education encourages competition between education institutions to position themselves as global economic partners in a profitable sphere of economic activity (Furedi, 2011). Education institutions are seen as bureaucratic machines where research and scholarship are subjected to quasi-market coordination (Brown, 2010; Hall, 2018; Lichy & Birch, 2016). A quasi-market is promoted by state subsidies and micro-managed by government interventions, subject to market-driven principles (Furedi, 2011). Education institutions position students as consumers, raw material, or products that can choose another institution if they are not satisfied with their grades, educators or any other aspect in their current institution (Bowl, 2018; Fejes *et al*., 2016, Furedi, 2011). On the supply side of the educational economy, the fundamental conditions that appear to be necessary for the marketisation of education are the establishment of diversity and choice and, on the demand side, the assigning of information and promotion of power in the hands of the consumers (Furedi, 2011). These fundamental conditions lead to a) failing of state monopolies to form a choice of service providers for customers; b) the establishment of tangible opportunities for choice and appreciation of the opportunity for choice among consumers; c)

endowment of trustworthy information for consumers to inform their choices; d) the encouragement of educational providers to free themselves from reliance on state resources by becoming entrepreneurial and creating alternative sources of earnings; and e) the permitting of consumers to secure the option of their choice from a private or public service provider (Bridge & Johnathan, 2003, Furedi, 2011; Lynch, 2006).

In the following sections, I critique the marketisation of education. Firstly, the ontological character of this form of education must be called in question. The nature of education has become clouded and has led to errors in delivery (Bridge & Johnathan, 2003). In South Africa curriculum revisions have been based on instumentalist logic, which by implication means that a Tylerian approach to curriculum was used (Ali, 2017; Gray, 2016; Howard, 2018; Lourie, 2020; Maistry, 2014; Vally, 2020) (1.2). Within this instrumentalist agenda to education, education is seen as a commodity that is being sold to students as a 'licence' to be successfully employed, which, in turn, will aid economic prosperity (Litchy & Birch, 2016).

Secondly, rewards for educators are based on their productivity, which distorts our understanding of education and the relationship between students and educators (Bridge & Jonathan, 2003). This relationship is similar to the economic relationship between clients and service providers (Hall, 2018).

Thirdly, educational accountability is measured in terms of teacher accountably, student graduation or promotion, the reputation of schools, and funding of schools (Mutereko, 2018). Marketisation leads to education institutions following a mechanistic approach to assessment. Support is less personalised, and feedback is less constructive (Lichy & Birch, 2016). A marketised system does not enhance reflective and deep learning (Lichy & Birch, 2016), instead it focuses on high-stakes tests like the national senior certificate examination and uses them as instruments of marketisation in the education system (Mutereko, 2018). Mutereko (2018:569) confirms that "in South Africa today, these tests that were run by the government brought a marketisation education system". In South Africa, the senior certificate results are headline news every year, thwarting the develpment of pedagogical lives and resulting in perverse practices in schools (Le Grange, 2019). Top performers are recognised at government functions for their achievement. Schools compare their pass rates with each other. The ranking of a school in a certain province or within South Africa is used as a marketing tool to attract more students. Consequently, the senior certificate results lead to obsessive competition between schools to be recognised as a top school or to increase the profit motive of the school with new enrolments. Lynch (2006) and Mulya (2018) agree that education is becoming driven by self-interest, fixation on grades, and competition. In a marketised system, there is not much difference between the function of schools and higher education institutions in some respects.

Lastly, marketisation entails the restriction of the most prestigious forms of education to those who can afford to pay the highest price for it (Bowl, 2018). Lynch (2006) asserts that, within economically unequal societies, those who are poor may not want a choice of universities as much as they would like access to an affordable and accessible institution with high standards (Lynch, 2006). The population that holds the requisite cultural and social capital receives privileged access to elite education provision (Bowl, 2018).

2.2.2.3 Commercialisation of education

The global trend to commercialisation of education can be described as the creation, marketing, and sale of services and goods by private providers with a profit agenda (Abraham, 2018; Chukwu & Ezepue, 2018; Hogan *et al*., 2018). Traditionally, education is seen as a social service that should be borne by the government to provide education for the common good[5] of society (Abraham, 2018; Chukwu & Exepue, 2018). Many scholars justify the commercialisation of education, claiming that public provider education lacks sufficient quality (Abraham, 2018; Chukwu & Ezepue, 2018; Hogan *et al.*, 2018) or that it is inadequately funded. However, there is a concern that commercialisation focuses on profit rather than on the common good of education (Abraham, 2018).

Commercialisation has many consequences for education. Firstly, business corporations have 'invaded' education institutions, offering advertising schemes as a form of funding for school infrastructure and sponsorships of sports activities (Abraham, 2018; Chukwu & Ezepue, 2018; Pijanowski, 2010). Thus, organisations are aggressively marketing products that have little or no connection to the curriculum or concern for student outcomes (Hogan *et al*., 2018).

Secondly, educators are no longer deemed important in decision-making or advocating the best interest of students. Instead, they are expected to work in line with the best interest of enterprises represented by trustees, sponsors, managers, or owners of educational institutions (Chukwu & Ezepue, 2018). Although the commercialisation of education is tightly controlling what to be taught, teachers might find opportunities at a school level (micro-level or local level) to implement some aspects or processes of participatory models of curriculum development as suggested by Freire (1.3.4.).

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[5] The notion of 'common good' dates back to the works of Plato and Aristotle. It was further developed by numerous political theorists and philosophers such as Thomas Aquinas, Adam Smith, John Stuart Mill and Jacques Maritain. There are thus different conceptualisations of the 'common good'. Generally speaking, however, the common good can be viewed as a norm that unifies a particular political community and that is related to public interests or public goods (Boyadieva & llieva-Trichkova, 2018).

Thirdly, commercialisation has led to overcrowding in classrooms (Chukwu & Ezepue, 2018). Most education institutions do not limit the number of students they enrol because more students mean more money (Chukwu & Exepue, 2018). This leads to insufficient infrastructure where students do not receive individual attention from educators.

Fourthly, commercialisation has made education institutions compromise on disciplining students (Chukwu & Ezepue, 2018). In line with the notion that the student (customer) is always right, rules and regulations of educational institutions are not followed to the letter because of the fear of that students who are antagonised will choose to go to other education institutions (Chukwu & Ezepue, 2018).

Lastly, education is operated largely as a profit-making enterprise to contribute to market-driven forces (Abraham, 2018; Chukwu & Ezepue, 2018; Cunningham & Menter, 2020). This implies that education is merely an instrument to attain economic performance.

Policymakers have allowed the commercialisation of knowledge in universities since knowledge is seen as a critical driver of economic performance (Awland-Thani, 2018; Cunningham & Menter, 2020; Kalantaridis, 2017). Consequently, university knowledge is being commercialised to contribute to socio-economic development (Awland-Thani, 2018). University knowledge commercialisation can be defined as the process of producing knowledge in research organisations that is converted into products for the market or industry (Awland-Thani, 2018). This process leads to the emergence of the concept of the 'entrepreneurial university' (Chantson & Urban, 2018; Cunningham & Menter, 2020; Lose & Kapondoro, 2020). An entrepreneurial university fulfils three activities; namely teaching (knowledge dissemination), research (knowledge creation), and promotion of entrepreneurship activities (knowledge exploitation) to bring income, or resources to the university (Awland-Thani, 2018; Cunningham & Menter, 2020; Lose & Kapondoro, 2020; Uslu, Calikoglu, Seggie & Seggie, 2018).

In August 2010, the Intellectual Property Rights (IPR) Act was enacted in South Africa to facilitate the commercialisation of knowledge and research outputs in public-funded higher education institutions (Chantson & Urban, 2018). The Department of Science and Technology (DST) established a National System of Innovation (NSI) to implement policy interventions (Chantson & Urban, 2018). This meant that universities had to establish technology transfer offices to increase the commercialisation of university intellectual property (Chantson & Urban, 2018). The implication is that academics have to have entrepreneurial characteristics to succeed in their teaching and research (Chantson & Urban, 2018). Despite the research funding allocated to public research organisations, only a small percentage of research outputs have been commercialised (Chantson & Urban, 2018). The number of entrepreneurially orientated

researchers who were prepared to leave academia and start a business based on their research dropped (Chantson & Urban, 2018). The situation is exacerbated by the existence of different institutional knowledge logics between educational partners (universities, firms, and the government) (Awland-Thani, 2018). Different logics between educational partners can lead to a generation of different interests and goals for knowledge production and appropriation (Awland-Thani, 2018).

Neo-liberalist ideologies have infiltrated the education system and led to the marketisation, massification and commercialisation of education, among other things. It is important to critique the underlying dimensions of neoliberalism that run counter to the social realties of critical theory.

2.2.3 A critique of underlying dimensions of neo-liberalism that contradict the social realities of critical theory

The roots of neo-liberalism can be traced back to the deliberations in the 1920s which continued into the 1930s amongst liberal intellectuals on the role of state regulation and the role of the market (Friedman, 1962; Hayek, 1944; Hayek, 1948; Turner, 2014). These deliberations were driven by the Mont Pelerin Society (MPS) led by Von Hayek, amongst others (Friedman, 1962; Hayek, 1944; Hayek, 1948; Turner, 2014). The MPS was used as a platform to strengthen the principles and practices of a free society (Friedman, 1962; Hayek, 1944; Hayek, 1948; Turner, 2014). In the 1960s, Milton Friedman and his views on market fundamentalism and human capital theory dominated these debates (Friedman, 1962). This theory became the ruling consensus of the World Bank and International Monetatry Fund (IMF) (Friedman, 1962).

Later, Ronald Regan and Margaret Thatcher favoured neo-liberal ideology that emphasises minimal- or non-interventionist economic policies in the interests of ensuring economic growth (Navarro, 2007; Rodgers, 2018; Wilson, 2018). Neo-liberalism was seen as the solution for financial crises and meltdowns (Friedman, 1962; Hayek, 1948). Neo-liberalism played an immense role in preventing the re-emergence of inter-state geopolitical rivalries that could lead to war (Hayek, 1948). In other words, neo-liberalism could ensure domestic peace and tranquillity, but this implied that some sort of class compromise between labour and capital had to be constructed (Friedman, 1962). Neo-liberalism could maximise social good by maximising the frequency of market transactions (Friedman, 1962). The reason for this is that markets with limited to no government intervention can restrict competition or shape prices to the lowest cost of resources used, which is beneficial to the society, as it can deliver high rates of economic growth (Friedman, 1962; Hayek, 1944). Neo-liberalism has a history of periods of unprecedented growth, but it has also resulted in periods of economic havoc and instability (Harvey, 2007; Harvey 2015).

In the book, *Undoing the demos: Neoliberalism's stealth revolution*, Brown (2015) argues that neo-liberalism transmogrifies every human endeavour according to an image of the economy. This implies that all conduct is economic conduct and that all spheres of existence are measured and shaped in economic terms (Brown, 2015). Consequently, everyone contributes to the process of *homo economicus*[6] (3.3) (Brown, 2015). The consequences of this economised ideology are intensified inequality, crass commodification, economic havoc and instability, and growing corporate influence on political policies and government (Brown, 2015; Elliot, 2019). Currently, a neo-liberalist economic ideology in the 21st century South Africa is leading to an atomistic ontology of exploitation, self-interest, and a non-regulatory economic environment (Baldry, 2016; Feinstein, 2005).

Critical theory promotes self-empowerment, the emancipation of the oppressed, and greater participation by the oppressed in a democratic society (Freire, 1970; 1993; 1998). Hence, critical theory opposes the principles of a neo-liberal economic ideology. Brown (2015:9) makes the point that neo-liberalism "assaults the principles, practices, cultures, subjects, and institutions of democracy". Habermas also saw a contested relationship between democracy and a neo-liberal economic ideology (Caterino & Hasen, 2019). In particular, neo-liberalism perpetuates unemployment that could lead to extreme forms of economic inequalities in which the economic divide between poor and rich widens. It could also lead to instability in society because of the deterritorialisation of social relations in a market-driven economy that benefits the elite and exploits others. These negative effects of neo-liberalism concomitantly lead to undemocratic practices. The realisation of democracy requires a rejection of a neo-liberal economic ideology (Caterino & Hasen, 2019). Brown (2015), Elliot (2019), Maistry (2014), and Urbina and Ruiz-Villaverde (2019) point out the underlying dimensions of neo-liberalism that contradict the social realities of critical theory.

(i) Neo-liberalism reduces people to a particular economic image which depicts them as human capital. This implies that competition, self-investment, entrepreneurship for success, or failure becomes 'natural' or 'normal' (Brown, 2015; Elliot, 2019; Hayek, 1944; Maistry, 2014). Encouraging people to become competing capitalists might entrench inequality among people (Brown, 2015). This can specifically be seen in emerging economies in countries like South Africa, which has one of the world's biggest economic divides between rich and poor according to the Gini coefficient (Le Grange, 2019; Maistry, 2014).

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[6] John Stuart Mill describes *homo economicus* as an individualist view of humanity focused on personal gain, money, and pure egoism (Attick, 2017; Becchetti, 2019; Rathbone, 2020b; Urbina & Ruiz-Villaverde, 2019). *Homo economicus* and its reductionist anthropology, in many cases, influence narcissistic forms of neo-liberalism that can be seen in extreme forms of extraction capitalism and greed (Attick, 2017).

(ii) Neo-liberalism reshapes political domains through an economic lens (Brown, 2015; Elliot, 2019). This emasculates the foundation for citizenship directed towards the common good and destroys the inclination to think about common problems or challenges in a political manner (Brown, 2015). An interplay between *homo politicus* and *homo economicus* exists (Brown, 2015). The reduction of *homo politicus* is focused on values of freedom, justice, and legitimacy (Elliot, 2019). On the other hand, *homo economicus reduces* every human to rational economic beings forcused on personal gain (Elliot, 2019; Urbina & Ruiz-Villaverde, 2019). Similarly, Rathbone (2020c:211) notes that *homo economicus* "is a reduction of humans in terms of economics and logic that seeks the self-interest of the individual at all costs". The notion of *homo economicus* can be referred to as akanabuntu (the lack of Ubuntu) or akangomntu, ha se motho (not a person, not a human) (Rathbone, 2020b). This non-human business practice highlights extraction capitalism (Rathbone, 2020b). Extraction capitalism envisions an organisational culture that focuses on human resources to increase profit at the expense of labour, the environment, and society (Rathbone, 2020b). Extraction capitalism does not highlight a sustainable nor an ethical economic philosophy (Rathbone, 2020b).

(iii) Neo-liberalism recalibrates the meaning of equality and liberty through an economic lens, which constrains the state's ability to implement the policies and promises of the state to ensure equality, inclusion, and freedom (Brown, 2015). As mentioned in the previous point, neo-liberalism reduces every human endeavour by expressing it in economic terms. This leads to economic inequalities which widen the economic divide between rich and poor.

In Brown's (2015:77) view, these dimensions of neo-liberalism may lead to a process of "dedemocratisation" because they undermine "the principles, practices, cultures, subjects, and institutions of democracy understood as rule by people" (Brown, 2015:9). It could be said that neo-liberalism contributes to the functioning of a knowledge economy in which individualism, competition, self-interest, and narcissistic forms of greed, among other things, are seen as important to ensuring economic prosperity.

2.3 Education in 21st century South Africa

The Fourth Industrial Revolution creates a world of virtual and physical manufacturing systems within physical, digital, and biological spheres (Schwab, 2016). Various scholars have argued that the Fourth Industrial Revolution will transform the future of education, life choices, and employment (Bayraktar & Atac, 2018; Gleason, 2018; Kayembe & Nel, 2019; Kruger & Steyn, 2019; Schwab, 2016; Soskil, 2018; Wright, Miller, Dawes & Wrigley, 2018; Xu, David, & Kim, 2018). In response to Fourth Industrial Revolution demands and challenges, customers'

expectations will change, and employers will demand certain 21st century skills from employees to work productively in a knowledge economy (Bayraktar & Atac, 2018; Gleason, 2018). Therefore, policymakers, researchers, business leaders, and educators propose that education institutions should develop 21st century learning to be better prepared for a life of change and complexity (Wright *et al*., 2018). Gleason (2018) states that the Fourth Industrial Revolution is not only about new technological advancements and 21st century skills but also about the production of new knowledge. The next sections focus on two constituents of the 21st century: ICT/digital technologies (2.3.1) and knowledge needed in the 21st century (2.3.2). Both of these constituents are strongly linked to the Fourth Industrial Revolution. Therefore, a critique of the Fourth Industrial Revolution within the South African context is presented (2.3.3).

2.3.1 21st century learning: ICT/digital technologies

ICT/digital technologies are often associated with the term '21st century learning' in education policies (Howard, 2018; Lestari & Prasetyo, 2019; Lourie, 2020). According to Howard (2018), Lourie (2020), and Silber-Varod, Eshet-Alkalai and Geri (2019), ICT/digital technologies require an ever-growing scope of competencies to use different advanced technologies effectively. Eshet-Alkalai (2004, 2012) describe these competencies that include photo-visual competency, reproduction competency, branching competency, information literacy, socio-emotional competency, and real-time thinking competency. First, photo-visual competency requires students to comprehend messages in digital format, for example, understanding and deciphering icons in graphic user interfaces. Second, reproduction competency is the ability to compose creative-authentic outcomes from pre-existing shreds of digital elements such as texts and multimedia). Third, branching competency is the ability to construct knowledge from independent documents in a nonlinear manner, for instance using hyperlinks while surfing the web. Fourth, information literacy refers to the ability to think critically about information. Fifth, socio-emotional competency is the ability to have effective interactions in a non-face-to-face virtual setting. Cues such as image, text, and voice are limited within these interactions. Finally, real-time thinking competency is the ability to process large volumes of information at high speed in digital games or online communications.

Although the various competencies needed to implement 21st century technologies effectively are well known, most educators still find it challenging to turn technological devices into useful teaching tools (Koehler, Mishra & Cain, 2013; Lourie, 2020). For Lestari and Prasetyo (2019) ICT/digital technologies can promote meaningful learning when educators and students learn through the use of technology and not from it. Mishra and Koehler's theoretical teacher knowledge framework, Technological Pedagogy Content Knowledge (TPACK), is a valuable aid that educators can use to integrate technology with teaching effectively (Goradia, 2018; Kaplon-

Schilis & Lyublinskaya, 2019; Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Koehler *et al*., 2013; Lestari & Prasetyo, 2019; Mishra, 2019; Mishra & Koehler, 2006). Nurdiani, Rustaman, Setiawan and Priyandoko (2019:2) emphasise that "[l]earning with the implementation of TPACK framework for prospective teachers is a means of preparing teachers for 21st century learning". Chai, Koh and Teo (2019) and Kereluik, Mishra, Fahnoe and Terry (2013) agree that TPACK can be an influential means of unpacking knowledge and skills; teachers need to develop lessons in the 21st century. Over the years, the TPACK framework has provided several opportunities for the promotion of teacher education, teacher professional development, teacher's use of technologies, and moved them beyond approaches that treat technology merely as an add-on to education but instead integrate it in an ecological manner (Kaplon-Schilis & Lyublinskaya, 2019; Koehler *et al*., 2013).

Three core knowledge bodies are emphasised in the TPACK framework: content knowledge, pedagogy knowledge, and technological knowledge (Goradia, 2018; Graham, 2011; Kaplon-Schilis & Lyublinskaya, 2019; Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Koehler *et al*., 2013; Mishra, 2019). Content knowledge emphasises that educators should have knowledge about the subject matter that ought to be taught (Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Koehler *et al.*, 2013). Educators who have pedagogical knowledge are able to draw on in-depth knowledge of the practices or methods to teach content knowledge (Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Koehler *et al*., 2013). Technological knowledge will add a more profound and critical understanding of ICT tools and how to apply them effectively in teaching and learning (Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Koehler *et al*., 2013). It is crucial that educators understand that technologies are not neutral or unbiased (Koehler *et al*., 2013). However, certain technologies have their own potential and constraints that make them more or less suitable for specific teaching tasks (Koehler *et al*., 2013). Graham (2011) notes that technological knowledge is not clearly described in the TPACK framework: for instance, it does not distinguish between the different types of knowledge encompassed within technology. Angeli and Valanides (2008) refer to ICT-TPCK to focus on using ICT. Alternatively, Lee and Tsai (2010) favour of integrating TPCK-W into teaching. Then again, Doering, Veletsianos, Scharber and Miller (2009) recommend G-TPACK, especially for its geospatial (geographic) technologies. It is important to develop construct clarity about technological knowledge since it is a distinct knowledge domain that should be added to pedagogical content knowledge (Graham, 2011).

The interactions among and between the knowledge bodies are equally important to the three core knowledge bodies mentioned in the previous section (Kaplon-Schilis & Lyublinskaya, 2019; Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Koehler *et al*., 2013). These interactions produce the types of flexible knowledge educators need to effectively integrate technology into teaching (Koehler & Mishra, 2009). The interactions among and between the bodies of knowledge include pedagogical content knowledge, technological content knowledge, technological pedagogical knowledge, and

technological pedagogical content knowledge (Goradia, 2018; Graham, 2011; Kaplon-Schilis & Lyublinskaya, 2019; Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Koehler *et al*., 2013; Mishra, 2019). Mishra (2019) published an article in 2019, where a revised version of the TPACK is presented. Mishra (2019) argues that interactions among and between the three core knowledge bodies are more than just interactions, but essential knowledge domains that enable educators to integrate technology into teaching effectively and should not be neglected.

Pedagogical content knowledge refers to the core business of teaching and highlights the links between curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment (Koehler & Mishra, 2009). Educators need to master more than the pedagogical content knowledge (Koehler & Mishra, 2009). They need to have a deep understanding of how the subject matter can be influenced or changed by applying certain technologies (Koehler & Mishra, 2009). Therefore, educators should have technological content knowledge to understand how technology and subject matter change or constrain one another (Koehler & Mishra, 2009). If educators have technological content knowledge, they will be knowledgeable about what specific technologies are the best to address their subject matter and how the content may change or dictate the technology (Koehler & Mishra, 2009). Technological pedagogical knowledge highlights the understanding of how teaching can be transformed with the use of specific technologies (Koehler & Mishra, 2009). Technological pedagogical content knowledge is an emergent form of knowledge beyond the three knowledge bodies (Koehler & Mishra, 2009). It forms the basis of using technology teaching. Doing so successfully requires an understanding of the concepts related to technology, knowing which pedagogical techniques to use technologies constructively to teach content and having the knowledge of what makes concepts difficult for students to learn and how technologies can help redress these (Koehle & Mishra, 2009; Koehler *et al*., 2013). However, a study by Kaplon-Schilis and Lyublinskaya (2019) indicates that an increase in technological knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge would not necessarily increase technological pedagogical content knowledge of educators. Policymakers need to focus on ways of developing educators' technological pedagogical content knowledge in addition to technological knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and knowledge of the content in education curricula (Kaplon-Schilis & Lyublinskaya, 2019). Technological pedagogical content could help educators gain the knowledge and skills needed to integrate technology into their classrooms effectively (Kaplon-Schilis & Lyublinskaya, 2019).

The important knowledge domains for the integration of technology in teaching do not end here. In the revised version of the TPACK framework, educators need to possess another knowledge domain, namely contextual knowledge (Mishra, 2019). Contextual knowledge highlights educators' awareness of available technologies and, most importantly, to have context knowledge

of the education institution, state, and national policies in which they operate (Mishra, 2019; Kaplon-Schilis & Lyublinskaya, 2019; Koehler *et al*., 2013). A study conducted by Mpungose (2020), indicated that South African student-teachers often lack basic knowledge in subject content, pedagogy, and how to effectively use technological resources in the age of the Fourth Industrial Revolution. In contrast to South Africa, developed countries such as Japan, the USA, Finland, and Australia's student-teachers show knowledge growth in content, pedagogy, and technology (Mpungose, 2020). The reason for this is that student-teachers do their teaching practice in environments conducive to learning that are well resourced and thus enable students to learn to unpack subject content using different pedagogical approaches and technological resources (Mpungose, 2020). According to Mpungose (2020), South African student-teachers who do their teaching practice in rural school contexts experience obstacles to knowledge growth (Mpungose, 2020). They do not have the necessary resources to meet the needs of the Fourth Industrial Revolution in education (Mpungose, 2020). Furthermore, they are not given the opportunity to learn to work with technological resources to effectively implement it in the classroom (Mpungose, 2020).

Several countries have begun to adjust their curriculum to address the needs of the Fourth Industrial Revolution. The USA, UK, Australia, and China have incorporated artificial intelligence, robotics, and coding into their curricula. In South Africa, the Basic Minister of Education, Angie Motshekga, announced that Grades R to 3 and Grade 7 curricula for robotics and coding are ready to be implemented in 2020 (Van Diemen, 2019). In her view, these curricula will equip students with problem-solving skills and will help them to function effectively in a digitalised and information-driven knowledge economy (Van Diemen, 2019). This means that higher education institutions will have to ensure that student-teachers are equipped with the necessary technological knowledge (Mpungose, 2020). Motshekga stated that the government is responding to the Fourth Industrial Revolution's demands by introducing new as well as existing skills-based subjects to the curriculum such as aviation, engineering, hospitality, and others (Van Diemen, 2019). Designing curricula for these ends is not supported in the categories of learning set out in the Classification of Educational Subject Matter (CESM) document (Menon, 2019). Even though curricula have been designed for these demands, the programme has yet to obtain approval from the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) or additional CESM, accreditation by the Council of Higher Education (CHE) and registration on the National Qualification Framework (NQF) by South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) (Menon, 2019). This is a process that can take from 18 months to 30 months (Menon, 2019). It is easy to say that the curriculum should be transformed to respond to the needs of the Fourth Industrial Revolution, but it is not at all easy to achieve this. The process is time-consuming and complicated.

2.3.2 21st century learning: knowledge

Academic knowledge can be viewed in two ways (Lourie, 2020; Winch, 2017). The traditional idea of knowledge comprises concepts and content in disciplines that are taught in subjects or modules (Lourie, 2020). Lourie (2020) and Winch (2017) refer to it as *knowledge-that* focused on subject conceptual knowledge. In contrast, *knowledge-how* is focused on subject procedural knowledge (Lourie, 2020; Winch, 2017). Various scholars have published research about 21st century skills (*knowledge-how*) that students need to develop in the 21st century (Alshare & Sewailem, 2018; Hirschman & Wood, 2018; O'Neal *et al*., 2017; Önür & Kozikoğlu, 2020; Soulé & Warrick, 2015). If education institutions over-emphasis *knowledge-how* and under-emphasise *knowledge-that*, students may find it difficult to achieve deeper levels of learning (Winch, 2017). In this sense, the purpose of 21st century learning is solely to prepare students with the necessary skills to enable them to thrive in a globalised knowledge economy (Lourie, 2020). According to Mehta *et al*. (2020), this purpose is not sufficient for the 21st century, skills as well as knowledge should be emphasised in 21st century learning approaches.

Lestari and Prasetyo (2019) have synthesised several 21st century frameworks to establish core knowledge bodies that are needed for 21st century learning. These core knowledge bodies include foundational knowledge (to know), humanistic knowledge (to value), and meta-knowledge (to act) (Lestari & Prasetyo, 2019). Foundational knowledge consists of content knowledge about a certain discipline, cross-disciplinary knowledge, and digital/ICT literacy (Lestari & Prasetyo, 2019). Humanistic knowledge covers life and job skills, ethical and emotional awareness, and cultural competencies (Lestari & Prasetyo, 2019). Meta-knowledge comprises certain skills that students need to develop, such as creativity and innovation, communication and collaboration skills, problem-solving skills, and critical thinking skills (Lestari & Prasetyo, 2019). It is clear from this section and the one before it that 21st century learning is more than just skills. It is a combination of skills, particular bodies of knowledge, and values or contexts that enable students to thrive in a transformative knowledge economy.

2.3.3 Critique on the Fourth Industrial Revolution within the South African context

South Africa has an emerging economy that is rooted in farming, mining, and informal sectors (Smith, 2019; Sutherland, 2020). This implies that South Africa is not equipped with the necessary resources, knowledge, and skills to effectively adapt to the rapid global changes of the Fourth Industrial Revolution and this could worsen socio-economic ills. The Fourth Industrial Revolution necessitates that students be equipped with particular 21st century skills to be able to work and contribute to growth momentum. In this sense, the Fourth Industrial Revolution is promoting a

typical mark-driven educational paradigm. I will unpack each of these aspects in the paragraphs to follow.

South Africa's economic growth is less than the required demographic growth and has high levels, of unemployment which make the effective implementation of the Fourth Industrial Revolution difficult (Fataar, 2019; Sutherland, 2020). In South Africa, the Fourth Industrial Revolution could widen the inequality gap through the automation of work and losses of jobs (Fataar, 2019; Katiyatiya, 2020; Kruger & Steyn, 2019; Mamphiswana & Sinha, 2019; Man & Man, 2019; Peters, 2020; Sutherland, 2020). The government is committed to the 4IRSA partnership[7] to provide a strategic document as a national response to the Fourth Industrial Revolution for South Africa. Despite the commitment to the 4IRSA partnership, the government has shown an inability to create a policy to re(skill) people whose jobs are redundant as a result of the Fourth Industrial Revolution. Thus, in promoting neo-liberal principles, the Fourth Industrial Revolution can exacerbate socio-economic issues (Fataar, 2019; Sutherland, 2020:246).

There is a perception that the Fourth Industrial Revolution creates opportunities for educational institutions to offer education to a large and diverse group of students at the same time (Kayembe & Nel, 2019). In this manner, educational institutions do not have to worry about the capacity of their institution to accommodate students and can even increase their enrolment. More enrolments imply higher profits. This constitutes an instrumentalist agenda to education that concentrates on the massification of education (2.2.2.1). Even if education institutions pursue this agenda, a lack of funding holds more challenges (Kayembe & Nel, 2019). Education institutions are not always able to purchase the necessary technological resources to provide the promised opportunities (Kayembe & Nel, 2019). This could lead to an increase in fees to finance the purchase of these technological resources and re(skill) educators. Poor households or those on the edge of poverty will be forced to make trade-offs between necessities and technological demands (Dunga, 2019). Therefore, the inequity gap might widen during the Fourth Industrial Revolution and create further alienation (Dunga, 2019; Kayembe & Nel, 2019; Kruger & Steyn, 2019).

2.4 Summary

This chapter addressed the research question: What constitutes education in the 21st century landscape in South Africa (1.5.2). Neo-liberalism in education manifests itself in the form of the massification, marketisation, and commercialisation of the education system. The implication is

[7] This partnership is an initiative of the South African government, Telkom, private sector partnerships (Deloitte, Huawei, and Vodacom), Universities of Johannesburg, and Fort Hare (Gavaza, 2019).

that education institutions are operated as profit-making businesses. Students are consumers that need to 'buy' 21st century skills to receive a 'licence' for employment. This instrumentalist approach to education, in turn, creates a new economic system that is capitalist in nature. Freire critiques this instrumentalist approach to curriculum and recommends emancipartory education. Emancipatory education involves a non-egoic, de-hierarchical, and inter-communicative activity between teachers, students and community members. In the next chapter, I focus on how the Business Education curriculum has been transformed over the years (nationally and internationally) and explore current trends in Business Education. Chapter Three addresses the following research question: What does the literature reveal about the current trends in the Business Education curriculum in South Africa? (1.5.2).

CHAPTER THREE
BUSINESS EDUCATION CURRICULUM FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

"While programme co-ordinators develop and implement curricula, at times such efforts happen in a vacuum. In this respect, they occur devoid of an overt and sophisticated understanding of the academic learning model being endorsed, and more importantly, the nature of the students likely to receive the curricula. This inability to understand students in rich, qualitative ways is arguably the most serious impediment to substantive and meaningful transformation of our academic practice as well as student experience of our programmes."

(Maistry, 2011:116)

3.1 Introduction

Policymakers often develop curricula without considering essential theories that underscore the curriculum. Some of these nuances include student voices about their experiences, the changed profile of a student body, context of the society's environment, academic environment, values, and beliefs of the society (Maistry, 2011). A critical transformational process must go beyond the level of political compliance that is contained in a scripted policy (Maistry, 2011). For transformation to be authentic, any change must be based on the fundamental premise that there are inherent power issues in several facets of society (Freire, 1993; Maistry, 2011). At the same time, however, the transformation of curriculum is complex since it is influenced by factors such as historical knowledge and ideologies (Maistry, 2011). Curriculum transformation is not a linear shift from one curriculum space to another (Maistry, 2011). Instead, it is fraught with tensions, contradictions, and conflicts that are required for change to occur (Freire, 1993; Maistry, 2011). Freire (1993) suggests that dialogue should be employed to solve these tensions, contraditions and conflicts. His emancipatory theory calls on all education stakeholders, community members and students to rethink conflicts within a certain space and time with the aim of presenting solutions that are in the interest of all (Freire, 1993).

Change can also occur when students are allowed to suggest recommendations for curriculum reform. For example, Master's and Doctoral students' voices could contribute to the intellectual advancement of the Business Education field. However, the problem is that students' voices are not necessarily heard when a curriculum is revised. According to Bourke and Loveridge (2018), even if student voices are heard, it does not necessarily mean that action follows. Often policymakers, researchers, and educators silence student voices to demand spaces in the

curriculum for their objectives, agendas, interests, histories, and values or to adhere to economic ideologies (Chisholm, 2005; Ramrathan, 2016). This is an example of a top-down process of curriculum development which is rooted in Tyler's rationale (1.3.4).

Creating opportunities for student voices to be heard should not be regarded as an ethical issue that needs to be handled with care or as a methodological challenge; instead, student voices should be seen as a source of valuable data from which researchers and policymakers can potentially learn (Bourke & Loveridge, 2018). Researchers and policymakers should note that one authentic voice is not enough for curriculum reform (Bourke & Loveridge, 2018). A multitude of diverse student voices need to be explored to bring about change where appropriate (Bourke & Loveridge, 2018; Fomunyam & Teferra, 2017; Freire, 1970). That does not imply that student voices should be seen as the endpoint of curriculum reform. The enactment of radical collegiality between all curriculum stakeholders (researchers, policymakers, educators, students, community members, practitioners, and governing bodies) is crucial to the initiation of curriculum development and reform (Freire, 1993). Various curriculum experts have published extensively to address matters concerning the Business Education field. These scholarly contributions include essential elements which should be considered when changing and developing the Business Education curriculum (Bridge & Hegarty, 2016; Goorha & Malan, 2010; Haung & Lin, 2017; Ladyshewsky, 2006; Maistry, 2010; Nkomo, 2015). Curriculum change from a critical perspective not only necessitates that the various stakeholders be included, but it also requires that historical moments that shape the way in which curricula are constructed be considered (Pinar, 2007).

3.2 Historical moments in Business Education

The curriculum of Business Education in South Africa was significantly changed as part of the process of restructuring national education when apartheid was formally ended (America, 2014; Koopman, 2018; Maistry, 2011; Van Wyk, 2016). In a study conducted by America (2014) at three universities in South Africa, the need for reform in the Business Education curriculum because of global and technological innovations was highlighted (America, 2014). It is essential to initiate scholarly debate when historical moments in Business Education occur (Chisholm, 2005). These scholarly debates could stimulate critical reform of Business Education curriculum theory and development.

3.2.1 National historical moments in Business Education

The Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications (MRTEQ) have to be taken into account when developing education programmes (Department of Higher Education and Training,

2015). One of these requirements is that that the curriculum structure should focus on different types of learning, i.e. disciplinary learning, situational learning, practical learning, pedagogical learning and fundamental learning. For the purposes of this study, the latter was left account. All four of the other types of learning were given due attention.

Currently, CAPS, the national curriculum used at public schools, is framed by the Tyler rationale (1.3.4). Business Education is offered in the senior phase (Grades 7–9) and the Further Education and Training (FET) phase (Grades 10–12). Business Education in the senior phase is compulsory. Its main aim is to introduce business principles and skills (Department of Education, 2008; Department of Basic Education, 2011). The Business Education curriculum for the senior phase is divided into three topics: the economy, financial literacy, and entrepreneurship (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015). Each of these topics has sub-topics such as the history of money, economic systems, budgets, financial management, forms of ownership, entrepreneurial skills and knowledge, to name a few (Department of Basic Education, 2011). In the senior phase, Business Education is called Economic Management Sciences (EMS). If Business Education students specialise in the FET phase, they cover the Business Education content in the senior phase and then choose between two of the three specialising modules: Economics, Accounting, and Business Studies (Department of Basic Education, 2011; Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015). In Economics, students learn macroeconomics (25%), microeconomics (25%), economic pursuits (25%), and contemporary economic issues (25%) (Department of Basic Education, 2011; Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015). If students specialise in Accounting, they cover financial accounting (50-60%), managerial accounting (20-25%), and managing resources (20-25%) (Department of Basic Education, 2011; Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015). Business Studies comprises content about business environments (25%), business ventures (25%), business roles (25%), and business operations (25%) (Department of Basic Education, 2011; Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015).

Business Education is presented in two CESM-categories: Education with specialisation in Business Education (CESM07) and business, economics, and management (CESM04) (Department of Education, 2008). The CESM-document describes a business, economics, and management degree as concerned with the theory and practice of planning, managing, and marketing of business enterprises (Department of Education, 2008). There are seventeen third-order learning categories in the classification system from which students can choose (Department of Education, 2008). These comprise 1) business administration, management and operations, 2) accounting and related services, 3) business/corporate communications, 4) economics, 5) entrepreneurial and small business operations, 6) finance and financial

management services, 7) hospitality administration, 8) human resource management, 9) international business, 10) management sciences and quantitative methods, 11) marketing, 12) real estate, 13) taxation, 14) insurance, 15) general sales and merchandising, 16) specialised sales and merchandising, and 17) parks, recreation and leisure facilities management (Department of Education, 2008).

Researchers, policymakers, educators, students, and governing bodies need to recognise national and international historical moments and tendencies to think globally and act locally to develop a specific discipline (Fomunyam & Teferra, 2017). The Council on Higher Education (CHE) emphasises that a broad global context can establish a benchmark for international comparability of curricula (CHE, 2013). It is crucial to focus on the international historical moments in Business Education.

3.2.2 International historical moments in Business Education

Since the 1970s, student enrolment in Business Education programmes has increased in the United States of America (Miles, 1985). This coincides with the rise of neo-liberalism that Milton Friedman discussed in his article in the New York Times Magazine of 1970 titled, *The social responsibility of business is to increase its profits*. It seems that Business Education had to serve popular neo-liberal and capitalist values driven to the extremes of narcissism and greed. In the light of this context, several curriculum reform initiatives have taken place on an international level. Business Education shifted overall from a multi-disciplinary Business Education curriculum to an interdisciplinary Business Education curriculum (Bajada & Trayler, 2013). In a multi-disciplinary curriculum, there are a number of core subjects such as Economics, Finance, and Management (Bajada & Trayler, 2013). Students enrolled in a multi-disciplinary Business Education curriculum are encouraged to discover possible synergies between fields (Bajada & Trayler, 2013). In contrast, an interdisciplinary curriculum emphasises engagement in various contexts by integrating subject matter with real-world problems (Bajada & Trayler, 2013). It is also described as having trans-disciplinary or cross-disciplinary curriculum perspectives (Bajada & Trayler, 2013). The shift from multi-disciplinary Business Education curriculum to an interdisciplinary Business Education curriculum entails a different pedagogical approach to module delivery (Bajada & Trayler, 2013; Radar & Meggison, 2007). Policymakers who are required to reorganise and restructure an interdisciplinary Business Education curriculum find the reform process challenging and lengthy since buy-in of all stakeholders is vital (Bajada & Trayler, 2013). The interdisciplinary Business Education curriculum mostly focuses on international Business Education practices and the promotion of integrations of skills such as team building, cooperative learning, stress management, self-management, problem-solving, and change management (Radar & Meggison, 2007). These skills are comparable to the set of prescribed

21st century skills outlined in Chapter One. When developing or revising the Business Education curriculum, these should be kept in mind to ensure that articulation agreements between courses exist (Rader & Meggison, 2007). In the sections to follow, I will present a short background to the historical moments of Business Education in various countries.

3.2.2.1 Australia

Social responsibility and ethics are core themes in the interdisciplinary Business Education curriculum to help prevent financial crises via economic growth momentum (Bajada & Trayler, 2013). In Australia, therefore, the Business Education curriculum was transformed to prepare students to become participants in the economy who would be able to contribute to market trade and economic growth. Business Education introduced a focus on developing soft skills, technical skills, leadership skills, and integrative skills which employers require (Bajada & Trayler, 2013; Radar & Meggison, 2007). Bajada and Trayler (2013) refer to the development of a capstone module for student's final year of studies to consolidate disciplinary knowledge and promote the skills needed for the 21st century.

3.2.2.2 England and Wales

A Business Education Council (BEC) was established to assist with the development and improvement of the Business Education curriculum (Fisher, 2003). Later it became the Business and Technician (later Technology) Education Council (BTEC) (Fisher, 2003). The focus was on integrating technology to develop a more interdisciplinary curriculum approach (Bajada & Trayler, 2013; Fisher, 2003). This BTEC changed the Business Education curriculum to meet employers' needs (Fisher, 2003). First, economic and liberal values were embedded in the Business Education curriculum (Fisher, 2003). Second, an alternative curriculum for Business Education was developed (Fisher, 2003). This alternative curriculum presented opportunities for students to choose the modules in a programme that best fitted their learning needs (Fisher, 2003). Third, the curriculum provided 'real' life situations to students with a view to better preparation for the workplace (Ajetomobi & Comfort, 2019; Ajuluchukwu & Osakwe, 2019; Fisher, 2003). This system was also referred to as cross-course themes or interdisciplinary themes (Fisher, 2003). Themes such as money, technology, and change were identified and cross-themed in all the modules (Fisher, 2003). Fourth, the curriculum included an administration module where the computer as an information tool could be emphasised (Fisher, 2003). Fifth, employers formed part of the curriculum development team to design a curriculum focused on simulated business situations (Fisher, 2003). Finally, moderators were appointed to do a quality check of the curriculum to ensure that the courses met the needs of the students (Fisher, 2003).

3.2.2.3 Canada

At first, Canada's Business Education curriculum did not promote internationalisation (Beamish & Calof, 1989). Business Education focused on internationalisation leads to the overall growth and positive wellbeing of the entire country (Beamish & Calof, 1989). In Beamish and Calof's (1989) research, a positive correlation between international Business Education and firm performance was reported. Therefore, steps were taken to add an international dimension to the Business Education curriculum (Beamish & Calof, 1989). Kedia and Englis (2011) suggest that the Business Education curriculum should focus on building International Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities (IKSA) to ensure and promote intellectual advancement in Business Education. Incorporating International Business into a Business Education curriculum can cultivate international awareness to promote understanding of businesses and markets beyond country boundaries (Kedia & Englis, 2011). There are two approaches to cultivating international awareness: the integration approach and the separation approach (Kedia & Englis, 2011). International Business is infused into the curriculum in the integration approach, while International Business is separate or independent in the separation approach (Kedia & Englis, 2011). The separation approach is not often implemented as the Business Education curriculum is already overcrowded (Kedia & Englis, 2011). If International Business were implemented as a major (core module) in Business Education, students would be equipped with in-depth knowledge of and skills related to global marketplaces (Kedia & Englis, 2011). Kedia and Englis (2011) argue that the Business Education curriculum should focus on enhancing students' international competence. The enhancement of international competence can be promoted by cultivating collaborative learning arrangements (Kedia & Englis, 2011).

Internationally, curriculum reform in Business Education started in 1970. However, in South Africa curriculum reform started to show marked change only after 1994. International curriculum reform initiatives can serve as a benchmark for South Africa when the Business Education curriculum is revised or developed. In doing so, however, the context of South Africa must be borne in mind to ensure that curriculum changes are context specific. Nationally and internationally, curriculum changes in Business Education have focused on preparing students for the world of work. In order to understand the complexities which underline Business Education, it is important to dissect the two main ideas captured in the subject area, namely business and education. This will help to idenrify where there are tensions and similarities and where they clash or complement one another.

3.3 The tension between business and education

Most business theorists understand the term ‘business’ in the light of Carroll’s domains of CSR (1.3.2). Neo-liberal ideologies summited businesses' economic and legal responsibilities to instrumentalism (Friedman, 1962). In later years, a shift occurred where businesses started to focus on ethical and philanthropic responsibilities (Carroll, 1999; Friedman, 1962). However, if each of these four responsibilities are viewed separately, business practices could remain instrumentalist (Carroll, 1999; Friedman, 1962; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Carroll developed the embedded three-domain model specifically to highlight that the different responsibilities are interwoven with one another and should not be seen as isolated domains (Carroll, 1999; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). When the different responsibilities are in critical conversation with one another, business functions could move beyond instrumentalism. One way of promoting this critical conversation is through the education system.

At the start of the Industrial Revolution, education was seen as a social service provided by the government for the common good of society (2.2.2.3; 2.2.3). In later years, neo-liberalism infiltrated the South African education system to such an extent that even curriculum development approaches are aligned with the principles of neo-liberalism (1.2; 1.2.1; 1.2.2; 2.2; 2.2.1; 2.2.2; 2.2.3). The principles of neo-liberalism are strongly associated with the Tylerian approach to curriculum (Le Grange, 2019, Van den Berg, 2014) (1.3.4).

For example, the CAPS prescribes what to be taught, how and when it should be taught with particular outcomes in mind (Le Grange, 2019). The Department of Education makes use of the RDDA model (1.3.4) which takes a Tylerian approach to developing curricula. All curriculum visions in the South African context have been based on instrumentalist logic (Le Grange, 2019). This instrumentalism leads to the ossification of potential movements, the deterritorialisation of discipline knowledge, the emergence of transdisciplinary trajectories, and the domestication of the self, amongst other things (Le Grange, 2019). A Tylerian approach to curriculum development is very limiting. Freire recommends an emancipatory approach to curriculum development (1.3.4), which requires individuals to be autonomous (Freire, 1970; 1993). This is only possible if self-reflection and communicative action are evident (Freire, 1970; Freire, 1993; Grundy, 1987). Habermas developed the theory of communicative action as an act of speech to effect change (1.6.1). When educators and students engage in communicative action, *currere* as an active force is encouraged (1.3.4). This active force implies newness, the creation of things unforeseen, and experimentation (Le Grange, 2019). This opens up new pathways in education in becoming which go beyond instrumentalism.

In the light of the above paragraphs, the following conclusions can be drawn. A balance between education and business occurs when both are either instrumentalists or non-instrumentalist. For education and business to be non-instrumentalist, a Freirian and Habermasian approach that leads to an active force of currere and an embedded model of CSR consisting of economic, legal, and ethical responsibilities have to be adopted. Instrumentalism occurs when a Tylerian approach, which leads to a reactive force of currere is used for curriculum development and when businesses focus on purely economic responsibilities or purely ethical responsibilities or purely legal responsibilities (1.3.2). Tension between business and education can occur if education is instrumentalist and business non-instrumentalist and vice versa.

3.4 Trends in Business Education

Utoware and Kren-Ikidi (2013) highlight the need to investigate current trends in Business Education for curriculum reform purposes. They hold the view that

> [i]f knowledge were stagnant in business education without improvement in what the learner learns in order to be relevant in his society, there would have been total abandonment of the programmes in Business Education since it may appear not to be providing the needs of the learners and that of the society (Utoware & Kren-Ikidi, 2013:126).

In similar vein, Oluchi (2016:4) asserts that

> [f]or business education programmes to remain relevant in providing the needs of individual and that of the society; it [sic.] must embrace current trends in the academic and economic demands of the society.

Ladyshewsky (2006) contends that the development of managerial competency or preferably Business Education is an ongoing process. However, this ongoing process has been subjected to criticism in the interests of ensuring quality in Business Education (Nkomo, 2015). Huang and Lin (2017) agree with Ladyshewsky (2006) and Nkomo (2015), arguing that globalisation, information technology, and managerial innovations lead to broadening the horizons for Business Education. Atepor (2019) agrees that Business Education is shaped by economic market forces and therefore its evolvement has to be based on industry practices and procedures. In similar vein, Huang and Lin (2017) argue that the Business Education curriculum should be developed for contemporary teaching-learning and promoting workplace competencies. This view resonates with that of Goorha and Malan (2010) who argue that one of the objectives for an ideal Business Education curriculum is to provide a job-market curriculum. To remain globally competitive, Business Education has adopted new pedagogy within a transforming society (Atepor, 2019).

The most popular trends in Business Education consist of Business Education and the world of work in the 21st century (3.4.1), Business Education and technological advancements (3.4.2), and Business Education content in the 21st century (3.4.3).

3.4.1 Business Education and the world of work in the 21st century

A number of articles contend that the major purpose of Business Education is to equip students with the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values which are required to be employed or to be self-employed (Ajetomobi & Comfort, 2019; Ajuluchukwu & Osakwe, 2019; Badawi *et al*., 2019; Bratianu, Hadad & Bejinaru, 2020; Calma & Davies, 2020; Chekwube, 2016; Chinelo, Awak & Jah, 2019; Christian, 2019; Nwosu & Amahi, 2019; Oduma *et al*., 2019; Oguejiofor & Okeke-Ezeanyanwu, 2019; Okeke & Ihenacho, 2017; Oluchi, 2016; Orah & Umoru, 2018; Sanli *et al*., 2017; Waghid, 2019; Zirkle, Norris, Winegarder & Frustaci, 2006). Business Education can thus be seen as a human capital provider for industries (Christian, 2019). Business Education students should be able to make economically informed decisions that will benefit them personally and professionally (Chinelo *et al*., 2019). To make these economic decisions, students must be aware of existing global trends that might influence the productive functioning of business operations (Njoku, 2019). These global trends include the digitalisation of Business Edication in the 21st century (3.4.1.1), fostering Entrepreneurship in Business Education (3.4.1.2), and the role of Accounting in Business Education (3.4.1.3).

3.4.1.1 Digitalisation of Business Education in the 21st century

According to Oduma *et al*. (2019), society is becoming digitalised all over the world. The advent of new technologies affects the way we live and work (Nwosu & Amahi, 2019). Therefore, Business Education should provide students with the necessary knowledge and skills to be productive workers and informed citizens within a digitalised 21st century (Bratianu *et al*., 2020; Oduma *et al.,* 2019). Graduates entering the workplace with low-level 21st century knowledge and skills are of limited use to employers (Nwosu & Amahi, 2019). According to Chinelo *et al.* (2019), Christian (2019), and Oluchi (2016), Business Education skills are a pre-requisite for socio-economic emancipation. Ajetomobi and Comfort (2019:299) assert that the role of business educators is “to teach students how to learn and not what to know or learn”. In this sense, Business Education students can become drivers of the economy who contribute to raising the quality of the lives of individuals and help to improve the business system (Ajetomobi & Comfort, 2019; Chinelo *et al*., 2019; Oduma *et al*., 2019).

3.4.1.2 Fostering Entrepreneurship in Business Education

Ajetomobi and Comfort (2019) encourage vocational skills within Business Education. Vocational skills are more practical than theoretical (Ajetomobi & Comfort, 2019). Students are exposed to hands-on authentic activities to ensure better business and economic understanding of content (Ajetomobi & Comfort, 2019). The development of financial literacy skills, technological skills, and analytic skills are prioritised within the Business Education field (Ajuluchukwu & Osakwe, 2019; Christian, 2019). However, a more significant emphasis is placed on the fostering of entrepreneurial skills. South Africa has the lowest percentage of the population involved in entrepreneurial activities compared to other emerging economy countries (Maduku & Vesi-Magigaba, 2019; Mahadea & Kaseeram, 2018; Odeku & Rudolf, 2019). Therefore, Odeku and Rudolf (2019) highlight the need for entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial skills development. According to Abdulkarim (2019), Letsoalo and Rankhumise (2020), and Orah and Umoru (2018), attention to entrepreneurship in Business Education is essential; it will encourage students to start their own businesses after graduation and participate in economic activities and contribute to economic growth effectively. In this sense, the purpose of entrepreneurship education is to promote capitalist activities (Beresford, 2019). These capitalist activities evaluate and execute market-based activities intending to earn profit and generate growth in employment (Beresford, 2019; Hayek, 1944; Mahadea & Kaseeram, 2018).

Furthermore, entrepreneurship is viewed as a neo-liberal tool to contribute to economic growth and address high levels of unemployment and poverty (Odeku & Rudolf, 2019). Beresford (2019:67) states that entrepreneurs are often seen as “neoliberalism’s heroic actors”. Beresford (2019) mentions that entrepreneurs can be key agents of change within these capitalists’ environments. In recent years, there has been a wave of social entrepreneurs and the use of impact investments to address and solve social issues in society (Freeman, 2017). If social entrepreneurs focus on new methods to organise business and new ways to redirect products, services, and profits, they could benefit their communities (Beresford, 2019). In this sense, entrepreneurs contribute and produce commodities and resources to ensure social change even if it is only on a local level (Beresford, 2019). For example, Novo Nordisk wants to combat diabetes, Relish MBA supports MBA students to find jobs, and Whole Foods Market promotes healthy eating with better choices of food (Freeman, 2017). Within this context, Bill Gates suggested that entrepreneurs practise creative capitalism. Businesses forego profits for public welfare within a creative capitalist ideology (Freeman, 2017). According to Freeman, profits and ethics cannot be separated from one another. Therefore, the assumption that entrepreneurs are only focused on profit-making is often an ideological mistake (Freeman, 2017). Many entrepreneurs started a business because they were passionate about a business idea or wanted

to foster social change (Freeman, 2017). Businesses indeed go through challenging times when they are faced with intense competition that disrupts the industry or with global changes. In these times, businesses focus on generating a profit to be able to operate, it would be a fallacy to claim that the sole purpose of all businesses and entrepreneurs is to make profits (Freeman, 2017). According to Freeman (2017), the classical purpose of business and entrepreneurs was simply to make profits, but the 21st century requires that businesses and entrepreneurs adopt responsible capitalism with ethics at the core of business practices. Creativity and innovation are important for entrepreneurial processes and discovering business opportunities (Castillo-Vergarga, Alvarez-Marin & Placencio-Hidalgo, 2017; Hynes, Kennedy & Pettigrew, 2016).

Castillo-Vergarga *et al*. (2017) emphasise the importance of manifesting creativity and innovation in the Business Education curriculum. Creativity and innovation as traits within entrepreneurship are a source of economic growth (Castillo-Vergarga *et al*., 2017). It is, therefore, essential that creativity and innovation be part of an entrepreneurial skill set (Badawi *et al*., 2019; Sanli *et al*., 2017). Badawi *et al*. (2019) recommend that an entrepreneurial skill set should be promoted within Business Education. In addition to creativity and innovation, the entrepreneur skill set includes critical thinking, risk-taking, problem-solving, financial management skills, and innovative thinking skills (Badawi *et al.*, 2019; Orah & Umoru, 2018). It is clear that entrepreneurship education is viewed as an important means of promoting neo-liberal policy agendas. The purpose of entrepreneurship education directly relates to the purpose of Business Education, as stated earlier: to prepare students for the world of work.

3.4.1.3 The role of Accounting in Business Education

In addition, the research done by Nwosu and Amahi (2019) and Sanli *et al.* (2017) indicates that Accounting should be seen as the most imperative part of Business Education, as far as starting a business is concerned. Accounting transactions/records are not done manually anymore. Therefore, students must know the different business accounting software. Students should acquire the skills to work effectively with at least one of these accounting software packages: personal accounting software, payroll accounting software, home accounting software, construction accounting software, call accounting software, and manufacturing accounting software (Nwosu & Amahi, 2019).

Oduma *et al.* (2019) also see collaborative learning skills, computer-based learning, and web-training essential in a dynamic transformative digitized era and argue that they should be an integral part of the Business Education curriculum. Oduma *et al*. (2019) recommend e-learning tools on the web which are suitable for Business educators to use. These e-learning tools consist of exe, iLearn, video conferencing, respondus, SMARTboard interactive whiteboards, flexible

learning toolboxes, and YouTube. If educators can incorporate these e-tools in Business Education, students will be able to collaborate with other students worldwide and have access to extensive libraries irrespective of their geographical locations (Oduma *et al*., 2019). Technological skills will support both educators and students to be globally competitive (Oduma *et al*., 2019). The next section will focus on technological advancements within the Business Education context.

3.4.2 Business Education and technological advancements

Emerging technologies will continue to transform the 21st century education landscape; therefore, several educators have incorporated technology-based tools in the classroom to prepare students for careers in high-tech businesses (Mansouri & Piki, 2016; Oguejiofor & Okeke-Ezeanyanwu, 2019; Oluchi, 2016). Innovations in the education system have led to the upsurge of electronic learning (e-learning) (Okeke & Ihenacho, 2017). E-Learning is also known as technology-enhanced learning or technology-delivered learning (Okeke & Ihenacho, 2017). E-learning consists of a combination of online learning and face-to-face learning approaches (Okeke & Ihenacho, 2017). Business Education educators have started to incorporate the following technological tools into their classroom teaching: emails, electronic gadgets, computer software, blogs, wikis, projectors, smart boards, mimeo boards, video conferencing, social networking sites, streaming videos, 3D-printing, digital game-based learning, gratification, tutorial activities, multimedia including graphics, simulations, role-playing, cloud computing, and school-industry collaboration programmes such as video discussion forums (Carenys & Moya, 2016; Egberanmwen & Omotayo, 2016; Ellahi, Zaka & Sultan, 2017; Iwuoha & Peters, 2019; Mansouri & Piki, 2016; Oguejiofor & Okeke-Ezeanyanwu, 2019; Okeke & Ihenacho, 2017; Oluchi, 2016; Stanley & Zhang, 2020; Van Wyk, 2019). Huang and Lin (2017) suggest the use of the flipped classroom approach and web technology. This consists of watching videos out of the classroom and interactive guidance (Huang & Lin, 2017). From a Fourth Industrial Revolution perspective, the flipped-classroom could likely be linked to using apps like google assistant, ELSA speak, FaceApp, SwiftKey Keyboard, and Cortana. Goorha and Malan (2010) mention the use of simulation games, live internet chat, and internet-based assignments to teach Business Education. These technological tools might prepare students for the information age and to meet the changing demands of the knowledge society (Okeke & Ihenacho, 2017; Oluchi, 2016). These tools will make it possible for students to study from a distance and connect with their educators in just a few minutes.

There are significant challenges involved in teaching Business Education using the new technologies. Some educators resist change and keep teaching in a traditional manner (Oluchi, 2016). They are often inadequately equipped to use new technologies (Okeke & Ihenacho, 2017).

Another challenge that many education institutions in emerging economic countries face is inadequate funding to buy technological tools for the classroom (Oguejiofor & Okeke-Ezeanyanwu, 2019; Oluchi, 2016).

3.4.3 Business Education content in the 21st century

Bridge and Hegarty (2016) contend that the entrepreneurship content in the Business Education curriculum should be expanded. They suggest the use of enterprise education programmes (Bridge & Hegarty, 2016). These programmes focus on skills that are important for employment and self-employment, such as learning to problem-solve and identifying business opportunities (Bridge & Hegarty, 2016). The main goal of the enterprise education programmes is to embrace the learning development of the whole person and not only to address economic aspects of the curriculum (Bridge & Hegarty, 2016). Maistry (2010) points out that there is a need for more vigorous advocacy of economic literacy and its assessment. In the United States, economic and financial lobbying is done to call attention to important economic issues that need to be taken into account. Maistry (2010) also suggests that centres for economic education be established at universities where research and change in Business Education can be stimulated. An engagement with an economic literacy agenda might help solve the need for economic and financial literacy (Maistry, 2010).

Van Staden (2020) contends that business management content helps students to reach their business objectives. He describes business management as

> a method of managing the business according to ethical principles so that employees in every department know exactly what to do and how to handle a situation in line with certain principles so that objectives can be reached in an ethical manner (Van Staden, 2020:254).

Therefore, business management and business ethics are essential in the Business Education curriculum (Van Staden, 2020). Rathbone (2020a) also emphasises the importance of business ethics. Business ethics is a form of applied ethics that includes ethical theories like deontology, virtue ethics, and utilitarianism (Rathbone, 2020a). Economic philosophers like Adam Smith and Karl Marx highlighted essential philosophical and moral foundations that are critical for conducting business in an ethical way (Rathbone, 2020a). Values related to classic economics and modern economics play a significant role in cultivating an integrative approach towards business ethics (Rathbone, 2020a). Business ethics is vital for developing and promoting sustainable business practices (Rathbone, 2020a).

As Huehn (2016) points out, ethics has been removed from Business Education over the past decades. Therefore, re-philosophising Business Education theory and curriculum need to be prioritised. Economics (and by extension Business Education) has fitted into three branches of sciences over the past decades (Huehn, 2016). Adam Smith viewed economics as part of a moral philosophy that is concerned with socially embedded humans (Huehn, 2016; Smith, 1976; Smith, 2002). For Smith, humans, are guided by their sentiments (emotions) of which sympathy is most important (3.3) (Huehn, 2016; Piqué, 2019). Smith's interpretation of sympathy is based on the morphological origins of the word: *sun* meaning with and *pathos* meaning feeling (Forman-Barzilia, 2010; Huehn, 2016). Humans arrive at judgements by feeling with someone or imagining themselves in the position of the other (Huehn, 2016; Smith, 1976; Smith, 2002). Smith recognised the value of ethics for businesses in *The Theory of Moral Sentiments* and *The Wealth of Nations*, that without justice, markets would not function effectively (Freeman, 2017; McCloskey, 2008; Piqué, 2019; Smith, 1976; Smith, 2002). Later in the 20th century, economists rejected Smith's interpretation of economics (Huehn, 2016). Economists stopped asking philosophical questions about Business Education since the telos of business and economy became devoted to maximising profits (Huehn, 2016). Therefore, moral philosophy in economics has been sidelined (Huehn, 2016). Moral philosophy asks open-ended and fundamental questions that are sometimes unanswerable; education institutions resist these types of questions since they call in question their philosophy of certainty (Huehn, 2016; Smith, 1976; Smith, 2002). In this branch of science, economics is seen as a natural or social science (Huehn, 2016). Economics has adopted two metaphors from Physics. First, the assumption is made that humans are always selfish, and this is as undeniable as Newton's law of gravity in physics, also based on observation (Huehn, 2016). Second, humans in economics and particles in physics are comparable (Huehn, 2016). In the 20th century, economics was remodelled as a formal science or logic almost devoid of the human element (Huehn, 2016). This branch of science is referred to as *homo economicus syntheticus*. It is clear that three branches exist on this continuum (Huehn, 2016). Economics moves along this continuum of sciences of moral philosophy to natural sciences to logic (formal science) (Huehn, 2016). On this continuum, the ideology of economism and anti-philosophical stances led to ethics being dropped from the Business Education curriculum (Huehn, 2016). The implication of this is that education institutions educate students by giving answers to old questions (Huehn, 2016). Students and educators assume they possess established knowledge and, therefore, lose the curiosity that drives progress in any discipline or field (Huehn, 2016). The de-ethicisation precludes education institutions, educators, and students from asking important questions about Business Education (Huehn, 2016). Huehn (2016:183) describes this kind of Business Education curriculum as "a cookie-cutter curriculum with subjects thought in silos. Ethics would cut these silos because it is about the one thing that all subjects share: the human condition and the recognition and creation of value(s)". Therefore, Huehn

(2016) suggests that an alternative paradigm can help restore the philosophical foundations of Business Education. An alternative paradigm to the branch of Business Education science might re-philosophise Business Education theory and the curriculum by adding ethics (Huehn, 2016).

From scholarly contributions, it is clear that there is a shift towards a more nuanced understanding of Business Education that focuses on ethics, sustainable development, corporate social responsibility, and so on (America, 2014; Carroll & Laasch, 2020; Ciulla, 2020; Huehn, 2016, Van Staden, 2020, Rathbone, 2020a). This emerging understanding of the field of Business Education needs to be explored in more depth. In the next section, I critique the current neo-liberal instrumental agenda.

3.5 A critique of instrumentalism in Business Education

The Business Education curriculum is framed in a Tylerian approach where content such as supply and demand, production patterns, creation of business ventures, the role of the consumer/client among other things are infused with neo-liberal ideals. These neo-liberal ideals that subject Business Education to instrumentalism is aimed at ensuring employability in a digitised and transformative 21st century to ensure economic productivity and growth (Ajetomobi & Comfort, 2019; Ajuluchukwu & Osakwe, 2019; Calma & Davies, 2020; Chekwube, 2016; Christian, 2019; Nwosu & Amahi, 2019; Oguejiofor & Okeke-Ezeanyanwu, 2019; Okeke & Ihenacho, 2017; Orah & Umoru, 2018; Sanli *et al*., 2017). As noble as this sounds, neo-liberal ideals also lead to exploitation, self-interest, individualism and narcissistic forms of greed which are detrimental to society and equality (Baldry, 2016; Feinstein, 2005; Rathbone, 2012). Neo-liberalism in many cases redistributes wealth and income to the richest population in society; the middle class shrinks, and the working class and the poor are exploited (Garrett, 2019; Schram, 2015). Neo-liberalism creates an enormous economic divide between rich and poor (Garrett, 2019; Schram, 2015) and prioritises material wealth over human dignity (Rathbone, 2012).

The “benefits” of neo-liberalism are also the source of its own destruction once extreme forms of reductionism occur (Rathbone, 2012). The embedded exploitation perpetuated by neo-liberal ideals erodes the cohesion and the welfare of society. The result is binary thinking and rhetoric that polarises society into incompatible economic ontologies such as socialism and capitalism. In this sense, neo-liberal ideals that submits Business Education to instrumentalism is inadequate.

For Freire, these neo-liberal ideals created a banking model of education: certain knowledge is deposited in students to reach certain outcomes (1.6.3). In his book The *Pedagogy of the oppressed*, Freire critiqued this neo-liberal banking model and proposed that the model he had developed relace this neo-liberal banking model. He recommends problem-posing education

(Freire, 1970). Problem-posing education would lead to critical consciousness (Freire, 1970). In order to reach critical consciousness a process of critical understanding of reality or the problem situation should be followed (Freire, 1970). This process of critical understanding consists of engagement in dialogue (Freire, 1970). For Habermas, it is an engagement in communicative action (1.6.1). Freire (1970) describes that problem-posing allows people to view problems situations in the world they exist. They should not see the word as a static reality but rather reality in process, in transformation (Freire, 1970). For this reason, an active force of *currere* (1.3.4) is encouraged not to convey a *a priori* image, but to open up new pathways for Business Education through communicative action (Le Grange, 2019).

3.6 Summary

This chapter revealed that Business Education is a significant means of preparing students for the life of work. Accordingly, curriculum reform in Business Education should be focused on 21st century learning to adapt to the changes which globalisation, managerial innovation, and technological advancements may bring. Curriculum reform is not an easy, linear paradigm shift. Instead, it is a fraught with contradictions, conflicts, and tensions which are necessary for change to occur. I highlighted important knowledge constructs in national and international historical moments that should be recognised when revisiting or developing the Business Education curriculum, for example the adoption of an interdisciplinary Business Education curriculum.

It is clear that since Business Education is situated in a particular time and space, there are different perspectives on Business Education. Researchers advocate that entrepreneurship content should be prioritised in Business Education to create entrepreneurs who can contribute to economic growth and meet the demands of the knowledge economy. This recommendation is based on neo-liberal ideals. However, there is increasing support in the literature for the view that the primary purpose of Business Education should not be merely to secure profit but also to add value to business and other stakeholders. Although the ideology of economism and its anti-philosophical stances make it antipathetic to the inclusion of ethics in Business Education, there is increasing support for ethics to become an essential element of it. In the last section of the chapter, Freire encourages problem-posing education as an alternative to instrumentalism in a subject like Business Education. Problem-posing education can open up new pathways, allowing Business Eductaion to be in process, in transformation, and in becoming. In Chapter Four, the methodology of this study is presented.

CHAPTER FOUR
RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCESSES

"Educational researchers cannot simply 'read off' the planning and conduct of research as though one were reading a recipe for baking a cake. Nor is the planning conduct of research the laboratory world or the field study of the natural scientist. Rather, it is to some degree an art, an interactive and often negotiated process and in one which there are typically trade-offs between what one would like to do and what is actually possible."

(Cohen et al., 2018:3)

4.1 Introduction

The quotation taken from Cohen *et al.* (2018) underlines the dynamic nature of a research design and the process of planning and (re)planning needed to conduct research effectively. In this chapter, I describe the research design, methodology, methods, and processes used in this study. The choices made were informed by the philosophical perspective, the problem statement, and the research questions and aims in Chapter One, as well as the literature review in Chapter Two and Chapter Three. The qualitative research design that guided this study made it possible to give the voice to the Master's and Doctoral students who had successfully completed their theses or dissertations. These theses and dissertations were purposively sampled from those produced between 1997 and 2018 in the faculties of Education, Economic and Management Sciences, as well as those where technology degrees related to Business Education were offered, at public universities in South Africa. These theses and dissertations, which provided the data for a meta-study informed by critical theory, were inductively analysed using Atlas.ti™.

4.2 Research design

The research design refers to the approach the researcher takes to answering the research questions and attaining the intended outcomes, including the procedures used to arrive at the findings, draw conclusions, and make recommendations (Cohen *et al*., 2018). Creswell (2012), Nieuwenhuis (2020b), and Punch (2014) define a research design as a plan or strategy that guides the sampling, data collection methods, data analysis methods, and philosophical underpinnings of a study. Fouché and Schurink (2011:307) confirm that a research design entails "all those decisions a researcher makes in planning the study". Creswell (2009:3) presents a holistic overview of research designs:

> Research designs are plans and the procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis. This plan involves several decisions … The overall decision involves which design should be used to study a topic. Informing this decision should be the worldview assumptions the researcher brings to the study; procedures of inquiry; and specific methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation. The selection of a research design is also based on the nature of the research problem or issue being addressed, the researchers' personal experiences and the audiences for the study.

Creswell and Creswell (2017), Devlin (2018), and Fouché and Schurink (2011) distinguish between qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-method research designs. The research design, which best served the research questions and research aims of this study, was qualitative. An essential characteristic of a qualitative research design is that it focuses on understanding rather than explanation (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Devlin, 2018; Fouché & Schurink, 2011). My research questions required me to explore the intellectual projects of Master's and Doctoral students in Business Education undertaken during a specific period. I chose to do qualitative research. It should be noted that the meta-trends that emerge cannot be generalised as the sample used is not necessarily representative of broader trends (Cohen *et al*., 2018). It is essential to be explicit about the subjective nature of a qualitative research study. As a researcher and as an individual with my own identity and values, I have interpreted theses and dissertations differently from other researchers with different personal and theoretical lenses.

4.3 Methodology: meta-study

There has been an increasing trend towards the use of meta-designs (e.g. meta-analysis, meta-ethnography, meta-studies, meta-synthesis, and meta-sociology) since the 1970s (Card, 2012; Du Preez, Simmonds & Verhoef, 2016; Du Preez *et al*., 2018; Suri, 2018). Researchers constantly reinvent research that has already been conducted in other studies instead of capitalising on the existing research (Paterson *et al*., 2001). The value of meta-study design has recently been acknowledged. Most high-ranking academic journals now publish meta-study research (Suri, 2018). These academic journals include, among other the *Educational Research Review*, *Research Synthesis Methods,* and *Review of Education,* and *Australian Education Review* (Suri, 2018).

This study employed a meta-study design to explore Master's and Doctoral studies, as outlined in the first chapter (1.7.2). A meta-study was a best fit for this research study since it enabled me to determine what intellectual projects Master's and Doctoral students had pursued in Business Education. Studying completed research of Master's and Doctoral students enabled me to

identify the meta-trends needed to address the main research question: What intellectual projects do Master's and Doctoral students in Business Education undertake? Meta-study designs are dynamic and iterative therefore they require tailored methods based on the review questions (4.3; 4.9) (Du Preez & Simmonds, 2014; Du Preez et al., 2018; Pope *et al*., 2007). In this sense, no two meta-studies are alike. Drawing on the work of Paterson *et al*. (2001) and Pope *et al*. (2007), I designed my own set of procedures for conducting a meta-study. I also developed a schematic presentation of the meta-study process that I used (Figure 4.1). The meta-study process consisted of four phases: 1) design, 2) presentation of data, 3) interpretations and findings, and 4) synthesis. In the sections to follow, I discuss each one of these phases.

4.3.1 Phase 1: Design

The sample comprised a corpus of Master's and Doctoral studies. A pilot study (4.9) was used to identify the inclusion and exclusion criteria of the sample. This was essential to ensure trustworthiness and validity of the conclusions drawn towards the end of the meta-study (Pope *et al*., 2007). Section 4.4 provides an in-depth description of the data sampling process.

4.3.2 Phase 2: Presentation of data

After arriving at the review questions and sample of Master's and Doctoral studies, a project was created on Atlas.ti™. The first data-analysis cycle focused on open coding, which assisted me to assign codes to the text. Axial and selective coding occurred simultaneously to establish semantic relations between data, to give meaning to the interpretation of the research and to identify meta-trends (4.6.).

4.3.3 Phase 3: Interpretations and findings

A meta-semantic relationship network was created on Atlas.ti™ to highlight the theoretical gaps and contextual trends that emerged from the data. In Chapter Six, the interpretations and findings are discussed to identify the theoretical gaps and contextual trends in Business Education in South Africa, based on the analysis of Master's and Doctoral studies completed between 1997 and 2018.

4.3.4 Phase 4: Conclusion and future directions

In Chapter Seven, I present my conclusion and suggest directions that future research might take. Chapter Seven also sums up the findings with regard to the research question: To what extent, if any, is the Business Education curriculum in South Africa aligned to the needs of the 21st century? Figure 4.1 is a schematic depiction of the meta-study process in this research.

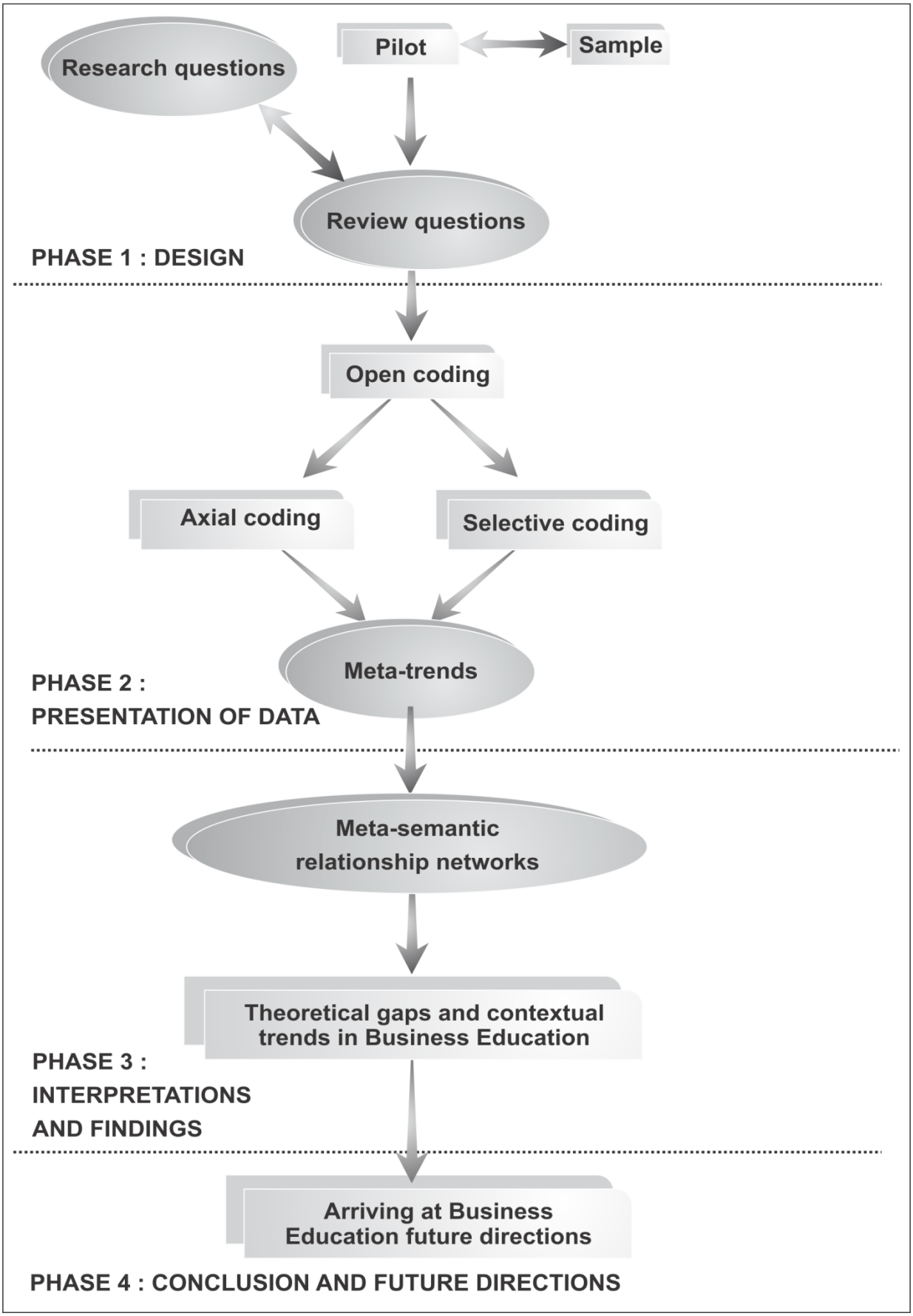

Figure 4.1 **A schematic presentation of the meta-study process**

4.4 Data sampling method

For this inquiry, purposive sampling was employed. Purposive sampling is frequently used in qualitative research (Cohen *et al*., 2018; Creswell, 2012; Creswell, 2014; Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2020; Maree & Pietersen, 2020), and forms an integral part of the research design. Simply defined, purposive sampling is sampling done in a particular way, with a particular purpose in mind (Hennink *et al*., 2020; Punch, 2014). In this study, purposive sampling enabled me to handpick the sample based on particular criteria (Cohen *et al*., 2018; Creswell, 2012; Creswell, 2014; Hennink *et al.*, 2020; Maree & Pietersen, 2020; Strydom & Delport, 2011a). These criteria enabled me to select a research sample that assisted me to gain an understanding of the research questions and the research problem (Cohen *et al*., 2018; Creswell, 2012).

Different types of purposive sampling exist, and the sampling can take place *before* or *after* data collection has started (Creswell, 2012). Purposive sampling approaches *before* data collection begins include maximal variation sampling, critical sampling, extreme case sampling, homogeneous sampling, and typical sampling (Creswell, 2012). Alternatively, purposive sampling approaches *after* data collection are used during the data analysis process where new insights emerge that lead to further data collection. This includes opportunistic sampling, confirming/disconfirming sampling, and snowball sampling (Creswell, 2012). This study undertook purposive sampling *before* data collection. The study employed theory or concept sampling. This is a purposive sampling strategy in which the researcher collects a sample to discover a certain theory or concept (Creswell, 2012). In this study, the purposive sampling of theses and dissertations assisted me to determine what intellectual projects were undertaken in Business Education by a particular sample during a particular period.

The data sampling focused on Master's and Doctoral studies of students who completed their studies or graduated between 1997 and 2018 in the field of Business Education at public universities in South Africa. This study focused on theses and dissertations from 1997, the period when Business Education became a priority for the educational system, onwards. Theses and dissertations at faculties of Economic and Management Sciences, faculties of Education as well as faculties where technology degrees related to Business Education are offered, were selected. These faculties were chosen since they constituted a rich source of data in the field of Business Education that I needed to address the research questions. The criterion used to select theses and dissertations was a title that related to education (1.7.3) at any of the different levels of education (1.3.1; 1.7.3). Clark *et al.* (2009) mention that relying on school education alone will not provide the necessary foundation of Business Education for 21st century citizens.

A total of 124 Master's and Doctoral studies were collected. After determining the inclusion and exclusion criteria at the pilot study phase (4.9), six studies were excluded so a total of 118 studies were left. Approximately 10 per cent (12) of these were used for a pilot study to examine the relevance and suitability of the data. The remaining 106 Master's and Doctoral studies were used for the research sample. Table 1.1 illustrates the breakdown of this sample. In the next section, I describe the data collection method used in this study.

4.5 Data collection method

Documents that are on various databases are a valuable resource for researchers (Cohen *et al.*, 2018; Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). A document study includes data sources such as published or unpublished documents, reports, letters, emails or fax messages, journal articles, newspaper articles, and memoirs (Creswell, 2012; Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Devlin, 2018; Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). These documents can provide new insights and foci for further research (Cohen *et al.*, 2018). In the case of this research, the documents that were used were studies done by other students. A document study is the most suitable method for a meta-study methodology (4.3). As mentioned earlier, a meta-study methodology consists of a large amount of information on studies or a collection of data that has already been published. Using Master's and Doctoral studies, I was able to do a meta-study in which I identified important meta-trends that exist in Business Education.

According to Strydom and Delport (2011b), data collection in document studies has several advantages and disadvantages. One of the advantages is that document studies involve relatively low costs (Strydom & Delport, 2011b). The cost of a document study is influenced by the availability and dispersion of documents and the type of document being studied (Strydom & Delport, 2011b). In this study, there were no cost implications for the public documents that were collected since they were electronically available on various databases. The following databases were used to collect the data: (1) National ETD Portal of South African theses and dissertations (NRF); (2) Sabinet (African Digital repository, current and completed research, the union catalogue of theses and dissertations-UCTD); and (3) South African theses and dissertations databases (SEALS digital commons, OpenUCT, UJContent, research space at UKZN, UPSpace institutional repository, SUNScholar research repository, Kovsie scholar, UWC: Electronic theses and dissertations repository and WIReDSpace). Another advantage of a document study, according to Strydom and Delport (2011b), is that documents are the only method in which the researcher does not make personal contact with a participant. This implies that this study had no ethical risks in this regard (Addendum B).

However, as Strydom and Delport (2011b) point out, a document study has a number of possible limitations. These include incompleteness, bias, preservation of documents, lack of availability, inadequate linguistic skills, lack of standard format, the uncertainty of the origins of documents, and the bulk of documents. The incompleteness of documents and lack of availability of documents influenced this study's data collection. Certain Master's and Doctoral studies were not fully loaded on databases so they could not be used. Furthermore, certain Master's and Doctoral studies were only available in print. The printed Master's and Doctoral studies could only be borrowed for a limited time from educational institutions. This would have affected the thoroughness of the data analysis of these documents. Furthermore, Atlas.ti™, the instrument for data analysis (4.6) is not able to process printed documents. The printed documents were also too large to scan for data analysis purposes.

4.6 Data analysis

Lather (2017:639) makes the following observation:

> Making love to one's data becomes thinkable as a kind of ethics, something quite different from 'better or smarter', something more akin to the in-between places of pleasure and pain. Struggling with and against, becoming more and other, 'in a field of production of desire', analysis moves way beyond interpretation.

This study attempted to *analyse beyond interpretation*, as described in the quotation by Lather (2017) above, by engaging on a deep level with the data. The method of data analysis (1.7.6), which stipulates the approaches to be used to explore the main research question, was discussed and motivated in the first chapter. This study conducted open, axial, and selective coding. These types of coding, which can be classified as inductive reasoning methods, are best suited to this qualitative research design. The process of open, axial, and selective coding is part of thematic analysis in which codes, categories, and themes are identified through reading and re-reading the data (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Feza, 2015).

As already mentioned, this study made use of Atlas.ti™ to analyse the data. Atlas.ti™ is a Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) that is used to support the process of qualitative data analysis. Atlas.ti™ makes it easy to analyse large amounts of data systematically. In this study, in which a large number of documents (theses and dissertations) were used, Atlas.ti™ greatly assisted the process of following the steps in the data analysis spiral suggested by Creswell and Poth (2018) (1.7.6).

An Atlas.ti™ project was created on Atlas.ti™ 8 software (see the Atlas.ti™ project which can be imported into Atlas.ti™ 8 or 9 software in Addendum D). The name of the project was PhD_Data

analysis_actual data_13.10.2019. The term 'actual data' was given to make a clear distinction between the projects of the pilot study and the project which was going to be analysed for the findings. The date in the project name is the date when the Atlas.ti™ project was created and when the analysis commenced. One hundred and six theses and dissertations in PDF format were imported into the project. Each project was saved according to the surname and initial(s) of the student, and the year of submission. The reason for this was to make the referencing process easier for me when writing Chapter Five.

The first data analysis cycle focused on open coding. Open coding involved labelling certain texts in the data with a code (Cohen *et al.*, 201 8). Open coding can be performed by labelling line-by-line data or unit-of-text-by-unit-of-text basis (Cohen *et al*., 2018). Open coding was applied first since it forms the initial form of coding undertaken in the data analysis process. The open coding function on Atlas.ti™ was used to create codes. The recommendations, conclusions, and theoretical contributions of each study were read and coded. The codes included a simple descriptor or a concept explaining the segment (information) which was highlighted in the document. At first, I generated multiple new codes. In the Code Manager, a list of the codes already generated appeared. I dragged and dropped existing codes from the Code Manager or the navigation panel onto the data segments which I wanted to code. This was also the first process involved in categorising similar segments under the same code names. Although generated codes could be used fo the most part, it was necessary to create new codes for the new segments. Three hundred sixty-seven codes were generated after analysing all the documents (Addendum D).

The second data analysis cycle focused on axial and selective coding. Axial coding, which assigns a category to a group of open codes (Cohen *et al.*, 2018), followed. More specifically, axial coding combines the segmented small units which were identified in the open coding cycle. Connections can be made within one axis (category) or between axes. In the case of this research, the axial coding enabled me to create semantic relations between data that gave rich meaning to the interpretation of the findings. The three hundred and sixty-seven codes that emerged from the open coding were merged into categories through the use of axial coding. This process entailed exporting the list of codes from the Atlas.ti™ project. The list of codes was printed and categorised in collaboration with my promoter. Similar codes and codes with the same meaning or implications were combined to form these categories. These categories were combined to identify the core themes through the use of selective coding. Selective coding, which identifies the core themes to form a theory (Cohen *et al*., 2018), was used to form meta-trends to address the research questions and arrive at findings. These meta-trends were used to create code groups on Atlas.ti™. The different codes as indicated on paper were grouped accordingly

into the code groups panel on Atlas.ti™. A list of the quotations for each meta-trend was exported from the Atlas.ti™ project. This list included the document ID, document name, quotation content, codes, and density. The document ID is a consecutive number given to the document by Atlas.ti™ when it is added to the project. For example, ID 37:4 means that the quotation is part of the 34th document, and it is the 4th quotation that was generated by the document. Density presented the number of links to other quotations. Eight hundred forty-six quotations were generated during the data-analysis process (Addendum D). The quotation list together with the codes was used to present the data in Chapter Five. Networks were created on Atlas.ti™ to help me structure the contextual trends for Chapter Six (interpretation and findings). Networks are semantic graphical views of the project or part of the project. Figure 6.1 is an example of a network.

The use of Atlas.ti™ increased the reliability of the research process because my promoter and I applied a consistent analytical process, which requires an intercoder reliability strategy. Atlas.ti™ enabled me to go beyond a descriptive-level analysis to a conceptual-level analysis. This increased the validity of the qualitative research since it enabled me to trace the entire research process and present a transparent record of the analytic process.

4.7 Trustworthiness and validity

The term *validity* is generally associated with quantitative research studies. According to Creswell and Poth (2018), however, perspectives of validity can be applied to both quantitative and qualitative research studies depending on the researcher's lens. While this is true, qualitative researchers often prefer to use the term 'trustworthiness'.

4.7.1 Trustworthiness

I have applied the following criteria to ensure the trustworthiness of my research: credibility, dependability, transferability, triangulation, and methodological verification. According to Bless *et al*. (2013), credibility can be defined as the overall internal logic of the research design, data collection, research questions, and data analysis. I have meticulously planned and (re)planned the qualitative research design to make it the best fit for my study. The sample consisted of published theses and dissertations which have successfully been through an examination process (Addendum C). This strengthened the credibility of the data. I did a basic and advanced course in using Atlas.ti™ to assist me to analyse the data effectively and to promote the credibility of the data analysis process (Addendum A). Dependability enhances credibility because it requires a very clear description of the research strategy that led to particular conclusions (Bless *et al*., 2013). A meta-study methodology was used (4.3). Meta-studies are increasingly being

viewed as a way of strengthening the trustworthiness of a study because they incorporate a wide range of knowledge (Pope *et al*., 2007; Suri, 2018).

This study be said to meet the criterion of transferability. Whereas quantitative studies can generalise an idea or methodology of a study and apply the findings, the findings of this qualitative study are not generalisable (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). However, the diagrammatic presentation of the meta-study design (Figure 4.1) can be used as a guideline to conduct a meta-study in other disciplines or fields. It is thus transferable.

There are a number of types of triangulation: methodological triangulation, theoretical triangulation, data triangulation, and investigator triangulation (Bless *et al.,* 2013). This study made use of investigator triangulation. Investigator triangulation refers to diversity in gathering and interpreting data (Bless *et al.*, 2013). This study made use of different types of inductive data coding (open coding, axial coding, and selective coding) to have diversity in the interpretation of data. I also applied methodological verification to my research. Methodological verification consists of the process of verifying the logic as well as the implementation of the steps of the methodology by an experienced researcher (Bless *et al*., 2013). My promoter who is an experienced researcher, verified the steps of the methodology which had been taken.

4.7.2 Validity

Creswell and Poth (2018) have identified nine strategies for validity: a) collaborating evidence through triangulation of various data sources; b) discovering disconfirming evidence or negative case analysis; c) clarifying research bias and/or visible engagement in reflexivity; d) member checking or the seeking of participant feedback; e) persistent engagement and observation in the research study; f) collaborating with participants; g) enabling external audits; h) generating rich and purposeful description; and i) the data and research process is being peer-reviewed or debriefed. Creswell and Poth (2018) recommend that researchers use at least two validity strategies in a research study. I will outline each of these nine validity strategies before describing the ones that were used in this study.

Collaborating evidence through the triangulation of various data sources requires that different data sources be used to explain the research problem (Creswell & Poth, 2018). When researchers find code or theme evidence in different sources, triangulation of information occurs (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Poth, 2018). Not all evidence fits into a code or theme selected for the research study. Therefore, the discovery of disconfirming evidence or negative case analysis should be reported and documented (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Poth, 2018). The researcher must disclose his or her understanding of bias, experiences, or values in the qualitative research

study to inform the reader about the position from which he or she is undertaking the inquiry (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This can be done through self-reflection which provides an open and honest report to readers (Creswell, 2014). Member checking is also known as *writ large* (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This means that participants judge the accuracy and credibility of the data, analysis, interpretations, and conclusions reached in the research study (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Persistent engagement and observation in the research study are ensured when long-term engagement with and observation of the participants in the research field occurs (Creswell, 2014). Collaborating with participants implies that participants become co-researchers in the research study to guide community-based research practices (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The researcher can also make use of external audits (Creswell & Poth, 2018). An auditor checks to see whether the research data support the study's interpretations and conclusions (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The auditor should not have any connection to the study (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Generating rich and purposeful description requires that the researcher provide rich details when describing a case or theme (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Raw data are revisited soon after collection to add an extra description that may be useful during the analysis process (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Validity can be strengthened when the data and research process are peer-reviewed or debriefed (Creswell & Poth, 2018): The peer debriefer asks questions about the methods used and the interpretations offered (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Debriefing sessions are held where the researcher and the reviewer keep written accounts of the sessions. Colleagues and students can act as reviewers (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Poth, 2018).

This study made use of four of the validity strategies presented by Creswell and Poth (2018). The first was investigator triangulation (4.7.1). The second was that a pilot study was employed to structure inclusion and exclusion criteria (4.9) to discover any disconfirming evidence. Thirdly, I disclosed any possible bias, experiences, or values in my pre-script (pre-reflections on my PhD) which informs the reader about the position I adopted in this inquiry. The post-script (post-reflections on my PhD) presents my reflections on the PhD process as well as my reflections on this study. Fourthly, the promoter of this study acted as a peer debriefer by giving critical feedback on the methods, interpretations, and conclusions pertaining to this study.

4.8 Ethical considerations

Research ethics are significant when planning and conducting research (Flick, 2020; Mason, 2018). The concept *ethics* is derived from the Greek word *ethos*, which means the disposition of one's character (Bless *et al*., 2013). Understanding the principles of research ethics helps scholars to avoid research abuses (Bless *et al.,* 2013). A code of ethics involves respecting the rights of participants and acting with integrity (Denscombe, 2010). This study had no ethical risks since it made use of public documents and did not involve any human participation. The Research

Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education (EduREC) reviewed the study and confirmed that the study contained no ethical risks. The ethics number allocated to the study was NWU-01603-19-A2 (Addendum B). Possible ethical issues were taken into account in each step of the research process. Principles of research ethics (4.8.1), ethics in data analysis (4.8.2), and ethics in reporting and dissemination (4.8.3) are discussed in the sections to follow.

4.8.1 Principles of research ethics

Although many research ethics principles exist, I have chosen to highlight the most important principles as they apply to this study. Authenticity requires that evidence should be collected from a genuine and truthful origin (Ahmed, 2010; Mogalakwe, 2006). Master's and Doctoral studies were gathered from trustworthy online databases. As mentioned in Section 4.5, different databases were used to gather theses and dissertations (Addendum C). Master's and Doctoral studies are usually on a university template that supplies information such as the student's name and surname, student number, and supervisors' names. Authenticity was confirmed by checking the information on the template on each document to ensure that the documents were not forgeries. Credibility was an essential element in this study. Credibility refers to the believability of the documents (Ahmed, 2010). Evidence should be free from distortion (Ahmed, 2010; Mogalakwe, 2006). I trusted that Master's and Doctoral studies had used accurate and reliable data (Ahmed, 2010; Mogalakwe, 2006) since the research would have been thoroughly scrutinised during examination and evaluation process. The principle of meaning requires that documentary evidence should be comprehensible and clear to understand its significance (Ahmed, 2010; Mogalakwe, 2006). Documents can contain literal or interpretive meanings (Ahmed, 2010; Mogalakwe, 2006). Written documents present face value meanings, and the nuances of understanding must be reconstructed (Ahmed, 2010; Mogalakwe, 2006). Interpretive meanings emphasise literal meaning in context to interpret the document as a whole (Ahmed, 2010; Mogalakwe, 2006). This study made use of interpretive meanings to analyse Master's and Doctoral studies to address the research questions adequately.

Another important aspect is that the researcher should not disclose information about the participant and protect him or her from any harm (Cohen *et al*., 2018; Flick, 2020; Hennink *et al*., 2020; Denscombe, 2010). In this study, the student names, surnames, and student numbers appear on the cover page of Master's and Doctoral studies. Since these documents are in the public domain, confidentiality, and anonymity were not an issue (Addendum C). This study reports research procedures accurately and did not use inappropriate or dangerous methods of research. The integrity of research was maintained through reporting clearly on the data. This study does not jeopardize future research and presents the truth in that I did all I could to ensure that the data are not misinterpreted.

4.8.2 Ethics in data analysis

Cohen *et al*. (2018) suggest vital ethical considerations that need to be taken into account during the data analysis. I declare that I did not make use of inappropriate techniques for the data analysis process, falsify data, ignore outlines in data, make sensationalised or false claims about the data or judge rather than analyse the data (Cohen *et al*., 2018).

4.8.3 Ethics in reporting and dissemination

It is the researcher's ethical duty to report results that are credible, fair, and without any misinterpretations (Cohen *et al*., 2018). I gave due attention to the principles of research ethics (4.8.1) to ensure my results were written up ethically. I acknowledge that this study's research is my interpretation of the findings and that other researchers might report different findings depending on their theoretical lenses.

4.9 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted to determine how the "full study [could] can be accomplished" (Schreiber, 2008:624). A pilot study is valuable in research studies that endeavour to address concerns in the research process. In this case, the pilot study enabled me to gain research experience and to reflect on the research process. In the process, I gained a better understanding of how the larger study should be conducted and I had the opportunity to revise the research design where necessary (Ashley, 2017; Devlin, 2018). The pilot study was conducted to examine the relevance and suitability of the data. In this sense, the pilot study enriched the research process by providing essential insights into methodological choices.

The pilot study process started with listing all the electronically available Master's and Doctoral studies I had collected in an Excel spreadsheet. The author's name and surname, publication year, type of degree, the title of the study and the educational institution were listed on the spreadsheet. The data were organised according to the year of publication, thus from 1997 to 2018. The Master's and Doctoral studies were separated into two different groups according to the degree. Master's and Doctoral studies written in Afrikaans were excluded from the sample to ensure language consistency when interpreting the data. Every tenth study was randomly selected to form part of the pilot study. The pilot study consisted of a sample of 10% of the total of 118 Master's and Doctoral studies. A total of nine Master's studies and three Doctoral studies were used for the pilot study. Master's studies were in the majority in the sample, and, therefore, more Master's studies than Doctoral studies were included in the pilot study.

The Master's and Doctoral studies were imported as a project into Atlas.ti™ for data analysis purposes. Two projects were created, one for Master's studies and the other for Doctoral studies. This decision was made to see if different results would emerge from the two different degrees since the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) have different outcomes for them. A data process of open coding, axial coding, and selective coding was employed in the thematic data analysis to constantly compare findings and recommendations. The study's core motives for employing a pilot study were as follows:

i. To determine whether the Master's and Doctoral studies should be analysed separately as the HEQC have different outcomes for each National Qualification Framework (NQF) level;

ii. To arrive at the review questions to be used for data analysis purposes;

iii. To establish initial codes and to determine inclusion and exclusion criteria;

iv. To determine whether the data were relevant to addressing the research questions; and

v. To ensure the trustworthiness and validity of the data analysis process.

The process of the pilot study is illustrated below:

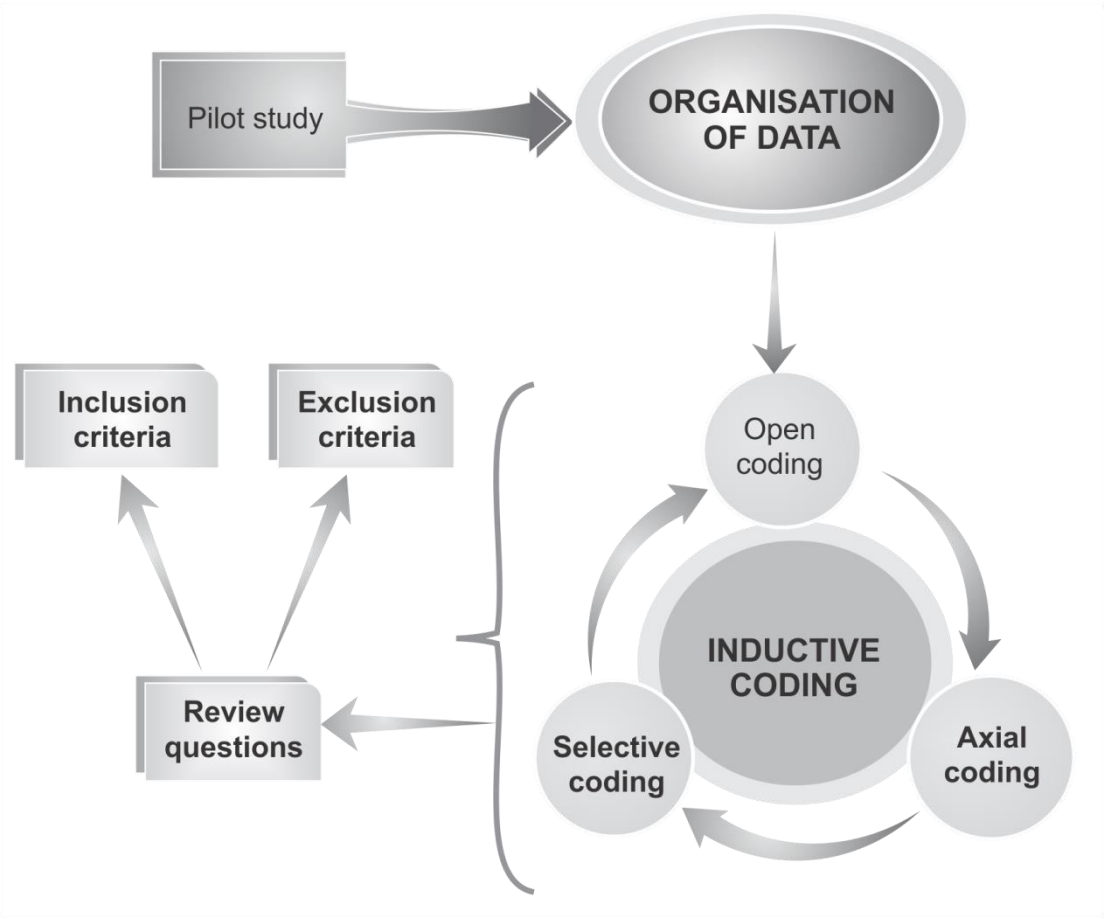

Figure 4.2 Diagrammatic presentation of the pilot study process

After employing the pilot study process, I concluded that it was not necessary to separate the Master's and Doctoral studies for the purposes of data analysis. Both the Master's and Doctoral studies generated codes that could be categorised together to obtain rich semantic relations. I effectively formulated the review questions through the data analysis of the pilot study. The review questions include:

i. What topics are addressed?

ii. What current trends are identified?

iii. What future trends are suggested?

vi. What 21st century skills are involved?

v. In what ways is attention paid to the curriculum?

Initial codes, inclusion, and exclusion criteria were formulated. The initial codes sketched the classification system for further data analysis purposes. The inclusion criteria for this study included theses and dissertations from public universities in South Africa, which offer Master's and Doctoral studies in the period between 1997 and 2018 in faculties of Economic and Management Sciences, faculties of Education and Faculties presenting Master's and Doctoral courses which are related to both technology and Business Education. This study focused on higher education, teacher education, school education, and vocational education (1.3.1; 1.7.3). The combination of the above types of education was important because relying on one type of education alone would not have provided sufficiently firm foundation for recommendations on Business Education for the 21st century. The exclusion criteria included theses and dissertations written in Afrikaans and theses and dissertations that were not available electronically.

4.10 Summary

In Chapter One (1.7.2), I anticipated that a meta-study might serve as a possible methodology to develop meta-trends concerning the intellectual projects on Business Education that Master's and Doctoral students had undertaken. In this chapter, I commenced by theoretically identifying this possibility. In this study qualitative research design, critical theory, purposive sampling, and document collection were employed to provide rich data for data analysis purposes. Atlas.ti™ software was used as an instrument for analysing a large number of theses and dissertations to determine semantic relations. Thematic analysis was used to analyse the data through a combination of open, axial and selective coding. Every effort was made to take account of trustworthiness, validity, and ethical considerations throughout the entire research process. This chapter concluded with a discussion of how the pilot study was conducted. The presentation of data, interpretations, and findings are reported in the next two chapters.

CHAPTER FIVE
PRESENTATION OF META-TRENDS

"We were also concerned to present alternative perspectives that can advance the discipline and create opportunities for deep transformation and innovation to become possible. In this sense, we see meta-study as an explorative gateway to unite theory and data so that new theoretical perspectives can emerge from the intersection."

(Du Preez & Simmonds, 2014:7)

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the research methodology was described in-depth. A meta-study enabled me to determine what intellectual projects Master's and Doctoral students in Business Education pursued. In this chapter, I highlight the important meta-trends that emerged from the data analysis process namely a) curriculum transformation in Business Education (5.2); b) the importance of 21st century skills within the Business Education curriculum (5.3); c) the role of entrepreneurship education within the Business Education curriculum (5.4); d) technological advancements and the Business Education curriculum (5.5); e) professional development of educators in Business Education (5.6); f) neo-liberalism and the Business Education curriculum (5.7); and g) dropout and retention rates in the Business Education curriculum (5.8). It is important to note that the quotations and references used in this chapter are taken from the theses and dissertations used in this study, and should not be confused with a review of the literature. Addendum C (the data register) provides an outline of the theses and dissertations used in this study. The outline gives the surname and initials of the Master's and Doctoral studies, year of submission, the degree, the descriptor of the degree (for example, dissertation or thesis), institution at which the study was done, and the title of the study. The manuscript of each of the studies is available in PDF-format on the Atlas.ti™ project which is presented in Addendum D.

5.2 Meta-trend one: curriculum transformation in Business Education

Educational transformation has taken place at both school and higher education levels (Roodt, 2009; Russel, 2009; Selesho, 2007; Venter, 2016; Wojtulewicz, 2011). As Venter (2016) argues, educators should, therefore, reflect on curriculum reform to have a conceptual understanding of how to transform their classroom practices. Concomitantly, "[t]he DBE should involve teachers in the changes that are implemented in order for teachers to take ownership of the changes and to be able to manage the implementation of a new curriculum if they are considered as integral

parts of the change process" (Venter, 2016:145). It should be noted that studies on transforming the Business Education curriculum focus on a variety of facets that needed to be taken into account (America, 2012; Coetzee, 2008; Dos Reis, 2012; Reyneke, 2016; Russel, 2009).

Coetzee (2008) suggests that a Business Education curriculum should be positioned as a career-oriented and interdisciplinary qualification to address current and future needs in Business Education. The Master's and Doctoral students in my study made recommendations for curriculum reform in Business Education content (5.2.1), teaching and learning practices in Business Education (5.2.2), and assessment trends in Business Education (5.2.3). The data revealed important 21st century skills that need to be considered when reforming the Business Education curriculum. Since numerous studies have focused on 21st century skills, I present this focus as a meta-trend (5.3) to stress its significance, and as part of a current trend.

5.2.1 Business Education content

The work of several of the Master's and Doctoral students highlighted content that needs to be considered during Business Education curriculum reform (Addendum C; Addendum D). Dos Reis (2012) and Schreuder (2014) assert that accounting should receive more attention in the school curriculum. Dos Reis (2012:135) argues that "several pre-teachers complained about learners' lack of previous knowledge taught in Accounting". Bray's (2007) research shows that accounting is not adequately incorporated into higher education marketing curricula. Wingfield (2016) focuses more specifically on the need to devote more attention to financial education methods as part of Business Education in the accounting curriculum. Financial education methods could equip students to plan and save for retirement effectively and thus help to ensure a sound financial future (Wingfield, 2016). Jacobs (2004) also reveals that the Business Education curriculum does not give enough attention to the techniques of managing accounts, cash flow management, and marginal costing of a product. Less attention should be given to regression analysis, target costing, and quality costing (Jacobs, 2004). Fouché (2006) recommends an introductory accounting course that includes a) the purpose of accounting; b) a conceptual framework of accounting (that highlights essential accounting concepts); and c) elements of the accounting cycle and financial statement elements. Meyers (2013) conducted an intervention where first-year students had to attend a compulsory accounting workshop. The purpose of this workshop was to "allow first-time accounting students the time and space to learn the basics of the discipline's academic discourse, rules and practices" (Meyers, 2013:136). These workshops were the equivalent of two weeks of lectures (Meyers, 2013).

Another unexplored area in the Business Education curriculum is the development of entrepreneurial skills and knowledge (Cook, 2011; Fouché, 2006; Greyling, 2007; Kgagara, 2011;

Mbanga, 2016; Mothabeng, 2012). Greyling (2007:15) offers a possible solution to this lack of entrepreneurship education in Business Education:

> [t]he entrepreneurship education curriculum is not being implemented uniformly and government must commit to doing so, whilst ensuring that educators and educational institutions are adequately motivated, inspired and equipped to play their respective roles in entrepreneurial development.

Sambo (2018) found that Business Studies does not adequately develop entrepreneurial knowledge and skills to encourage students to start their own businesses. This lends support to Naidoo (2011) who recommended that entrepreneurship education should be taught at primary and secondary school level to provide a knowledge and skill foundation for school leaving entrepreneurs. Naidoo (2011:76) highlighted the need for "prospective entrepreneurs [to] be identified early in secondary schools and nurtured from there on". Cook (2011) advised that educators enhance entrepreneurship education by using the available resources. A database of business ideas could be used to form a conceptual framework for accelerated entrepreneurship development of young people (Kgagara, 2011). To develop the above database, the curriculum should encourage youth entrepreneurship (Kgagara, 2011). Mbanga (2016) made a different recommendation, asserting that a curriculum should start by developing a sustainable entrepreneurial mindset which strongly encourage risk-taking. In her study, Mbanga (2016) found that entrepreneurs with entrepreneurship education take calculated risks to help them succeed in their businesses.

I present only a fraction of the data concerning entrepreneurship education in this meta-trend here. The attention that Master's and Doctoral students gave to the role and the value of entrepreneurship in the Business Education curriculum (Kgagara, 2011; Le Roux, 2003; Malindi, 2014, Olivier, 2017; Qoto; 2012) makes it a separate and important meta-trend to take note of (5.4). The data revealed that entrepreneurship is integrated into the various Business Education modules (Kgagara, 2011; Le Roux, 2003; Malindi, 2014; Olivier, 2017; Qoto; 2012); it is not a separate entity or module. Entrepreneurship education is introduced in Grades 10–12 as part of Business Studies, which is an optional subject (Qoto, 2012). Several studies have concluded that entrepreneurship should be a separate module in the Business Education curriculum because of its connection to the overall thrust of the 21st century and the skills that relate directly to it (Malindi, 2014; Mothabeng, 2012; Qoto, 2012). Le Roux (2003:47) affirms that "[e]ntrepreneurship should be included as part of C2005 as a separate entity" and that the "government has to find a way to include entrepreneurship as part of the national curriculum". Kgagara (2011) asserts that the management of higher education can help enhance entrepreneurial activities through specific interventions namely: a) introduction of entrepreneurship in the curriculum across all faculties; b)

establishment of a bureau for small business development; c) hosting of talk shows about entrepreneurship; and d) encouragement of students to be involved in business activities while studying part-time. Cook (2011) mentions that entrepreneurship education should be integrated across all Further Education and Training (FET) courses.

With regard to Economics, Kruger (2018) asserts that there is an absence of a theoretical framework for the inclusion of content in economic methodology. She stated that the prescriptions of MRTEQ guide the CAPS for Economics and that the modules only "reflect breadth of general principles required for prospective teachers" (Kruger, 2018:109). The MRTEQ lacks principles with regard to teaching Economics (Kruger, 2018). Fourie (2016:192) contends that

> [t]he world as we know it today is confronted with economic concepts and issues. Economics are facing debt crises, recessions and downturns in economic growth. Consumers are confronted daily with increasing food prices, a fluctuating oil price, unemployment and low wages, but despite the attention that has been given to economics in the years, economists have found that the public is very unfamiliar with economics and basic economic concepts. But how do economists know what the public's known understanding about economics is? Literature suggests that one should test a consumer's knowledge about economics, or more specifically, test the level of economy literacy.

This statement by Fourie (2016) reflects the view that economic literacy is one of the most critical aspects that need to be taken into account in the Business Education curriculum. Economic literacy provides the foundation for understanding any economic concepts (Fourie, 2016). Fourie (2016) advises using the Test of Understanding Economics in South Africa (TUESA) as a basis for developing a test of economic literacy. The Test of Understanding College Economics (TUCE) was developed by economists to test the economic literacy level of introductory level economics students in the United States of America (Fourie, 2016). Although it was developed for the American context, it could prove to be valuable in South Africa where "only 27 per cent of high school students enrolled for economics in Gr 10–12 in 2012 leaving 73 per cent of high school students only with economic knowledge gained in Gr 7–9" (Fourie, 2016:55).

Hence the suggestions made by Wojtulewicz (2011) for curriculum reform in Accounting, Entrepreneurship, and Economics, based on a study that highlights the need for subjects such as Business Ethics, Leadership, and Organisational Behaviour to form part of future Business Education curriculum developments. America (2012) gives an example of how to integrate sustainable development in the Business Education curriculum. The content of consumption, production patterns, and the business's role can explain how operations impact the environment

and society (America, 2012). Sustainable development content is fragmented in the CAPS-document. Therefore, Business Education educators should seek alternative means of encouraging the integration of sustainable development in the Business Education content in their teaching (America, 2012).

The research conducted by Coetzee (2008) mentions that *scholarship of integration* within the Business Education curriculum could help enhance sustainable development in business practices. The *scholarship of integration* argues that students need to learn a) how to integrate societal values within a firm's vision; b) how to integrate environmentally responsible practices in business; and c) how to ensure a global buy-in across different cultures, socio-economic developments, and mindsets (Coetzee, 2008).

Dos Reis (2012) recommends that educators and higher education institutions work together to develop a mentoring programme to meet the challenges pre-service teachers face during teaching practice. Dos Reis (2012:163) underlines the importance of keeping the South African context in mind when developing the mentoring programme:

> In the context of South Africa being a developing and diverse country, it is clear that a different approach to mentoring pre-service teachers must be devised to enhance teacher preparation, as opposed to mentoring approaches followed by developed countries.

The unequal education system in South Africa makes it difficult to find suitable mentors for pre-service teachers (Dos Reis, 2012). According to her, "[u]niversities develop a 'one-size-fits-all' approach" to mentoring pre-service teachers (Dos Reis, 2012:164). It is, therefore, essential to provide a clear motivation for the development of a mentoring programme.

There have been numerous calls to add content to the Business Education curriculum. However, Maistry's (1998) research indicates that the emphasis should not be on quantity, but on the quality of teaching the subject. He found that removing certain topics "enable[ed] teachers to teach fewer topics but in greater depth" (Maistry, 1998:78). Le Roux (2003) adds that approximately 10% of teaching time is allocated to EMS, but this is not sufficient to teach EMS in breadth and depth. The answer to this problem may well lie in reducing the content in EMS as Maistry (1998) found in the case of Business Education.

5.2.2 Teaching and learning practices in Business Education

Enderstein's (2015:98) research indicates that "the curriculum is limited in that it cannot teach everything that would be required in the field of practice". Educators should consider several

elements in the teaching-learning environment: the type of students, the subject content, the teaching methodology, and the teaching-learning milieu (Fouché, 2006). Akerman (2012:81) states that educators should focus on making Business Education a vital and interesting subject:

> If the subject is to develop and expand, educators will need to adopt new strategies to attract and keep the right learners.

According to Meyers (2013), exclusive use of textbooks is common in the accounting curriculum. Meyers (2013:132) elaborates:

> [t]he field of pedagogical reconceptualisation is constructed around a textbook, and knowledge particularly at the first semester level – is not contested in any significant way. This in return means that the curriculum in all 4 years of the Accounting programme is fairly rigid.

Pele (2014:131) supports Meyers's (2013) argument stating that "[t]he textbook should not be used extensively in the classroom. It should only be used to guide the lesson in terms of content to be covered". Most educators who use technology use only PowerPoint. Sekhukhune (2008) recommends innovative teaching-learning strategies that use advanced technological tools or activities that are student-centred. Waghid (2012) argues that using games, movies, simulations, and social networks is a more effective way of explaining concepts than using PowerPoint.

Master's and Doctoral students recommend several possible teaching-learning strategies that can be used in Business Education. Among them, Minnaar (2018) recommends the use of appropriate games in Business Education. The educator should ensure that a) the game is aligned with the curriculum; b) the game should promote engagement in the teaching-learning milieu; c) the game should be accessible and flexible so it is easy to use; and d) the game should be a teaching aid (Minnaar, 2018). Fouché (2006:217) also highlights the value of using games in Accounting, stating that "it would indeed address all the elements of the teaching-learning environment and enhance the technical and other skills required". However, he warns that it is important to ensure that the games are not too time-consuming (Fouché, 2006). Educators should also make an introductory DVD that explains the rules or procedures and facilitate the content before the students play the game (Fouché, 2006). These are examples of games that can be used in Business Education:

i. Auditing: Students perform small audits of records completed by other students;

ii. Management accounting: This game incorporate manufacturing and inventories; and

iii. Taxation: the game could include different taxes and apply tax applications. This game can focus on foreign exchange and stock markets (Fouché, 2006).

Waghid (2012) encourages the use of the computer game 'Civilisation'. Civilisation demonstrates the different stages of economic development, involving students in making certain decisions related to diplomacy and societal development to build an enduring empire (Waghid, 2012). Civilisation could encourage the development of leadership skills that would benefit society (Waghid, 2012). In her study, Minnaar (2018) explores the use of the game 'Commercium', which covers the topics of the EMS and Accounting curriculum. The game, which is easy to use, consists of different levels to accommodate the age and the ability of a student (Minnaar, 2018). Other games that fit into this dynamic pedagogical approach to economics are Civilisation and SimCity, which could help shape different forms of communication and collaboration (Waghid, 2012). Sithole (2012) lists websites where non-computerised business games and simulations can be downloaded that help students to learn the principles of business.

The use of social networks (Facebook and Twitter) and other media should be considered a teaching-learning aid (Waghid, 2012). Waghid (2012:158) demonstrates how a movie like 'The Gods must be crazy' can be used to "show Grade 10 Economic students the shift from one stage of economic development to the next". Using emails can possibly be considered another teaching-learning strategy, but more research is necessary before this idea can be endorsed (Thomas, 2006).

Mokane (1998) advocates the use of brainstorming in the Business Education classroom, an excellent method to generate ideas in a short time. Mokane (1998) adds that brainstorming should be used in conjunction with other teaching-learning strategies. Reyneke (2016) and Sithole (2012) advocate the use of case studies, a method of which few educators are aware (Reyneke, 2016). Educators can use the ideas in Sithole (2012) to design case studies to connect students to current business issues. Newspapers, government publications, packaging materials, and business magazines can all be used to create case studies for the Business Education classroom (Pele, 2014; Sithole, 2012). Reyneke (2016) recommends that this valuable aid, should be introduced as early as possible in all education levels.

One of the problems at school level is that "[m]ost Economics teachers do not arrange for learners to see how economic theories are put into practice in various settings" (Lugayeni, 1999:147). As an alternative to case studies, schools can hold a careers day and tertiary institutions can have enterprise weeks (Kgagara, 2011; Lugayeni, 1999). People from the commercial sector can be invited to assist in linking the school context with the business sector (Lugayeni, 1999). Another possibility is that schools could invite successful business owners to act as role models or mentors

for students taking Business Studies as a subject (Sambo, 2018). Lugayeni (1999) also proposes that educators take students to big businesses to give them a holistic picture of how economic theory is manifested in practice. These field trips to businesses can help students discover answers for themselves in various contexts (Sithole, 2012). A suggestion that applies to the tertiary level is that Economics lecturers should speak to students about Business Education; this way, students obtain first-hand information from specialists (Mokane, 1998).

The above approaches to teaching-leaning might make learning more authentic. Meyers (2013:133) asserts that "[h]aving an expert explain the principles is most beneficial for students when trying to understand topics, as they could struggle to make sense of the discipline on their own". Visits from professionals to advise Grade 9 students who need to make subject choices is another effective way of using experts to enhance learning (Letshwene, 2014). They could offer questions and encourage students to take Accounting as a subject in Grades 10–12 (Letshwene, 2014). But before they can use any of these approaches, Pele (2014:130) argues, educators must first "acknowledge their lack of commitment towards mediation of learning".

Another approach that promotes learning is progressive teaching. In this approach, the focus is placed on the students but does not discount the role of educators (Flanagan, 2014). Educators have to ensure that the lesson requires active participation (a student-centred lesson) and that they are well-prepared to play the role of knowledge experts (Flanagan, 2014). Many of the Master's and Doctoral students in this study recommended that cooperative learning (a form of group work) be used in the Business Education classrooms (Du Toit, 2007; Pele, 2014; Thomas, 2006; Van Wyk, 2007). The purpose of the study done by Van Wyk (2007) was to design a framework for the implementation of cooperative learning in the economics classroom, specifically in the Further Education and Training (FET) phase. Van Wyk (2007) suggests that different assessment strategies be implemented, for instance using cooperative learning to do diagnostic assessment (educators can do observations), formative assessment (informal learning), and summative assessment. Cooperative learning promotes intergroup relations and cross-culture relations, where students can learn through interaction with one another in which they consider different perspectives (Thomas, 2006). Although cooperative learning offers many benefits, there are many disadvantages or challenges associated with using this strategy (Du Toit, 2007; Thomas, 2006; Van Wyk, 2007). Students who lack self-confidence may be reluctant to speak in the class or may feel vulnerable when interacting with others or answering questions because they fear embarrassment (Thomas, 2006). Du Toit (2007:57) explains a possible result: "some individuals absent themselves from group work and concentrate on individual study". This leads to the disintegration of groups and leads to feelings such as resentment about perceived unfairness, unhappiness, or conflict (Du Toit, 2007). According to Pele (2014), educators should

provide an environment where students feel comfortable about speaking or answering questions. Pele (2014:130) also mentions that "[t]he educator is the manager of the classroom and needs to initiate such a learning environment". Van Wyk (2007) recommends that educators analyse and reflect on the effectiveness of group sessions. He presents a few guidelines to bear in mind before implementing cooperative learning: a) educators should ensure that each student and each group receive feedback on the effectiveness of the teamwork; b) educators should ensure that students reflect on the feedback as mentioned in point a); c) educators should try to support individual group members to improve their performance; and d) educators should encourage groups to celebrate their hard work and achievements (Van Wyk, 2007).

Master's and Doctoral students indicate that educators should not only focus on the use of different teaching-learning strategies but also on factors that could influence teaching and learning in Business Education classrooms (Aboo, 2017; Akerman, 2012; Letshwene, 2014; Ngwenya, 2012; Nkalane, 2015; Thomas, 2006). Non-academic factors can influence the teaching-learning process; for example, "employment related and household responsibilities are more likely to create difficulties, particularly in the midst of socio-economic circumstances" (Aboo, 2017:34). Further research should be done on how socio-economic factors influence the students' performance in Accounting (Letshwene, 2014). Ngwenya (2012) comments that educators often acknowledge the students' background when selecting teaching-learning strategies, but they fail to take account of the nature of their rural school context. Another factor is that many students do not enjoy the classroom environment when there are too many students in one class because that makes teaching and learning impersonal (Pele, 2014; Thomas, 2006). Aboo (2017), Nkalane (2015), and Van Wyk (2007) note that language barriers can also influence the teaching-learning process. Furthermore, a variety of factors, such as the lack of students' commitment, chronic absenteeism, and load shedding, can have an impact on the teaching-learning process (Nkalane, 2015). Educators mentioned that more time should be allocated on the schools' timetable for Business Studies (Sithole, 2012). Educators also stated that they could not use action-orientated teaching-learning strategies because that would prevent them from completing the Business Studies syllabus in time (Sithole, 2012). Akerman (2012) recommends that the value of Business Studies is highlighted when Grade 9 students have to choose subjects. Sithole (2012:168) recommends that

> [o]ne way to ensure that Business Studies teachers pedagogical practices are aligned with those prescribed by curriculum planners would be for education authorities and school administrators to put in place support structures aimed at monitoring and ensuring that the delivery of business education is done according to the stipulated

business curriculum standards as well as enforcing the fulfilment of pedagogical practices set in the syllabi.

Olivier (2002:3) demonstrates the link between the curriculum, assessment, and teaching-learning practices by stating that "[i]n order for assessment to meet the requirements of an Outcome Based Education approach, it was necessary to change teaching practices as well". The next section, therefore, explores data on assessment trends in Business Education.

5.2.3 Assessment trends in Business Education

Educators should change assessment methods so they can adapt to curriculum transformations of the past years (Russel, 2009). These new assessment methods should aim at fostering skills that are necessary for the workplace. As Hollis-Turner (2008:110) asserts, "much current assessment is inadequate to help prepare students for a lifetime of learning". New assessment methods should foster reflective thinking, self-evaluation skills, life-long learning, and problem-solving skills (Hollis-Turner, 2008). This would counter the current situation in which, as Venter (2016:145) points out, the "[a]ims of the curriculum end up becoming aims of the examination and many teachers actually teach to the NSC examination without allocating enough time to the development of the skill of independent research". Referring to higher education, Reyneke (2016) urges that examination structures of Open Distance Learning (ODL) institutions should not be too prescriptive, and that alternative ways of assessment should be investigated, such as case-study based examination papers. Innovative assessment methods, such as peer and self-evaluation assessment, need to be employed to give students practice in making the kind of judgments and decisions required in the workplace (Hollis-Turner, 2008).

Various Master's and Doctoral students recommend possible forms of assessment in Business Education (Du Plessis, 2007; Flanagan, 2014; Meyers, 2013; Pele, 2014). In line with these, Meyers (2013) recommends an accounting assignment workshop that offers students expert guidance, time and space. Pele (2014) suggests questioning as another effective method of assessment of content knowledge. In this method, students receive guidance in the form of hints to enable them to reach the answers required in the assessment tasks (Pele, 2014). Practical business contexts should also be used to assist students to arrive at answers (Pele, 2014). Similarly, Flanagan (2014) argues that authentic assessment tools should be used to establish whether the students have reached the appropriate outcomes. Written assignments, performance-based tasks, research projects, and portfolios are recommended ways of using authentic assessment in Business Education (Flanagan, 2014). Du Plessis (2007) also supports the use of assessment portfolios in Accounting to reach and promote an in-depth approach to learning. The data indicated that the involvement of the South African Institute of Chartered

Accountants (SAICA) in the assessment of Accounting at higher education levels might be useful in this regard, but more in-depth research is necessary first (Olivier, 2002). From another angle, Du Plessis (2007:169) advises that "Bloom's revised taxonomy should be researched, to be used in the question format of different types of assessment tasks in Accounting" and thus ensure an in-depth learning approach to higher cognitive levels.

5.3 Meta-trend two: the importance of 21st century skills within the Business Education curriculum

5.3.1 Integration of 21st century skills in the Business Education curriculum

Dos Reis (2012) found that pre-service teachers are not adequately trained to teach accounting because educators lack pedagogical content knowledge. Fouché (2006) agrees with Dos Reis (2012), stating that accounting education focuses only on the transfer of knowledge. As a result, students are not adequately equipped to meet the demands of the workplace. The low throughput rate in public higher education institutions in South Africa suggests that not enough is being done to reduce the skills shortages and thus contribute to the economy (Aboo, 2017). Agbenyegah (2013), Barnard (2012), and Wojtulewicz (2011) confirm the effect that a skills shortage, especially in managerial skills, could have on the performance of the economy. This exacerbates poverty, income inequality, unemployment, weak entrepreneurial performance and the inability to compete globally. Sekhukhune (2008) makes it clear that skills shortages are a national problem in South Africa that need to be investigated and addressed.

> The South African labour market is characterised by an over-supply of unskilled workers. The situation of developing and improving skills is moving at a very slow pace, because many students who are supposed to complete their studies at institutions of higher education learning are dropping out before completion of a qualification (Sekhukhune, 2008:88).

Fouché (2006) found that students were not prepared to communicate effectively, or solve problems, and did not have interpersonal skills. The reason for that may lie in educator education, both pre-service and in-service. Dos Reis (2012) argues that educators lack pedagogical content knowledge because there is insufficient mentoring. Schreuder (2014:206) underlines that the "one constant in education is that it is ever-changing". The schooling system should be transformed to sustain an interactive and imaginative implementation of the curriculum and to equip students with the necessary skills (Schreuder, 2014). In similar vein, Maistry (2005:303) argues that Business Education research is "essentially 'undercharted' waters in South African educational research" and that other disciplines such as mathematics, science, and language

education are more attuned to the 21st century. Kgagara (2011) and Sekhukhune (2008) recommend that curriculum development should focus on designing programmes that are career-orientated rather than academically-orientated Fouché (2006:1) also supports the notion of transforming the curriculum to be more skill- and career-orientated because "education, which has remained substantially the same over the past 50 years, is generally inadequate for the future". Taking a different view, Sambo (2018) makes a case for integrating theory and practice, for example, offering students an opportunity to acquire knowledge about market research before they try to embark on a business venture.

Various studies have been conducted by Master's and Doctoral students on promoting skills in the Business Education curriculum (Bray, 2007; Fouché, 2006; Matemane, 2016; Sithole, 2012). In the following sections, the different types of skills required in the 21st century are outlined.

Flanagan (2014) and Odendaal (2015) recommend that educators should discourage memorisation of learning and rote learning and should rather focus on problem-based learning as proposed in the CAPS-document. Fouché (2006) emphasises that the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants advises that the curriculum for accounting education should be integrated with problem-solving and critical thinking, interpersonal skills, team-building skills, written communication skills, and the effective use of technology. Earlier, Jacobs (2004) established that good communication skills, technological skills, teamwork, and analytical skills are required to demonstrate a good understanding of Accounting and comprehend business functions.

Business Education students see essential skills in business courses as including a) strategic insight, b) management and leadership skills, c) decision-making skills, d) finance analysis skills, e) entrepreneurial skills, f) innovative information system skills, g) operations problem analysis skills, h) global planning and organisation skills, and i) research skills (Coetzee, 2008; Kgagara, 2011; Mokane, 1998; Williams, 2012; Qoto, 2012). Team dynamics, creative thinking, innovation, and problem-solving are also essential skills for the 21st century.

Katunga (2013) makes a strong case for emphasising ICT-user skills (known as e-skills) in the Business Education curriculum. These ICT user skills consist of digital skills, computer skills, and electronic literacy. Ariail (2017:93), who is also in favour of including ICT user skills in the Business Education, cites Maccoby (1976:184-185) to support his view: "[c]orporate work in advanced technology stimulates and reinforces attitudes essential for intellectual innovation and teamwork, qualities of the head. And those are the work traits required for work". The problem is that not all educators have embraced ICT as a pedagogical learning instrument (Ariail, 2017). Educators are not reluctant to use ICT, but they lack the ICT equipment and facilities to do so

(Sithole, 2012). The study by Ariail, in contrast, argues that qualities of the heart, such as compassion and generosity, are undeveloped and undervalued.

America (2012), Mkhize (2015) and Waghid (2012) mention that the Business Education curriculum (in the four learning outcomes of macroeconomics, microeconomics, economic pursuit, and contemporary economic issues) should prepare students to participate in a complex economic society where healthy environments, sustainable development, and social justice are major concerns. The acquisition of economic skills should result in an awareness of democratic action and values (America, 2012; Mkhize, 2015; Waghid, 2012).

A number of the Master's and Doctoral studies propose methods to integrate 21st century skills in the Business Education curriculum (Coetzee, 2008; Du Toit, 2007; Hollis-Turner, 2008; Korpel, 2004; Reyneke, 2016; Sithole, 2012; Van Wyk, 2007, Weyers, 2010). A few of these proposals are discussed next.

Board games, which offer effective and enjoyable ways of learning, enable students and educators to obtain soft and technical skills (Fouché, 2006). Groupwork is seen as a useful means of developing team skills in the workplace. Groupwork in Business Education could promote diversity within groups and social interaction skills (Du Toit, 2007; Mokane, 1998; Olivier, 2002). Olivier (2002) suggests that the rules for group work should be negotiated with students as this will instil a sense of ownership and a willingness to abide by the rules. The rules for group work should be established prior to the lesson to avoid wasting teaching-learning time (Olivier, 2002). Van Wyk (2007) agrees that group work is effective in Economics, but educators should make sure that they give feedback to each group. After the groups have received feedback, they need to analyse and reflect on the effectiveness of their tasks (Van Wyk, 2007). Educators must support individual group members to improve their work and celebrate their fellow members' hard work (Van Wyk, 2007).

Accounting and entrepreneurial education might help to develop essential skills that are required by employers in the 21st century. Accounting is one of the scarce disciplines and skills in South Africa (Sekhukhune, 2008). A significant number of students who enrol for Accounting degrees drop out in their second year of studies (Sekhukhune, 2008). The reason is that students face countless challenges that they were not prepared for, and institutions are not making additional efforts to address them (Sekhukhune, 2008). Entrepreneurship education is another vital skill for economic growth and development; it prepares students to be financially independent, and promote self-worth (Dikgwatlhe, 2014; Kalitanyi, 2015). Niyonkuru (2005) argues that skill integration and discovery methods of teaching entrepreneurship education should be underlined in the curriculum.

5.3.2 Recommendations for the development of 21st century skills

Several studies address the need to develop various skills in the Business Education curriculum (Keyser, 2013; Kruger, 2018; Maistry, 1998; Reyneke, 2016; Russel, 2009; Taft, 2003; Westraad, 2001). Flanagan (2014) asserts that the principle of integration should be used when teaching Business Education. The principle of integration requires that educators teach students *skills to learn* in any subject and not only focus on the content of a specific subject. Projects can be developed where content is aligned with the requirements of the industry (Russel, 2009).

Adding to the proposal for enhancing the principle of integration, Westraad (2001) examines the Ready for Business Program. This programme was piloted by Siyabona Education Trust between 1997 and 2000 as a Delta Foundation project (Westraad, 2001). The Ready for Business Programme, which was designed in consultation with higher education institutions and businesses, support students from disadvantaged backgrounds to obtain the necessary skills in Business Studies (Westraad, 2001). The Ready for Business Programme considered life roles essential for the 21st century. These life roles were developed in accordance with SAQA's five 'role-based' critical outcomes, and other 'skill-based' critical outcomes were embodied in the exit outcomes (Westraad, 2001). In her research, Westraad (2001) found that although students did not internalise the outcomes, they could explain the programme's key aspects, for instance life roles were mentioned by most students. These should be taken into account in curriculum development processes (Westraad, 2001).

Networks or partnerships in Business Education are strongly advised (Maistry, 1998; Meyer, 2009; Ramasedi, 2013; Russel, 2009; Sekhukhune, 2008; Taft, 2003; Qoto, 2012). Taft (2003) describes Business Education networks or partnerships as co-operative relationships that hold benefits for business and education. Maistry's (1998) perspective on Business Education partnerships consists of a close relationship between Economics educators, examiners, and subject advisors. As proposed by Maistry (1998), the above partnership could cultivate a common ground about what economics teaching -learning and assessment practices should occur at education institutions. Networks or partnerships in Business Education can be used to gain knowledge and explore the global trends in Business Education (Meyer, 2009). These networks or partnerships could include business stakeholders, family, and friends in South Africa and networks or partnerships with other countries (Meyer, 2009; Qoto, 2012). Networks or partnerships with other countries are essential since the need arises to transform the system of education into quality education, there will be an escalation of tuition fees, which will encourage the establishments of partnerships in order to solicit funding to augment the limited budgets (Ramasedi, 2013:84).

Sekhukhune (2008) advocates that higher education institutions should have advisory committees that represent professional bodies such as South African Institute of Charted Accountants (SAICA), South African Institute of Professional Accountants (SAIPA), and the Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA). These committees are likely to offer suggestions and information that could advise institutions on what is expected in the workplace (Sekhukhune, 2008).

5.4 Meta-trend three: the role of entrepreneurship education within the Business Education curriculum

5.4.1 Entrepreneurial development

It is evident from the Master's and Doctoral studies that entrepreneurship education should be an independent subject or module in the Business Education curriculum (Le Roux, 2003; Naidoo, 2011; Sambo, 2018; Sathorar, 2009; Qoto, 2012). As Qoto (2012:112) argues,

> [e]ntrepreneurship education should be offered as an optional separate subject to all learners and not only as part of Business Studies. This will help to equip all learners with entrepreneurship skills and also address the problems highlighted by educators of time constraints thus ensuring that there is enough time for practical implementation.

Similarly, Sambo (2018:76) stresses that

> Business Studies alone does not prepare learners to become entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurship has to be included in the National Curriculum Statement for high school learners as a separate subject and not as a topic or a learning outcome in Business Studies.

Le Roux (2003) draws on the work of Nel and Badenhorst-Weiss (2003) who concluded that the government should find a way of including entrepreneurship in the national curriculum. Qoto (2012) also considers that it is the government's responsibility to ensure that entrepreneurship education becomes an independent subject. Malebana (2012:582) makes the suggestion that "[t]he government can through the media encourage entrepreneurship as a career and develop an entrepreneurial culture". Barnard (2012) suggests that research should be conducted on whether government initiatives offer effective support to young entrepreneurs. Sathorar (2009) believes that entrepreneurial development is multi-faceted and complex. Therefore, it requires the commitment of all role-players to integrating entrepreneurial education in the curriculum.

Educators should be consulted when policies are developed concerning entrepreneurial education (Qoto, 2012). Nchu (2015) and Sathorar (2009) add that all stakeholders, such as parents and business owners, should be involved.

Naidoo (2011) adds that entrepreneurship education should be taught at primary and secondary educational levels so that school leavers have a better foundation for being an entrepreneur. Prospective entrepreneurs should be identified early in their secondary school levels so they can be given appropriate support and encouragement (Naidoo, 2011). Entrepreneurship education should include trade and technical skills (Naidoo, 2011). It should also include specific skills, such as reliance, creativity, and problem-solving skills (Nchu, 2015). If entrepreneurship education is presented as an independent subject, students may be inspired to start-up their own businesses, not merely to become business managers (Sambo, 2018). Prospective entrepreneurs need to have people skills and be able to create ideas and focus strongly on their goals (Sambo, 2018).

Mungroo (2010:iv) argues that the "reason for the growth and importance of entrepreneurship is the widespread nature of capitalism that presents business opportunities". It also notes that entrepreneurship can offer a competitive edge to countries and create opportunities for employment (Mungroo, 2010). Similarly, Nchu (2015) sees the goal of entrepreneurship as the development of entrepreneurs, creation of employment opportunities and the promotion of economic growth and development. Qoto (2012:iii) explains that the [t]he emergence of an entrepreneurial spirit is the most significant economic development in the twenty-first century" because it offers opportunities for employment when the "formal employment sector is no longer able to provide jobs for the increasing number of unemployed people". The world has moved to a time of entrepreneurialism where innovation and commercialisation take place at a faster pace (Kgagara, 2011; Malan, 2016).

A majority of Master's and Doctoral students strongly agree that entrepreneurship education should not only focus on the transfer of knowledge but also practical facets of entrepreneurship (Kalitanyi, 2015; Kgagara, 2011; Lugayeni, 1999; Malebana, 2012; Olivier, 2016; Sathorar, 2009). Business Education educators should invite guest speakers such as successful entrepreneurs to convince students that entrepreneurship is feasible (Lugayeni, 1999; Malebana, 2012). Using material from the media that portray entrepreneurial success stories in lessons could encourage young business start-up activities (Malebana, 2012). Kgagara (2011) suggests having entrepreneurial weeks at higher education institutions during which students could operate a business on campus. There are a number of other valuable ideas or techniques. Niyonkuru (2005) suggests workshops, networking, and role-play. Focusing on the world outside school or higher education institutions, Kgagara (2011) suggests that mentorship and a start-up grant will encourage entrepreneurship. Financial, marketing, and networking support are what

entrepreneurs, especially women, need most (Meyer, 2009). Le Roux (2003) makes a more fundamental suggestion: what is needed is an entrepreneurial learning mode. However, policymakers would need to develop content to address problems related explicitly to entrepreneurship in the South African context first (Le Roux, 2003).

Niyonkuru (2005) recommends that a framework be used where various strategies are presented to develop entrepreneurial education at higher education levels. These strategies could include how best to manage available resources to enhance entrepreneurial education (Cook, 2011). Taking a different view, Greyling (2007) encourages the use of a framework that includes a dynamic platform from which role players can identify their respective roles in entrepreneurial development.

Scholars recommend that further research should be conducted with regard to a) establishing the relationship between entrepreneurship education and economic growth and development; b) benefits of women entrepreneurship within the South African context; c) enhancement of entrepreneurial sustainability; d) promotion of awareness of entrepreneurship as part of the curriculum across all faculties; and e) the investigation into the possibility of establishing a bureau for small business development at higher education level (Kgagara, 2011; Meyer, 2009; Nchu, 2015; Niyonkuru, 2005).

5.4.2 Entrepreneurial skills in the Business Education curriculum

Kgagara (2011:1) presents the view that

> [e]ntrepreneurship plays an important role in economic prosperity and social stability in many developed countries. South Africa faces massive challenges with its high levels of unemployment among the young especially university graduates due to lack of work experience, low skills and education.

Similarly, Kilasi (2013:171) believes that "[a]wareness creation can take the form of promoting necessary entrepreneurial skills for graduates as perceived by lecturers across disciplines". Risk tolerance and risk-taking can be seen as one of the essential skills to be developed in entrepreneurial education; more attention to this skill in the curriculum is necessary (Kgagara, 2011).

Qoto (2012) elaborates on the lack of quality entrepreneurial education in the Business Education curriculum. Students have limited exposure to business issues and are not adequately prepared to put their entrepreneurship skills into practice (Qoto, 2012). Innovation and creativity could be encouraged if students were given the opportunity to participate in business simulations

(Kalitanyi, 2015; Malan, 2016; Qoto, 2012). Olutuase (2017) notes that entrepreneurship education will only be effectively implemented if educators have a strong desire to develop their entrepreneurial teaching competence. Educators should be more passionate about entrepreneurship education. It seems that they lack enthusiasm and so are unable to excite their students' interest in it (Olutuase, 2017). As Greyling (2007:xvi) puts it, "[e]ducators' inadequacies as a result of their lack of business experience and entrepreneurial orientation and the perceived need for entrepreneurship education require urgent attention, if educators are to serve as appropriate role models".

A number of the Master's and Doctoral students aimed at identifying the entrepreneurial outcomes the Business Education curriculum have (Katunga, 2013; Malebana, 2012; Ramasedi, 2013; Sambo, 2018). They concluded that the outcomes for entrepreneurship education should include having leadership skills, knowing principles of good governance, having the competence to use e-skills, having people skills, being able to be creative, having problem solving skills, being able to act proactively, and having the determination and self-discipline to achieve objectives (Katunga, 2013; Ramasedi, 2013; Sambo, 2018). Malebana (2012) lists technical skills, business skills, and skills associated with the different stages of the entrepreneurial process. These skills were highlighted since it is crucial to be able to evaluate market opportunities, identify the resources required, manage a project, and develop a new venture. Malebana's (2012:581) reason for viewing entrepreneurial development as important is that "HEIs in rural provinces can make a positive contribution to employment creation and poverty alleviation by encouraging the entrepreneurial spirit through entrepreneurship education and training".

5.5 Meta-trend four: technological advancements and the Business Education curriculum

5.5.1 Technology as a learning tool

Thomas (2006:1) asserts that

> [t]oday's students represent the first generation to grow up with this new technology…What should we call these "new" students of today? ... But the most useful designation I have found for them is Digital Natives. Our students today are all 'native speakers' of the digital language of computers, video games and the internet.

In addition to the above, Akerman (2012) notes that educators should ensure that the subject is relevant to day-to-day living, use of electronic and visual aids, as well as business games, and arrange outings to significant agencies. Sithole (2012:179) contends that educational

stakeholders should “invest now in transforming schools into e-learning environments”. However, the main problem facing education today is educators who were not born in the digital world, sometimes referred to as Digital Immigrants (Thomas, 2006). Digital Immigrants are instructors “who speak an outdated language (that of the pre-digital age), are struggling to teach a population that speaks an entirely new language” (Thomas, 2006:1). New strategies such as eLearning need to be adopted in the classroom to improve learning and business performance (Akerman, 2012; Korpel, 2004). Reyneke (2016) also argues for eLearning initiatives to be introduced and promoted, particularly with respect to Open Distance Learning (ODL) students, to facilitate their comprehension of the content. Fouché (2006) proposes that innovative teaching approaches be used in classrooms. These include using learner-centred teaching; facilitating lifelong learning; incorporating appropriate multi-media; cultivating competencies required for students; and integrating technology in teaching-learning activities.

Jacobs (2004) shows that information technology skills should be a high priority in Business Education so students are able to maintain their value in the work place. Sithole (2012) also sees information technology as an essential element of the knowledge economy and points out that it is an acknowledged key instrument for developing teaching-learning strategies. In effect, as Katunga’s (2013) scholarship on Business Education illustrates, technology is continuously evolving. This means that the methods providing e-support might change and should be kept in mind when preparing for teaching-learning activities (Fakoya-Michael, 2017). In similar vein, Van der Ross (2015:118) makes the point that “[t]echnological environments are evolving regularly and it is the responsibility of role players to stay abreast with developments in rapidly growing industries”.

If information technology is integrated innovatively in the Business Education curriculum, learning could become an enriching experience for both educators and students (Sithole, 2012). Information technology has become a fast-growing industry in recent years in which technologies are constantly being upgraded and new technologies are being introduced (Van der Ross, 2015). The integration of information technology would shift the notion that the educators should be at the centre of teaching-learning (Sithole, 2012). Research, however, has indicated that information technology skills have not received satisfactory attention in Business Education (Jacobs, 2004). Educators have not embraced the integration of information technology as a pedagogical tool largely because of the shortage of equipment (Sithole, 2012). However, the shortage of technological equipment should not limit education. Educators should be creative and have sufficient financial independence to obtain innovative learning materials (Sithole, 2012).

Sissing’s (2007) research indicated that 90 per cent of the respondents strongly agreed that being able to use IT is a business advantage. Several of the other Master’s and Doctoral students

highlighted the technological learning tools that can be used in Business Education (Breedt, 2015; Fouché, 2006; Minnaar, 2018; Sithole, 2012; Van der Westhuizen, 1999; Waghid, 2012). Board games such as Commercium were recommended as a way of promoting accounting learning (Fouché, 2006; Minnaar, 2018). Waghid (2012) and Sithole (2012) suggested that social media (Facebook and Twitter), computer games (Civilisation), simulations (SimCity), and movies could be valuable resources for teaching Business Education in the 21st century. Electronic communication (for example, emails) can help students who lack confidence to participate actively in classroom discussions (Thomas, 2006).

It has been reported that eLearning (referred to as online education or virtual classrooms) should not entirely replace face-to-face teaching-learning initiatives because students still need to connect with educators personally to retain the human element (Thomas, 2006; Van der Westhuizen, 1999). Fakoya-Michael's (2017) research shows that students require face-to-face interaction because not all students have the competence to search for information electronically. Students indicated a low level of use of their education institution's library since they do not know how to do research or to schedule an electronic library reservation (Fakoya-Michael, 2017). Distance and full-time students tend to use libraries outside their institution as they are easier to access and do not require electronic reservations (Fakoya-Michael, 2017). Therefore, to change this situation, Qoto (2012) emphasises the importance of enabling students to acquire computer skills.

Thomas (2006) advocates that education institutions should invest in the use of a Learning Management System (LMS). LMS gives educators the opportunity to create online quizzes, start online discussions, and present tutorials for students (Thomas, 2006). LMS can be used for the introduction of the course, doing assessments, and promote communication between educators and students (Thomas, 2006). When content knowledge is hard to grasp, debate and reflection can assist in comprehending the necessary knowledge (Thomas, 2006). LMS can be used to create an online forum where students can communicate with one another to debate and reflect on Business Education content (Thomas, 2006). Instead, Van der Westhuizen (1999) proposes online education in the form of conferencing tools such as newsgroups (Usenets), Internet Relay Chat (IRC), Multi-user domains (MUD's), Bulletin board services (BBS), and Multi-Object Orientated (MOO's).

For technological advances to be used optimally in the classroom, resources such as computers, projectors, and whiteboards are a necessity (Sithole, 2012). Lugayeni (1999) reveals that a large number of respondents indicated that they did not have access to resources other than their textbooks. When Business Education is limited to the textbook, it could make Business Education meaningless and abstract to students (Lugayeni, 1999). Similarly, Mokane (1998:39)

recommends that educators should use other resources because his findings show that educators saw the textbook as an “invaluable teaching aid”. In the next section, I highlight possible future directions for technological advancement in Business Education.

5.5.2 Recommendations for the use of technology in Business Education

Only a few of the studies explored technological aids in Business Education. Some of the discussions of future directions in Business Education focus only on general pedagogical methods of teaching that do not necessarily include technology (Breedt, 2015; Flanagan, 2014; Fouché, 2006; Katunga, 2013; Qoto, 2012; Van der Westhuizen, 1999). The suggested use of technology included promotion of self-study and lifelong-learning through the use of an unstructured learning environment; student participation in the Johannesburg Stock Exchange liberty challenge game where students can learn about investment opportunities and risk-taking; engagement in co-operative learning groups such as Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD), Jigsaw, group investigations and Teams-Games-Tournaments; and implementation of Computer Aided Learning (CAL) and integrated subject-specific software.

5.6 Meta-trend five: professional development of educators in Business Education

5.6.1 Professional development strategies in Business Education

Sithole (2012) draws on a description of professional development stated by Komba and Nkumbi (2008). Komba and Nkumbi (2008) report that professional development is a process of activities to augment professional growth during one’s career. A finding confirmed by Kruger (2018) is that educators need continuous professional development to enable them to create and maintain a theoretical framework to support their practice. Olivier (2002) believes that no amount of training can entirely prepare educators for their practice and that the real test comes when they are in the classroom. Similarly, Roodt (2009:77) argues that “in service training program will enhance the employability of graduates” and Sekhukhune (2008:91) urges that there should be negotiations “with industry for in service training of the students that will enable the students to link their theory to practice”.

Selesho (2007), notes that students believe that they can teach Business Education once they are trained. However, this is a misconception. Dos Reis (2012) found that students have inadequate skills and limited knowledge of Business Education and require a mentor to support them in their classrooms. Breedt (2015), Dos Reis (2012), Schreuder (2014), and Susani (2017)

concluded that professional development, through mentorship is what is needed most in teaching Accounting. Lombard (2009:47) points out that

> [t]he more the mentor is engaged in facilitating the learning relationship, the more the facilitator engages the mentee in the learning process by creating a climate conductive to learning.

A variety of different suggestions for further research with regard to professional development (Beck, 2011; Kruger, 2018; Schreuder, 2014; Sithole, 2012) were mentioned. These include self-reflection after collaboration between educators and subject advisors; promotion of in-service development workshops to update Business Education pedagogy; and increased dialogue between colleagues to share experiences and best practices for Business Education.

A few studies have proposed that the Department of Education should play a role in professional development. It can offer different courses, seminars, workshops, and in-service training for Business Education educators (Lugayeni, 1999). The appointment of subject advisors can support educators in aspects such as designing and completing lesson plans as well as structuring outcomes and assessment criteria (Olivier, 2002). Sambo (2018) strongly recommends that the Department of Basic Education should make special provision in the policy framework to support Business Education educators. Additionally, the Department of Education should ensure that all students use the same textbooks and that educators be supplied with a range of supplementary textbooks (Sambo, 2018).

5.6.2 (Re)skilling educators in Business Education

America (2012:7) asserts that

> [i]n conversations with EMS CA's, it was evident that there are a number of challenges not only regarding the manner in which the EMS curriculum is structured, but also regarding the capabilities of teachers to teach EMS content effectively.

A study by Maistry (2005) points out that a large number of EMS educators are unqualified, making EMS educator development vital. When teacher development is neglected, the quality of education suffers (Dos Reis, 2012). Schreuder (2014) reaches a similar conclusion on the important role professional development places in ensuring quality teaching. Other research indicated that high-quality educator professional development needs to be prioritised so educators can acquire the skills and knowledge needed to deliver quality education (Coetzee, 2008; Greyling, 2007; Schreuder, 2014). Venter (2016) mentions that the Department of Basic Education (DBE) should draw on previous experiences of successful educator training to ensure

quality professional development. Quality professional development might result in educators' exposing students to action and experiential learning and thus reduce the gap between theory and practice in the curriculum (Greyling, 2007). Maistry (1998:79) explains in some depth why the gap between theory and practice exists in Business Education:

> [T]here is a disjunction between teachers' theories of economics teaching and their actual practice and that their practice was mediated by the context in which they functioned. Of particular significance, was fact [sic.] that the more repressive the context, the greater were the constraints facing the teachers, and the more complex were the strategies employed by the teachers in order to cope.

Schreuder (2014:ii) points out that "[t]he way teachers were trained during their initial training does not match what is required from them a number of years later". Dos Reis (2012) sees the answer to this problem in ongoing mentoring for pre-service teachers. The mentors will act as coaches and support the mentees to improve their understanding of knowledge, locate and identify effective teaching-learning resources, and will assist the mentees to develop teaching skills (Dos Reis, 2012). Sithole (2012) points out that not only pre-service teachers need on-going educator development, in-service teachers also do. In-service and pre-service educators need to adapt to a changing world and the challenges of the 21st century (Dos Reis, 2012; Schreuder, 2014).

Maistry (2005) indicates that sustained programmes can be implemented over a period of time which will utilise available resources in innovative ways within a teaching-learning environment. These programmes will possibly have a more lasting impact on educators than a once-off workshop (Maistry, 2005). As an alternative, Sithole (2012) recommends workshops where educators are reminded of the shift from student-centred approaches to learner-centered approaches. These workshops could help educators reflect on their current practices and ensure innovation in classrooms (Sithole, 2012). Attending Business Education conferences can help to identify the newest trends in the field and shed light on different teaching methods in Business Education (Kalitanyi, 2015). Russel (2009) comments that the majority of educators have never worked in a business and therefore only teach from a theoretical framework. Russel (2009) lists three means of (re)skilling educators' Business Education competencies: job shadowing, participating in a mentorship programme which is run by business executives, and attending business simulation courses.

Accounting has received on-going criticism because of the poor performance of students and the declining number of students who enrol in accounting programmes (Schreuder, 2014). Schreuder (2014) recommended that professional development be provided. The majority of educators who

teach Economics have only the minimum qualifications to teach it, very few of them possess higher degrees (Lugayeni, 1999). They also do not attend enrichment courses. The enrichment courses could enable educators to update their subject knowledge and expose them to different methods of teaching. The knowledge explosion and advancements in technology make these enrichment courses indispensable (Lugayeni, 1999). Meintjies (2014) states that future research should focus on Business Studies educators who are more knowledgeable about entrepreneurial competencies. Business Studies educators should establish whether there is a weakness in their ability to model entrepreneurial capabilities (Meintjies, 2014). If there is, educators should improve their capabilities (Meintjies, 2014). Another problem is that Business Education educators have only a procedural and superficial understanding of any changes in the official curriculum (Ngwenya, 2012). Therefore, educators require intensive training in terms of quality control, subject knowledge, education methods, management in assessment, and moderation (Nkalane, 2015; Olivier, 2002). Thaanyane (2010:v) makes a valid and important statement that "teachers were not adequately trained on how to implement Business Education and not many teachers were involved in the design of the new curriculum".

5.7 Meta-trend six: neo-liberalism and the Business Education curriculum

5.7.1 Business Education curriculum within a neo-liberalist economic ideology

South Africa faces social and economic challenges even though great attempts at transformation have been made since 1994, with the advent of democratic government (Taft, 2003). The government is dedicated to restructuring and transforming to redress inequity, offer solutions to unemployment problems and grant access for all to education, with an emphasis on self-employability skills (Mabunda, 1997; Taft, 2013). The intention of the Business Education curriculum is to equip students with the skills and knowledge necessary in the workplace (America, 2012). The Business Education curriculum refers to redistribution and wealth as one of the themes of the economic sustainable sphere (America, 2012). In South Africa's context, the redress of wealth is firmly embedded in apartheid history that implies personal restitution (America, 2012). Mkhize (2015:166) highlights the relationship between curriculation and a neo-liberalist economic ideology:

> [T] he South African higher education system, by rewarding the values which are mostly acquired by socialisation of middle class families, contributes to the continuous reproduction of an unjust society in which people are discriminated against because of who they are and their social class. Until our curriculation and teaching approaches overtly address this, we have the concern that the university is reproducing social inequalities.

Ramasedi (2013) agrees that educational transformation can address social inequalities. Globalisation can be seen as a key element for educational transformation (Ramasedi, 2013). Governments around the globe are focusing on collaborative partnerships with other countries to improve socio-economic development in their own countries (Ramasedi, 2013). This global trend has implications for education, necessitating that the curriculum focus on workplace demands and prepare students for knowledge changes and rapid technological developments (Hollis-Turner, 2008). Coetzee (2008) uses the example of the MBA curriculum that should be aligned with the business environment to produce students able to meet the demands of the workplace. Jacobs (2004) also takes the view that Business and Accounting curricula should be restructured to be aligned with the expectations and practices of the workplace. Restructuring of the curriculum should begin at school level (Mabunda, 1997). Schools should recognise what employers' expectations are and what type of employee is needed for the future, taking account of intellectual, emotional, social, spiritual, academic, and historical aspects (Mabunda, 1997).

Knowledge of Economics is also vital in times of transformation to contribute to economic development:

> Our daily lives are characterised by economic activities, for example demand for and supply of goods, because of this economic understanding is indispensable. A knowledge of Economics helps one to make meaningful choices. It will also help learners to understand the economic dimensions of the environment in which they live, as a consumer and at some stage as a producer (Lugayeni, 1999:1).

Maistry (1998) adds that further research should be conducted concerning knowledge of Economics. His pivotal question is "How do economic teachers teach First World economic concepts to learners who experience a Third World living context?" (Maistry, 1998: 78–79). A few practical examples of teaching Economics are provided in Waghid (2012). This includes the suggestion that students should develop a technology-assisted report or project on how to alleviate poverty and create employment opportunities by providing innovative methods to improve the lives of the poor through sanitation facilities such as telecommunication methods and education for all (Waghid, 2012).

Flanagan (2014) recommends that Economics teaching-learning be authentic. It should also promote analytical, critical thinking, and communication skills (Flanagan, 2014). These recommendations are in line with the type of student which the National Curriculum Statement Grades R–12[8] aims to produce for the global workplace market.

Then again, Sathorar (2009) asserts that entrepreneurship education has become a priority in South Africa as there are not sufficient employment opportunities for school leavers. Kgagara (2011) speculates that entrepreneurship may seem an attractive career, but students are more attracted to the financial security offered by companies. Companies, professional bodies, and higher education institutions should work together to develop a Business Education curriculum that would prepare students for the workplace (Sekhukhune, 2008).

5.7.2 Neo-liberalism and the workplace

A structural transformation has taken place that aims at delivering certain 'products' (i.e. people) that will meet the requirements of the workplace in the 21st century (Dadam, 2017; Mabunda, 1997). In South Africa the unemployment rate has increased over the years, wages have decreased in real terms, and marginalisation in terms of gender, culture, and class has become evident (Dadam, 2017; Kgagara, 2011; Taft, 2003). Small businesses are seen as a key element contributing to economic growth and development (Baka, 2012). Barnard (2012) and Nchu (2015) indicate that entrepreneurship can promote economic growth and development. Meyer (2009:i) notes that "[t]he important role that entrepreneurship plays to compact unemployment should not be underestimated especially in counties with growing unemployment rates such as South Africa".

Research revealed that there are not enough entrepreneurs in South Africa and not enough people with the skills to create new businesses (Barnard, 2012). Strategies have been outlined on how to alleviate poverty, to redistribute wealth, and create employment opportunities (Baka, 2012). One of these is Black Economic Empowerment (BEE), which was implemented by the government as a growth strategy to address inequality. Coetzee (2008:251) refers to business leaders who have changed their business logic such as Bill Gates to "build a world order of inclusive globalisation". Inclusive globalisation will embrace "creative capitalism that works to

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[8] "The National Curriculum Statement Grades R–12 aims to produce learners that are able to:
identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking;
- work effectively as individuals and with others as members of a team;
- organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively;
- collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information;
- communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and/or language skills in various modes;
- use science and technology effectively and critically showing responsibility towards the environment and the health of others; and
- demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem solving contexts do not exist in isolation" (Department of Basic Education, 2011:5).

both generate profits and solve the world's inequalities" (Coetzee, 2008:251). At present, South Africa has a high level of unemployment because university graduates do not have sufficient education, lack important skills, or do not have work experiences (Kgagara, 2011). In the next section, I deal with dropout and retention rates in the Business Education curriculum.

5.8 Meta-trend seven: dropout and retention rates in the Business Education curriculum

Aboo's (2017) study shows that South Africa has a low throughput rate in the public higher education levels. These low throughput rates lead to skills shortages in areas that are vital to the economy in South Africa (Aboo, 2017). Research points out that financial skills, mainly those that accountants have, are one of the scarcest skills in South Africa in the 21st century (Aboo, 2017; Beck, 2011; Mkhize, 2015, Sekhukhune, 2008). As evidence of this, Beck (2011:vii) contends that "Higher Education retention rates in South Africa are among the lowest in world". The dropout rates have increased at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, specifically in the Faculty of Business and Economic Sciences (Beck, 2011). Few of the Master's and Doctoral students in this study researched the factors responsible for these increased dropout rates at public higher education institutions.

Sekhukhune (2008) lists factors that might be influencing the dropout rate. These include financial challenges; academic exclusion because of poor academic performance; inadequate space in classrooms and hostels; language barriers; insufficient student support services; and teaching-learning styles. Beck (2011) sees biographical variables such as gender, culture, and language group(s) as another important factor. Emotional, psychological, and social factors can also influence the dropout rate (Francis, 2007). As a way of addressing the dropout rate, Beck (2011) suggests that educators should identify students at risk and refer them to support services, while Francis (2007) recommends that qualitative research should be conducted to determine what factors influence students' academic performance and why they dropout. Research of this kind could help academic staff to support students in the future especially in the Commerce Faculty (Francis, 2007). Sekhukhune (2008) suggests that higher education institutions should contact students that have dropped out to find out the reasons why they did so. This could help higher education institutions to create mechanisms to encourage students to continue their studies and make changes within the institution where necessary (Sekhukhune, 2008).

5.9 Summary

This chapter reflect the current research trends and recommendations made by Master's and Doctoral students in Business Education. Their major proposal is that the Business Education

curriculum should be career-orientated and interdisciplinary. These studies indicated that 21st century skills need to be emphasised in the Business Education curriculum to prepare students for the workplace at a time of neo-liberal turmoil. At present entrepreneurship education is limited to being given attention in the Business Education modules. All the studies emphasise the need for it to be an independent module or entity in Business Education. The rationale for this recommendation is that entrepreneurship could enhance economic growth, mitigate poverty, and create employment opportunities to address the unemployment problem that South Africa is currently facing. Accounting education also needs particular attention in the light of the high number of dropouts at higher education institutions. Accounting is a scarce discipline that is vital in the 21st century. Several teaching-learning methods were suggested, especially games and group work. At present, traditional teaching-learning methods predominate. There seems to be little use of innovation. Authentic assessment was encouraged, particularly self and peer assessment to foster 21st century skills. Continuous professional development of educators is advised to ensure updated teaching techniques are used and quality education is delivered. Numerous factors may influence the high dropout and retention rate in Business Education. One of these is the over-crowded classrooms as a result of the massification of education. A good starting point for transformation is to remove certain content from the Business Education curriculum so that in-depth teaching-learning is possible, and students can learn to meet the demands of the workplace. Chapter Six focuses on the interpretations and findings of my study.

CHAPTER SIX
INTERPRETATION AND FINDINGS

"When change happens, new forms of hegemony become apparent, as within the curriculum craze that is currently unfolding within South Africa, and therefore the continuous illumination, disruption and recording of curriculum hegemony must become a continuing norm."

(Ramrathan, 2016:7)

6.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the following research question: Based on the analysis of Master's and Doctoral studies between 1997 and 2018, what are the theoretical gaps, contextual trends, and future directions for Business Education in South Africa? (1.5.2). This study analysed a number of Master's and Doctoral studies related to Business Education within the South African context (4.4). Each of these studies presented ideas and recommendations for curriculum reform and the professional development of educators. Five contextual trends emerged from the data: neo-liberal agendas in Business Education (6.2), the integration of 21st century learning in Business Education (6.3), integration and fragmentation of independent entities in the Business Education curriculum (6.4), massification, marketisation, and commercialisation in relation to dropout rates (6.5) and emerging trends in changing the Business Education context (6.6). Theoretical gaps and future directions in each contextual trend were identified. I present my interpretations and analysis of the findings from a critical theorist perspective. In Figure 6.1, I present a meta-semantic relationship network that depicts the contextual trends that are emerging in Business Education. I then briefly unpack Figure 6.1 to illustrate the semantic relationships between the contextual trends.

It is evident from the data that the curriculum reform initiatives recommended for entrepreneurship education (6.4.1) and accounting education (6.4.2), as well for combatting the dropout rates (6.5) are, to some degree, concerned with developing 21st century learning (6.3) which is aligned with neo-liberal agendas. In Master's and Doctoral studies, high dropout rates imply that the skills shortages become even more serious. They saw professional development of educators as key to preventing student dropouts. In light of the increasing decline in enrolments and a rising dropout rate in accounting programmes, they termed accounting education a scarce commodity that needs to be given more attention in the 21st century. Some students described entrepreneurship as a critical contributor to economic growth. Several of their studies argued that the development of entrepreneurial skills was essential. However, the majority of the Master's

and Doctoral studies that I analysed had a narrow, instrumental view of the purpose of entrepreneurship and business, confining them to contributing to economic prosperity. These students saw the purpose of the Business Education curriculum as preparing students to navigate the world of work and to create self-employment opportunities. Given the nature of South Africa as one of the most unequal countries in the world, it is a matter of concern that neo-liberal agendas are at the centre of the Business Education curriculum. Curriculum reform recommendations are neo-liberalist in nature, aimed at producing human capital for a thriving economy. It is in this context that a majority of Master's and Doctoral students whose work was used in this study often uncritically accepted that 21st century learning was the answer to dealing with socio-economic issues and to building a thriving economy. Critical theory revealed the epistemological privileging of 21st century learning that is framed in neo-liberal principles.

Contextual trends two, three, and four lean towards neo-liberal instrumental curriculum reform ideas and recommendations, but they also embody other principles (6.3; 6.4; 6.5). I have elaborated on each of these trends. Emerging trends in a changing Business Education context (6.6) emerged from the data. A minority of Master's and Doctoral theses revealed a move away from neo-liberal instrumental agendas for business and Business Education to a more nuanced understanding of it. They advocate the establishment and fostering of social awareness (6.6.1), social justice (6.6.2), environmental awareness (6.6.3), sustainable development (6.6.4), and ethics (6.6.5).

Figure 6.1 Meta-semantic relationship network

6.2 Contextual trend one: neo-liberal agendas in Business Education

In the context of the apartheid legacy in South Africa, education (and, more broadly, the curriculum) was used as a political platform for stakeholders to demand spaces for their ideologies, beliefs, and values (3.1; 3.2.1; 3.4; 3.5; 5.7.1; 5.7.2). The South African government has implemented several transformation initiatives to radically change inequalities and to cultivate an equal and quality education system for all (2.2.1; 2.2.2.1). The necessity for these transformation initiatives is evident in the statistics on dropout rates, retention rates and unemployment rates, increased student-led protests, neo-liberal instrumental changes in programme offerings, and inadequate resources for teaching-learning practices, among other things (1.2.1; 2.2.2.2; 5.3.1; 5.7.1; 5.7.2; 5.8).

A majority of the Master's and Doctoral students encouraged the integration of 21st century skills in the Business Education curriculum to ensure that students find employment in a digitalised transformative era (5.3.1). They also recommended accounting skills and accounting as a separate entity, which they saw as scarce commodities in the 21st century. Entrepreneurship education and the development of entrepreneurial skills were stressed, enhancing neo-liberal principles (5.4.1). Entrepreneurs are perceived as neo-liberal heroes who can create ventures that could lead to employment opportunities for citizens and ways of generating profits to contribute to economic growth (3.4.1.2; 5.4.1). In this sense, entrepreneurs only have an economic responsibility which makes it instrumentalist. Carroll avers that businesses (in this case entrepreneurs) have an economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibility (1.3.2; 3.3). Therefore, entrepreneurs should engage in multilateral dialogue to better understand their responsibilities and their relationship with society and the environment.

The Business Education curriculum is also viewed as being career-orientated rather than academically orientated (5.3.1). Assessment practices are adjusted to ensure this career-orientation. The Master's and Doctoral students proposed that innovative peer- and self-evaluation methods should be emphasised in classrooms to help prepare students to make the judgements and decisions that might be required in the workplace (5.2.3). However, they also argued that formal education might not be enough to prepare students for the workplace. Therefore, professional development through in-service training and mentoring programmes is critical to increase the employability of graduates (5.6.1; 5.6.2). In this sense, Master's and Doctoral students adopted a narrow perspective concerning what Business Education constitute (3.3). Business Education is viewed as an instrument to be used by the workforce, without engaging in communicative action about what Business Education can become (1.6.1; 3.3). In other words, a Tylerian approach to curriculum is uncritically accepted. Thus the outcomes related to contributing to society and the economy are predetermined and students are tracked by

standardised tests (Le Grange, 2019; Van den Berg, 2014). Viewed through a crititcal theory lens, Tyler's rationale for curriculum development disempowers teachers since they no longer have the power to decide what knowledge is worth learning in their classrooms (Le Grange, 2019). This contextual trend revealed the hidden ideological assumptions in Master's and Doctoral studies with regard to the content of Business Education that is seen only as an instrument for growth momentum (refer to the second principle of critical theory in 1.6.3). Oppressive structures that exist as a result of Tyler's approach to curriculum development (refer to the third principle of critical theory in 1.6.3) were also highlighted.

6.3 Contextual trend two: the integration of 21st century learning in Business Education

The literature indicated that 21st century learning is frequently characterised by 21st century skills (1.2.2.2; 2.1; 2.3), but is not limited to these. Twenty-first century learning consists of certain knowledge [*knowledge-how* (skills) and *knowledge-that* (content)] and ICT/technologies, technological knowledge, and competencies (2.3). I have attended to both these knowledges (6.3.1; 6.3.2) to present a holistic view of 21st century learning in Business Education.

6.3.1 21st century learning: *knowledge-how* (skills) and *knowledge-that* (content)

Several Master's and Doctoral students have proposed that diverse types of skills be integrated into the 21st century Business Education curriculum (5.2.1; 5.2.2; 5.2.3; 5.3.1; 5.3.2; 5.4.1; 5.4.2; 5.5.1; 5.6.1; 5.6.2; 5.7.2; 5.8). I distinguish between four categories of skills: general 21st century skills, skills related to accounting education, entrepreneurial skills, and technological skills. First, I discuss what I term general 21st century skills. I have called this category general skills, as it comprises a variety of 21st century skills that are essential in Business Education. These skills do not fit into the other three categories. However, they should not be seen as less important. These skills include creativity, leadership abilities, problem-solving skills, decision-making skills, communication skills, change management, team skills, critical thinking, and information literacy skills (5.2.2; 5.2.3; 5.3.1; 5.4.1; 5.4.2; 5.7.1). These skills correspond to the skills scholars and coalitions identified in the literature on 21st century needs (1.2.3; 1.3.3; 2.3.2; 3.2.2; 3.4.1). There is broad agreement between scholars (in the literature I reviewed) and among Master's and Doctoral students that these general skills are vital to prepare students for the world of work in a digitised transformative era (2.3.1; 2.3.3; 3.4.1; 5.3.1; 5.7.2). One student mentioned that qualities of the heart such as generosity, honesty, and compassion are underdeveloped and that they continue to be disregarded in the 21st century (5.3.1). A possible reason could be that students need general skills to do work that artificial intelligence would not be able to replace in the Fourth Industrial Revolution. If the qualities of heart are left out of account, there is a very real risk that

the education system will become a factory production line that produces human capital to meet the needs of the economy. In this sense, the promotion of 21st century skills merely to serve neo-liberal ideals is inadequate. From a Freirian view, 21st century skills such as critical thinking, creativity, and problem-solving should not merely be viewed as an instrument for economic prosperity (Freire, 1970; 1993; 1998; 2004). Freire encourages students to use their ability to think critically since it will allow them to draw connections between individual problems which they are experiencing and the social context in which they are embedded (Freire, 1970; 1993; 1998; 2004). Freire also describes students as human personalities who create knowledge with imagination and creativity (Freire, 1970; 1993; 1998; 2004). Problem-solving is another important skill that Freire highlighted in his emancipatory theory (Freire, 1970; 1993; 1998; 2004). Students should be given the opportunity to engage in multilateral dialogues where problems are posed, reflected upon, and solved to bring about change (Freire, 1970; 1993; 1998; 2004).

My second category of skills is entrepreneurial skills (5.3.1; 5.4.2). One of the students contended that a lack of entrepreneurial skills might add to the challenges South Africa is facing with regard to unemployment, poverty, and income inequalities (5.4.2). Other students argued that entrepreneurial skills are a vital means of enhancing economic growth (5.4.2). It seems that the Master's and Doctoral students support the development of entrepreneurial skills as a means of promoting economic prosperity. The data provides evidence of educationomics in the South African context (1.2.1; 5.3.1; 5.4.1; 5.7.2; 5.7.2). Since entrepreneurship education has repeatedly figured in both literature and the data, I give it further attention in Section 6.4.1.

My third category is skills relating to accounting education (5.3.1), which were emphasised in Master's and Doctoral students' work. A possible reason for this is that accounting education is seen as a scarce discipline in the 21st century South Africa (5.3.1). The data indicated that enrolments in Accounting qualifications or modules have declined and the dropout rate from accounting programmes has increased over the past years (5.3.1; 5.6.2). This implies that many students are lost to the professions that require an Accounting qualification, including teaching, at a time when there is a strong demand for them. The data also revealed that accounting education does not adequately equip students with the knowledge and, in some respects, the skills that students require (5.3.1). It would seem that the nature of accounting education lends itself more to a skill-orientated module or qualification than a content-orientated module or qualification. Some of the skills related to accounting education are general 21st century skills: team building, critical problem-solving skills, communication skills, interpersonal skills, soft skills, and the ability to use technology (5.3.1). The Master's and Doctoral students also identified skills that are directly connected to accounting education: analytic skills, financial skills, and adaptive

skills (5.3.1). I identified accounting education as a contextual trend in Business Education. I elaborate on this aspect in Section 6.4.2.

Fourth, a few of the students emphasised information technology competencies (5.2.4.1). A plausible reason for encouraging technological skills might be the rapid rise of the Fourth Industrial Revolution (2.3.3). Technological competencies are also an integral part of the 21st century learning that is discussed in Section 6.3.2. However, the Master's and Doctoral students do not elaborate on these technological competencies, which may imply that they see ICT/digital technological competencies as less valuable than the other above prescribed lists of 21st century skills.

The literature revealed that 21st century knowledge consists of *knowledge-how* and *knowledge-that* (2.3.2). The skills mentioned in the above paragraphs are known as *knowledge-how*. *Knowledge-that* is subject conceptual knowledge. Master's and Doctoral students referred to subject conceptual knowledge that needs attention in Business Education, specifically with a focus on entrepreneurial education and accounting education (6.4). Two studies highlighted that economic literacy is essential (5.2.1). Economic literacy can provide the foundation for understanding economic concepts (5.2.1). In another study, a student stated that a mentoring programme should be developed to support pre-service and in-service teachers by equipping them with Business Education content (5.2.1). Master's and Doctoral students have over-emphasised *knowledge-how* and under-emphasised *knowledge-that*. The literature makes it clear that if *knowledge-how* is over-emphasised and *knowledge-that* is under-emphasised, students might find it difficult to achieve deeper levels of learning (2.3.2). The literature further revealed that different knowledge bodies are needed for the 21st century (2.3.2). These knowledge bodies include foundational knowledge (to know), humanistic knowledge (to value), and meta-knowledge (to act) (2.3.2). Master's and Doctoral students, therefore, recommend that 21st century skills present meta-knowledge (to act) (5.2.1; 5.2.2; 5.2.3; 5.3.1, 5.4.1; 5.4.2; 5.7.1). They may assume that meta-knowledge (to act) will help students to be successfully employed in a globalised and digitised transformative world. A further assumption might be that when students are employed because of 21st century skills, they will contribute to economic growth and help redress socio-economic issues, such as unemployment, poverty, and income inequalities. If that is true, Business Education is being seen a neo-liberal instrument to combat socio-economic problems in South Africa. The literature revealed that several scholars, nationally and internationally, focus merely on developing 21st century skills (1.2.2.1; 1.2.2.2; 2.3). These scholars uncritically saw 21st century skills as a panacea that would solve all the problems students might encounter in a digitalised transformative world, redress socio-economic issues, and address challenges in the workplace (1.2.2.2; 2.3.3). Another possible reason *knowledge-*

how is over-emphasised might be that scholars are not aware that 21st century knowledge consists of *knowledge-that* as well as *knowledge-how*. In this sense, Master's and Doctoral studies were in line with the fourth principle of critical theory (1.6.3) that encourages a mind-shift from epistemological privileging of certain knowledges and the under-representing other knowledges.

6.3.2 21st century learning: ICT/ digital technologies, technological knowledge, and competencies

Several Master's and Doctoral students referred to technological developments in education (and more specifically to Business Education) (5.5.1; 5.5.2; Addendum C; Addendum D). A minority of the Master's and Doctoral students noted that the rapid development of technology demands that educators' acquire professional expertise in using these technologies effectively in classrooms (5.2.2). These students only mentioned that the technological competencies of educators require attention. They did not elaborate. The literature revealed that educators need to acquire not only pedagogical content knowledge, but also technological content knowledge to understand the inter-relationship between technology and subject matter (2.3.1). Educators need technological pedagogical knowledge to use technology in the classroom effectively (2.3.1). Because of these various knowledge bodies, Koehler and Mishra (2009) focus on technological pedagogical content knowledge (2.3.1). These knowledge bodies form the basis for teaching with the aid of technology, including knowing how technology can help students to overcome challenges that certain subject content poses, and understanding concepts related to technology. Students might find the use of certain technology challenging since they do not have the necessary competencies (5.5.1). This may explain why some students would rather visit the library for academic information than search for the information electronically (5.5.1). There is a theoretical lacuna in the literature on how to support Business Education students that are challenged by technology and are therefore unable to do their academic work effectively and specifically in the South African context. Future studies could investigate this aspect, which could be to the benefit of both educators and students.

Not only are some educators and students not equipped to use advanced technology in the classroom, but there are also shortages of technological equipment and facilities that hinder success in Business Education in South Africa (5.3.1). Although South Africa is the most developed country in Africa, it faces socio-economic challenges that have an impact on education. Students at several education institutions have inadequate access to technological equipment as a result of poverty (5.3.1; 5.5.1). A large portion of the population does not have electricity, water, food security, or internet access (2.3.3). This makes it difficult for South Africa to keep abreast of emerging global trends such as the Fourth Industrial Revolution, which proposes the use of

digitalised technologies such as 3D-printers in the classrooms (2.3.3). Theses and dissertations indicate that technological equipment is expensive and that educators should not rely on education institutions to provide instructional materials. One study recommends that educators should learn to be financially independent and use their creativity to find and make learning materials (5.5.1). Other studies suggested that educators could use brainstorming, career weeks, case studies, field trips, visits from professionals, jigsaw activities, and cooperative learning strategies that do not incur extra costs (5.2.2; 5.2.4.1). These strategies could help students think critically about subject knowledge. This is in line with Freire's proposed use of problem-posing education in his emancipation theory for curriculum development (1.3.4). Educators pose a problem related to the content followed by dialogue. In the course of this, students and educators rethink the problem and pose rational solutions. From a Freirian view, this dialogic action offers an opportunity for teachers and students to learn from each other, and knowledge can be created through affection, desire, imagination, and creativity (Freire, 1970; 1993). A key element is that teachers and students have something to offer which they share with each other (Freire, 1970; 1993). Freire contrasted this with the "necrophilic realities" of the curriculum development approach that is employed in conventional education settings (Freire, 1970; 1993). A curriculum should be "born" out of thinking *with* others not *for* others (Freire, 1970; 1993).

The meta-study also revealed that educators who do not have access to technological equipment make extensive use of textbooks (5.2.2; 5.5.1). The Master's and Doctoral students were aware that slavish use of textbooks can make the content abstract and meaningless for students (5.5.1). Consequently, they recommended that textbooks should be used only as a guide for the learning content that needs to be covered (5.2.2). Furthermore, within the Fourth Industrial Revolution, educational institutions and educators focus on eLearning (5.5.1). Two students mentioned that education institutions and educators should not entirely replace face-to-face teaching initiatives since students need personal interactions with educators to retain the human element (5.5.1). These students made a valuable point. Within the South African context, not all students have the resources to participate in eLearning initiatives and face-to-face interactions might create opportunities for students to ask critical questions and engage in multilateral dialogue in which they explore certain themes.

Despite the educators' lack of technological competencies and technological equipment, for the most part, the Master's and Doctoral students suggested that technological teaching and learning tools be used in the Business Education classroom (5.2.2; 5.5.1). These tools include game tournaments, electronic communication, social media networks such as Facebook, and online forums (5.2.2; 5.5.1). Students often suggested these tools without taking the contextual factors of South Africa into account (1.2; 2.2; 2.3.3; 5.3.1; 5.7.1; 5.7.2). Where education institutions,

educators, and students have access to technology tools, they can use them in a Freirean manner. For example, educators can create an online workshop where students need to solve a problem. Students can do research and do interviews with stakeholders to gain new insights into the problem. Students can engage in a communicative action process with other students and the educator online via chat rooms on Facebook, online forum platforms, and scheduled meetings on Zoom or Microsoft Teams to present new ideas on how the problem can be solved and to take action to solve it.

6.4 Contextual trend three: integration and fragmentation of independent entities in the Business Education curriculum

Master's and Doctoral students should bear in mind that the Department of Basic Education (DBE), Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET), the Council on Higher Education (CHE), and particular professional bodies have policies that stipulate the minimum requirements for each programme. It is, therefore, important to review the CESM-document and the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualification (MRTEQ) before suggesting that certain disciplines should be integrated or fragmented into independent entities in a particular academic field.

6.4.1 Entrepreneurship education as an independent entity

One of the dominant strands in the contributions of theses and dissertations is entrepreneurship education (5.2.1; 5.3.1; 5.4.1; 5.4.2; 5.7.1; 5.7.2), which is seen as a driver of economic growth in developing countries such as South Africa (5.3.1; 5.4.1; 5.7.2). South Africa faces enormous challenges with regard to unemployment, poverty, and inequalities (2.2.1; 5.4.2; 5.7.1; 5.7.2). The government has implemented several macro-economic policies to address these issues (2.2.1). These macro-economic policies have one common goal in mind, which is to reduce unemployment. For example, the NDP aims at creating 11 million jobs in South Africa by 2030 (2.2.1). Frequently, entrepreneurship education is seen as the solution to the unemployment problem in South Africa (5.4.1). There is a perception that entrepreneur start-ups can create employment opportunities that in turn will augment economic growth (5.4.1). The studies done by Master's and Doctoral students did not acknowledge that entrepreneurs have ethical, legal and philanthropic responsibilities, not just economic responsibilities (1.3.2; 3.3). Concomitantly, entrepreneurship education is seen as a vital instrument to combat unemployment issues in South Africa (5.7.2). It is for this reason that the Master's and Doctoral students conclude that entrepreneurship education needs to have a bigger role in Business Education.

Currently, EMS is compulsory for students in Grades 7–9 (3.2.1). Entrepreneurship is a core theme in EMS. EMS presents only an overview of entrepreneurship. If students choose to enrol for Business Studies in Grades 10–12, they will learn more about entrepreneurship and the creation of ventures. Not all students choose to do Business Studies, which implies that most students have only basic knowledge and skills with regard to entrepreneurship. Master's and Doctoral students argue that limited knowledge and skills are insufficient to address the unemployment problem in South Africa and to contribute to economic prosperity (5.3.1; 5.4.1; 5.4.2). They, therefore, recommend that entrepreneurship education should be an independent module or an entity in Business Education (5.4.1). The Master's and Doctoral students also argue that educational institutions should change their focus from equipping students with knowledge about entrepreneurship to the development of entrepreneurial skills to start their businesses in the 21st century (5.3.1; 5.4.1; 5.4.2). One study pointed out that even the employees that have entrepreneurial knowledge and skills prefer to work for large companies to ensure financial security (5.7.1).

I would like to critique the Master's and Doctoral students' view concerning entrepreneurship education. They argue that entrepreneurship should be an independent module or entity in Business Education without critically engaging with entrepreneurship in education or elaborating on how this module will fit into the curriculum. One student, for example, contends that entrepreneurship should be part of C2005 and that the government should find a way to include entrepreneurship education within the national curriculum (5.2.1). The weakness in this argument is that the government does not have sole responsibility for making space for entrepreneurship education in the national curriculum. It is essential that the different curriculum stakeholders engage in scholarly debate and critical thought when developing and revisiting the curriculum structure. Master's and Doctoral students have failed to ask important questions before proposing that entrepreneurship be an independent module or entity in Business Education. Will the entrepreneurship module be a core module, capstone module, or a compulsory module? To what grades does this recommendation apply? If the module is not compulsory for students, the effect will be similar to that of Business Studies in Grades 10–12. If the entrepreneurship module is introduced in higher education programmes, a clear distinction should be made between business, economics, and management programmes (CESM04) or education (CESM07) (3.2.1). In the case of business, economics, and management degrees, one of the 17-order learning-categories for entrepreneurial and small business operations already exists. If students want to create an independent module for entrepreneurship in the other 16 order learning-categories, the conceptual structure of the category should be studied to see where entrepreneurship as an independent module would fit best into that specific category. In the case of education programmes, curriculum developers first need to indicate what type of learning the entrepreneurial

module would entail before decisions are made to include it in the knowledge mix which the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) requires in new programmes. It is possible to allocate entrepreneurship education as a core module in all education programmes. This implies that entrepreneurship education could be a compulsory module for students regardless of the phase of education specialisation. The entrepreneurship module could be included as an elective module. This implies that students would be able to choose to specialise in entrepreneurship, business studies, economics, and accounting, for example, depending on the phase of specialisation. Furthermore, if the entrepreneurship module were to focus more on skills than knowledge, then not all the constituents of the 21st century learning would be included (6.3). Over-emphasising *knowledge-how* and under-emphasising *knowledge-that* (principle four of critical theory; 1.6.3) might hinder deep learning in a specific module (1.6.3; 2.3.2). Curriculum development (1.3.4) is a complex phenomenon. Therefore, curriculum development in a specific discipline or field should not occur without engaging in communicative action with the relevant stakeholders as Habermas and Freire suggest.

The move to have an independent entrepreneurship module has its roots in neo-liberal instrumental agendas. Entrepreneurs might start businesses to contribute constructively to the needs of their communities. However, in order to succeed in doing so, they need to meet their economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities. I would like to refer to Section 3.5.1, where several entrepreneurs focus on social change to serve their communities. However, from a critical theory perspective, several Master's and Doctoral students take a reductionist view of entrepreneurship education, based on instrumental reasoning (5.3.1; 5.4.1; 5.4.2). This needs to be interrogated using the lens of Habermas's theory of communicative action.

Lastly, I would like to argue that when Master's and Doctoral students recommend entrepreneurship as an independent module to contribute to economic prosperity, they commercialise knowledge (2.2.2.3). The commercialisation of knowledge in South Africa has led to entrepreneurial schools and universities. These entrepreneurial schools and universities focus on knowledge dissemination, knowledge creation, and knowledge exploitation solely to promote income or research opportunities for schools and universities.

6.4.2 Accounting education as a separate entity

A number of theses and dissertations emphasise that the accounting profession is one of the scarce professions in South Africa (5.3.1). The possible reason for this is that only a small number of students obtain an accounting qualification or one that includes accounting skills. Frequently, students enrol for accounting degrees, but drop out in their second year of studies because they find the academic challenges too daunting (5.3.1; 5.6.2). The data revealed that few, if any,

education institutions have put in extra efforts to support these students (5.3.1). The Master's and Doctoral students also recommended that accounting education be given more attention in the school curriculum (5.2.1). Pre-service teachers find that students lack prior knowledge of Accounting (5.2.1). Many factors could explain this, such as limited time allocated on the time tables for accounting, educators' lack of competencies in accounting, inadequate resources, overcrowded classrooms as a result of massification of education, and the environment of the education institution and its surrounding community (2.2.2.1; 2.3.3; 5.2.2; 6.5). The Master's and Doctoral students also indicated that in marketing courses students do not gain enough knowledge of Accounting. Consequently, they recommend an introductory course in accounting (5.2.1). Another study mentioned that accounting assignment workshops could offer expert guidance to students on how to complete their assignments (5.2.3). These workshops could possibly assist students who face challenges in terms of accounting content and prevent them from dropping out. Another possible way of supporting accounting students is through a mentorship programme to help student-teachers to teach accounting (5.6.1). Master's and Doctoral students also recommended other pedagogical strategies to use in the accounting classroom to reduce their dependence on the textbook which makes the content abstract and difficult to comprehend (5.2.2). These recommendations made by Master's and Doctoral students could be valuable when developing the accounting curriculum and ensuring that the throughput rate in accounting modules and courses improves. Education institutions should consider applying these initiatives. The problem is that all too often education institutions do not consider the recommendations made in theses and dissertations. All too often they are doomed to become static documents in libraries and electronic databases, despite the valuable ideas they contain (see the third principle of critical theory; 1.6.3).

The literature review done for this study did not specifically highlight the need for the development of accounting education, but it often referred to economics, entrepreneurship and overall Business Education. This does not imply that there is a theoretical gap between Accounting and Business Education. It is possible that the term Business Education is more often used in research outputs for international recognition purposes. Internationally, accounting education is recognised as a separate field of study. In South Africa, accounting in higher education is often viewed as a separate field of study since it is regulated by professional bodies, for example, the South African Institute of Chartered Accountants (SAICA). The assumption is that specialised knowledge in accounting is needed to teach accounting education[9].

[9] However, there are those who argue that accounting education research, exclusively conducted by accounting specialists, without the aid of specialists in education, is problematic.

6.5 Contextual trend four: massification, marketisation, and commercialisation of Business Education in relation to dropout rates

From a critical theory perspective, massification of education was meant to address inequalities by providing public education for all. Instead, the increased enrolment in basic and higher education institutions has had negative consequences such as overcrowded classrooms, a drop in education standards, and intensification of inequalities (2.2.2.1). Inadequate space in classrooms and residences was identified by Master's and Doctoral students as one of the reasons for the high dropout rates in Business Education programmes (5.8). This motive for dropping out might have a direct correlation with the consequences of the massification of education. The massive increase in enrolments at education institutions has created an opportunity for private education institutions to enter the educational landscape (the commercialisation of education) (2.2.2.3). This has also encouraged the notion that students should be seen as consumers, education institutions as critical contributors of human capital to the economy, and knowledge as related to production (the marketisation of education) (2.2.2.2; 5.7.2). This implies that knowledge is a commodity that is being sold to students under the false pretence that they will be guaranteed employment in the 21st century.

Other reasons given for dropping out included insufficient student support, financial challenges, language barriers, and biographical variables (5.8). These factors that Master's and Doctoral students underlined could be further researched with a view to preventing Business Education students from dropping out. Theses and dissertations also highlighted the consequences of dropouts in Business Education (5.8). Increased dropouts meant increased skill shortages (5.8). One student mentioned that a skill shortage could lead to the economy performing poorly and might worsen unemployment, poverty, and income inequalities (5.3.1). Another student emphasised that skill shortages as a result of dropouts are a national problem in South Africa that needs urgent attention (5.3.1). Various theses and dissertations stressed the continuous professional development of skills and the development of mentoring programmes (5.6.1; 5.6.2).

6.6 Contextual trend five: emerging trends in changing the Business Education context

Despite the neo-liberal agendas in Business Education, a minority of Master's and Doctoral students have shifted their stance to a more nuanced understanding of business and Business Education. Certain Master's and Doctoral students recognised that employers have certain responsibilities in the different spheres, i.e. intellectual, emotional, social, spiritual, academically, and historical (5.7.1). This in line with the embedded three-domain model of Carroll where businesses have an economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibility (1.3.4; 3.3). Master's

and Doctoral students highlighted environmental issues, sustainable development, and social justice as main concerns to accomplish awareness of democratic action and values (5.2.1; 5.3.1; 5.4.1; 5.4.2; 5.7.1; 5.7.2). Emerging trends such as social awareness (6.6.1), social justice (6.6.2) environmental awareness (6.6.3), sustainable development (6.6.4), and ethics (6.6.5) were identified in the data. These emerging trends are in line with the triple bottom line aims of the King IV Report, to steer businesses to create sustainable value on financial, societal, and environmental horizons. Also, in the EMS CAPS-document, the focus of EMS is on the inherent knowledge, skills, and values in activities of production, consumption, and making informed financial decisions in economic and social environments.

6.6.1 Social awareness

Master's and Doctoral students made proposals to alleviate poverty, to address unemployment, and to improve economic growth prospects, which indicates, to some extent, that students are aware of the implication not doing so may have for society (5.3.1; 5.4.2; 5.7.1; 5.7.2). It can be argued that when someone is employed, the employee's well-being and that of his or her household improve, and in turn, contribute to economic growth. Addressing poverty and unemployment issues should be done for two reasons: to create social awareness and to contribute to the economy. Another student mentioned that entrepreneurship is not only important for economic prosperity but also for the social stability of the country (5.4.2). Entrepreneurs can help businesses achieve social outcomes, but stability is also needed for economic outcomes. Despite the immense focus in the data concerning entrepreneurs and their contribution to neo-liberal principles, there is a shift towards thinking about the development and the role of entrepreneurs and businesses in a socially responsible manner (5.4.1; 5.4.2).

It is against this background, that certain Master's and Doctoral students highlighted CSR. The notion of CSR is a response to the ethical, discretionary, economic, and legal expectations that society has of business. One student recommended that the Business Education curriculum should focus on how societal values can be integrated into the vision of a business (5.2.1). This recommendation highlights everyone's responsibility to act in a manner that benefits society and not merely the individuals in a business and economic context.

6.6.2 Social justice

The Master's and Doctoral students emphasised that the Business Education curriculum should prepare students to participate in a complex economic society where healthy environments, sustainable development, and social justice are a major concern (5.3.1). In the next two sections,

environmental awareness and sustainable development are discussed. But first, I discuss interpretations and findings on social justice.

From a critical theory perspective, Master's and Doctoral students are informed about numerous inequalities that exist in different spheres in the South African economy, for example social inequalities in terms of class, race and gender, and unequal redistribution of wealth (5.7.1). Students point out that the Business Education curriculum content does include the redistribution of wealth (5.7.1). Many Master's and Doctoral students argue that if the Business Education curriculum does not explicitly address the reproduction of an unjust society, the education institutions involved become complicit in the reproduction of social inequalities (5.7.1). The need to promote social justice is an important principle in critical theory (see principle 5; 1.6.3).

6.6.3 Environmental awareness

According to some of the Master's and Doctoral students, the Business Education curriculum should foster environmental awareness (5.2.1). Business Education content on production patterns, scarcity of resources, consumption, and waste management illustrates how business practices have an impact on the environment (5.2.1). The data recommended a scholarship of integration that focuses on fostering and establishing environmentally responsible practices in businesses (5.2.1). The National Curriculum Statements for Grade R–12 emphasise that students should demonstrate a sense of responsibility towards conserving the environment and promoting the health of others and the society (5.7.2).

6.6.4 Sustainable development

A few theses and dissertations highlighted the need to integrate sustainable development in the Business Education curriculum (5.2.1). Firstly, I would like to present a short clarification of sustainable development. When businesses reflect on their production patterns, consumption, availability of resources for the next generations, and the impact their operations have on the environment and society, there is a chance that they will start to think and operate in a sustainable manner. In the data, one student mentioned that although there is attention to sustainability, it is fragmented in the Business Education content like production patterns and consumption. Therefore, it is not given enough attention (5.2.1). This student also presented a framework on how sustainable development could be integrated into the EMS CAPS-document (5.2.1). Another student recommended a scholarship of integration to enhance sustainable development in business practices. Despite these students' valuable recommendations on sustainable development, today's Business Education curriculum continues to be dominated by a single bottom line, economic prosperity.

6.6.5 Ethics

One study explicitly recommended that business ethics be included in the Business Education curriculum (5.2.1). This recommendation at first seems almost facile, but it is deeply significant because it marks a direct shift away from neo-liberal instrumental agendas. It also highlights that businesses are starting to give attention to responsibilities other than only economic responsibilities (1.3.2; 3.3). The literature reviewed in this study supports this student's view that it is essential for business ethics to be included in the Business Education curriculum to help secure sustainable business practices and initiate a transformation of narcissistic forms of capitalism (3.2.2.2; 3.3; 3.4; 3.5.3). However, this student merely lists this significant recommendation and does not engage with or give the finer details of how it should be incorporated in the curriculum, just as was the case with entrepreneurship education (6.4.1).

6.7 Conclusion

In conclusion, applying the principles of critical theory enabled me to reveal hidden ideologies within Business Education. Many Master's and Doctoral students adopted a narrow perspective on the purpose of Business Education which reduces it to instrumentalism. However, some Master's and Doctoral students are shifting their understanding of Business Education beyond instrumentalism. This is evident in the trends that emerged from the data (6.6). My final reflection is that Business Education can move beyond instrumentalism when a Freirian approach to education is encouraged and when business is seen as having ethical, economical, and legal responsibilities (1.3.2; 3.3). In the next chapter, I discuss my conclusions and suggest some future directions.

CHAPTER SEVEN
CONCLUSION AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

"Business education is value-laden; that is, content topics and subtopics of Economics, Accounting and Business Studies, as scripted in the nation's curriculum statements, carry with them a neo-classical ideological position firmly embedded within a neo-liberal market framework."

(Maistry, 2011:123)

7.1 Introduction

This study's primary aim was to determine what intellectual projects particular Master's and Doctoral students pursued in Business Education between 1997 and 2018. Several meta-trends emerged from these intellectual projects, a contribution to knowledge on a theoretical, and contextual level. The sentiments in the introductory quotation, based on research conducted by Maistry nine years ago, are still true, but there is at least some evidence that Master's and Doctoral students are starting to view Business Education in the South African context differently. This chapter responded to the research question: To what extent, if any, is the Business Education curriculum aligned to the needs of the 21st century in South Africa? The theoretical and contextual contributions are discussed first. Next, I present the limitations of this study and make evidence-based recommendations for further research.

7.2 Theoretical and contextual contribution

In the 1980s Business Education was viewed as a moral philosophy and from the 1990s onwards, Business Education has been viewed in economic terms (3.4.3). Within the South African context, neo-liberal motives are dominant and shape the economy and education system. It is against this background, that scholars (in literature) and most of these Master's and Doctoral students view Business Education as an instrument for economic growth and prosperity. There are signs that certain Master's and Doctoral students are moving beyond instrumentalism towards a more nuanced understanding of Business Education in the South African context. In this sense, businesses have interwoven economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities (1.3.2; 3.3) and an active force of currere is followed (1.3.4; 3.3). Business Education is starting to focus on trends such as social awareness, social justice, sustainable business practices, and ethics (6.6).

Since Business Education is an internationally recognised field, the emerging trends in Business Education could be part of a benchmark for international comparability of curricula, especially in

countries with emerging economies such as South Africa where Business Education is viewed as an instrument to fuel economic growth and thus address inequalities. I have critiqued these neo-liberal agendas in education (2.2.3) and, to a greater extent, those in Business Education (3.3; 3.4; 3.5). One could argue that if Business Education were to includes aspects such as social awareness, social justice, sustainable business practices, and ethics, it could become an instrument for social change or emancipation (3.3). We must not adopt another form of instrumentalism in Business Education. Instead we should continually seek to understand Business Education through a process of communicative action 1.6.1). In the analysis of theses and dissertations, the Master's and Doctoral students focused on understanding Business Education in terms of the economy, society and the environment.

South Africa is characterised by high unemployment rates, poverty, high debt levels, high corruption indexes, and an immense economic divide between the poor and rich as reflected in the Gini coefficient and other indices (1.2.1; 2.2). Investors view South Africa, as an investment risk. Sustainable business practices are the only way to change this perception. The implication is that the Business Education curriculum needs to change. Firstly, ethics should be integrated into it. From a critical theory perspective, ethics is not concerned with reaching particular outcomes but rather with evaluating each business decision in terms of whether it contributes to sustainable and equitable business practices (3.3). I will not elaborate on the finer details of how ethics can be integrated into the Business Education curriculum, as these will differ for each educational level and should be carefully and strategically defined by curriculum stakeholders. When aligning the Business Education curriculum with the needs of the 21st century South Africa, it is imperative to note that the Business Education curriculum is already overloaded with content. Therefore, the Business Education curriculum should be reviewed or unpacked holistically to ensure that ethics is not merely an add-on entity or part of the hidden or null curriculum.

Secondly, it is evident from the literature and the meta-study that 21st century skills need to be integrated into the Business Education curriculum to ensure that students acquire the necessary skills required by employers in a digitised transformative world (1.2.2.1; 1.2.2.2; 2.3.2; 5.3.1; 6.2; 6.3.1). Business Education should not only be viewed as an outcomes-based field of study that aims at preparing students for the world of work. Business Education strives to make students aware of the economic and social environment surrounding them.

Thirdly, although the Fourth Industrial Revolution is changing the education landscape globally, South Africa is not fully prepared to implement the changes that the Fourth Industrial Revolution necessitates (2.3.3). Business Education and curriculum stakeholders should keep in mind that not all education institutions, educators, and students have access to technological equipment. The data revealed that living in the Fourth Industrial Revolution does not necessary imply that

education institutions should change their mode of delivery to eLearning since face-to-face interactions are important to uphold the human element (6.3.2). Business Education and curriculum stakeholders could encourage teaching-learning strategies that enhance authentic learning such as case studies, role plays, and visits to businesses. These teaching and learning strategies have already been explored by the Master's and Doctoral students and should be implemented in Business Education classrooms (5.2.2; 5.5.1).

7.3 Theoretical gaps identified in Master's and Doctoral studies

The following theoretical gaps in the Master's and Doctoral studies were identified. These are differentiated interpretations of 21st century learning (7.3.1), voices of different stakeholders to reform the Business Education curriculum (7.3.2), international historical moments as a benchmark for curriculum reform (7.3.3), *Homo economicus* and the lack of Ubuntu (7.3.4), and Business Education as an instrument (7.3.5).

7.3.1 Differentiated interpretations of 21st century learning

Some of the scholars, who have researched 21st century skills, advocate that 21st century learning should be open to differentiated interpretations, bearing in mind the possible influence on curriculum development (1.2.3). The Master's and Doctoral students in this study uncritically accepted that 21st century learning merely entails 21st century skills and therefore over-emphasised their value (5.2.1; 5.2.2; 5.2.3; 5.3.1; 5.3.2; 5.4.1; 5.4.2; 5.5.1; 5.6.1; 5.6.2; 5.7.2; 5.8). In this sense, Master's and Doctoral students need to make a mind-shift concerning epistemological privileging of certain knowledges and under-representing other knowledges (1.6.3.). Twenty-first century learning consists of more than only 21st century skills. It also includes *knowledge-how* and *knowledge-that*. *Knowledge-how* (also known as procedural knowledge) includes 21st century skills such as general skills, entrepreneurial skills, accounting skills and technological skills (2.3.2; 6.3.1). *Knowledge-that* (also known as subject conceptual knowledge) consists of foundational knowledge (to know), humanistic knowledge (to value), and meta-knowledge (to act) (2.3.2). Furthermore, 21st century learning consists of ICT technological competencies. Within the education context, most scholars refer to the theoretical framework in Mishra and Koehler (2006) (2.3.1). This framework highlights four essential knowledge bodies to use technology in classrooms effectively. These are content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, technological knowledge and technological pedagogical content knowledge. The interactions between the knowledge bodies also highlight important knowledge needed in the 21st century, for example context knowledge. This description of 21st century learning is not fixed and could evolve further in the future. Therefore, one should not have a narrow and closed-off perspective on 21st century learning. Engaging in a communicative action process might assist the process of in

gaining critical consciousness of what constitutes 21st century learning. During this communicative action process new pathways for understanding and implementing 21st century learning may emerge.

7.3.2 Voices of different stakeholders to reform the Business Education curriculum

The literature revealed that student voices could present important insights into curriculum reform and should not be silenced (3.1). It is also important to note that one authentic voice is not sufficient; multiple diverse voices should be heard during the curriculum reform process. In terms of South Africa's education system, the Department of Education invokes a RDDA model (1.3.4) framed in a Tylerian mould (1.3.4) which does not seriously consider multiple diverse voices when the curriculum is being developed or reformed. Freire criticises this top-down approach as it might lead to the emergence of transdisciplinary trajectories amongst other things (3.3; 3.5). From a Freirian view, Master's and Doctoral students should bear in mind that curriculum reform is not a linear process and consists of complicated conversations and scholarly debates with several stakeholders. Therefore, Master's and Doctoral students should be especially wary of suggesting changes to the curriculum, without rigorous consideration of the complexities involved.

7.3.3 International historical moments as a benchmark for curriculum reform

International historical moments could serve as a benchmark for South Africa when engaging with curriculum reform (3.2.2). The Master's and Doctoral students did not refer to curriculum reform initiatives in other countries. This is necessary even if not all curriculum reform initiatives in other countries would be applicable in South Africa, which has a unique character (2.2.1). In the literature review, I discussed curriculum reform initiatives that other countries have implemented in the Business Education field. In Australia, Business Education is also often used as instrument to steer students towards the world of work (3.2.2.1). In Australia's education system, a capstone module was included in the Business Education programme to consolidate disciplinary knowledge and to advocate skills. Since the Master's and Doctoral students have over-emphasised skills in South Africa, Australia's approach could be considered. England also sees it as important to prepare students for the 21st century (3.2.2.2). Its focus is on integrating technology to develop an interdisciplinary curriculum approach within the Business Education field. Canada gives considerable attention to International Business as an essential entity in Business Education. This involves cultivating international awareness to gain an understanding of business and markets beyond country boundaries (3.2.2.3). International Business can be incorporated through an integration or separation approach. If this is to be implemented in the Business Education programme in South Africa, the requirements of the department and professional bodies would first have to be studied to see if it would be feasible. There are many more examples

of curriculum reform initiatives in the field of Business Education in other countries. Countries with emerging economies similar to South Africa could provide valuable insights or departure points for curriculum reform in the 21st century. However, curriculum developers should be wary of uncritically importing curricula from another country where the context differs substantially from that of South Africa.

7.3.4 *Homo economicus* and the lack of Ubuntu

The literature indicated that *homo economicus* is visible within the South African context (2.2.3). These Master's and Doctoral students uncritically suggest that human capital should serve economic interests without recognising the negative impact of this approach (5.3.1; 5.4.1; 5.7.2). *Homo economicus* also refers to the lack of Ubuntu since it is focused on a reductionist anthropology that creates human resources or capital to increase profits at the expense of the environment and society (3.3). This reductionist anthropology leads to narcissist forms of neo-liberalism, among other things, that are seen as a form of extraction capitalism (2.2.3). In the literature, scholars lend support to an economic philosophy within a social system of justice to promote sympathy to limit these narcissist forms and excess of extraction capitalism. In this economic philosophy, sympathy is seen essential. Sympathy should not be viewed as pity. Adam Smith refers to it as cognitive and psychological processes to connect people to maintain social harmony and avoid forming social coercion (3.3).

7.3.5 Business Education as an instrument

Business Education can be viewed as an instrument for economic growth and prosperity as well as an instrument of emancipation (2.2.2.2; 2.2.3; 3.5). The latter did not emerge from the data. The data placed an over-emphasis on Business Education as an instrument for economic means. The Master's and Doctoral students often cite the "benefits" of this instrumentalism without critically questioning it (5.3.1; 5.4.1; 5.7.2). Business Education as an instrument for economic means clouds people's ability to see others as human beings rather than as money-making machines to deliver profits (1.2.3). It is focused on exploitation, self-interest, narcissist forms of greed, widening the economic divide between rich and poor, reinstating the power of the capitalist class and undermining the power of labour, amongst other things (3.5). Certain Master's and Doctoral students have started to shift their understanding of Business Education to incorporate social awareness, social justice, sustainable development, environmental awareness, and ethics (referred to emerging trends in this study) (6.6). Master's and Doctoral students should avoid creating another type of instrumentalism in the Business Education field. Critical theory could assist in revealing the dangers of instrumentalism, such as providing one-sided and reductionist solutions to socio-economic problems.

7.4 Evidence-based recommendations for further research

This research study has identified five evidence-based recommendations for further research. These are questioning transcendental accounts in the Business Education field in 21st century South Africa (7.4.1); posing ontological questions related to the inherent nature of Business Education (7.4.2); devising support programmes to use technologies in Business Education in South Africa effectively (7.4.3); exploring different factors for dropout rates in Business Education in South Africa (7.4.4); and using a meta-study design for research on Business Education (7.4.5).

7.4.1 Questioning transcendental accounts of the Business Education field in the 21st century South Africa

Further research could be conducted to uncover other problems associated with instrumentalism in the Business Education field in South Africa. A majority of the Master's and Doctoral students uncritically accepted transcendental accounts of Business Education (5.3.1; 5.4.1; 5.6.1; 5.6.2; 5.7.1; 5.7.2). In these, Business Education is viewed as an instrument for economic means. The "benefits" of this instrumentalism are a contradiction as instrumentalism widens the inequality gap in South Africa, and has other negative effects (3.5). Some recent Master's and Doctoral studies show signs of an emerging trend to move the field of Business Education away from transcendental accounts (5.2.1; 5.3.1; 5.4.1; 5.4.2; 5.7.1; 5.7.2). These emerging trends include social awareness (6.6.1), social justice (6.6.2), environmental awareness (6.6.3), sustainability (6.6.4), and ethics (6.6.5). Each of these emerging trends could be further explored within the field of Business Education in South Africa.

7.4.2 Posing ontological questions on the inherent nature of Business Education

Further research can be conducted on ontological questions related to the inherent nature of Business Education. Master's and Doctoral students' research between 1997 and 2018 over-emphasised methodological trends in Business Education. They also suggested various teaching-learning practices (5.2.2) and assessment trends (5.2.3) in Business Education. However, they failed to raise ontological questions on the inherent nature of Business Education and this area, therefore, needs more attention.

7.4.3 Devising support programmes to effectively use technologies in the Business Education classroom in South Africa

Further research can explore the establishment of a support programme to enable education institutions, educators, and students to use technologies effectively in Business Education, particularly in the South African context. The Fourth Industrial Revolution and 21st century

learning necessitates that ICT/digital technologies be used effectively in Business Education classrooms (5.3.1; 5.5.1; 6.3.2). Within the South African context, educators and students do not always have the necessary technological competencies to benefit from these technologies. Furthermore, education institutions, educators and students do not have the necessary technological equipment (2.3.3; 5.3.1; 5.5.1; 6.3.2). The data revealed that Master's and Doctoral students uncritically suggested several technological tools that could be used in the Business Education field without taking South Africa's unique character into account (5.5.1). The literature review revealed that scholars such as Mishra and Koehler (2006) had designed a framework to help educators to use technology in the classroom effectively (2.3.1). However, this framework is not situated in the South African context nor is it particularly focused on Business Education. The framework offers no more than a general guide for educators. Attention needs to be given to devising a support programme to enable education institutions, educators, and students to use technologies effectively in Business Education classrooms in South Africa.

7.4.4 Exploring different factors for dropout rates in Business Education in South Africa

Further research could be conducted on the factors specifically related to Business Education that make students dropout and how to prevent these dropouts. The Master's and Doctoral students indicated that students frequently drop out of accounting programmes because of challenges related to understanding accounting (5.8). The Master's and Doctoral students also referred to general factors that make students drop out of their courses such as financial challenges, academic exclusion because of poor academic performance, inadequate space in classrooms and hostels, language barriers, insufficient student support services, and teaching-learning styles (5.8). Further research could be conducted on how the above factors result in students dropping out of Business Education. Other factors could also be explored.

7.4.5 Using a meta-study design for research on Business Education

None of the Master's and Doctoral studies which formed part of this study employed a meta-study (Addendum C; Addendum D). Master's and Doctoral students could consider employing a meta-study design in their research, as it generates rich data about a particular field or phenomenon and opens avenues for further research. I employed a meta-study design to determine what intellectual projects Master's and Doctoral students had undertaken in Business Education (1.5.1; 1.7.2; 4.3). It is against this background, that I view a meta-study design as an explorative gateway to unite the literature and the data to arrive at new theoretical and contextual insights (7.2).

7.5 Limitations of this study

Afrikaans theses and dissertations were excluded from the data for language consistency reasons (1.7.4; 4.9; Addendum C; Table 1.1). These Afrikaans studies could have provided valuable data for the Business Education field in South Africa. It was not possible to collect all the Master's and Doctoral studies between the period 1997 and 2018, which implies that I may have left studies out of account that could have presented new insights in Business Education.

Since I used Atlas.ti™ to analyse the data, printed theses and dissertations were not suitable for this software (1.7.4; 4.5; 4.6; 4.9). The theses and dissertations were also too large to scan for data analysis purposes. These printed studies that were excluded from the sample could have contributed to a deeper understanding of Business Education.

This study focused only on theses and dissertations on Business Education published in South Africa (4.4). The data, interpretations, and findings cannot be generalised to other countries, as the study specifically describes the Business Education field within the South African context.

7.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, my main contribution can be summarised as follows: Business Education is often used as an instrument for economic growth and economic prosperity. However, there are signs of a shift in the field of Business Education towards social awareness, environmental awareness, sustainable development, social justice, and ethics (emerging trends). Critical theory could provide a helpful perspective for evaluating the emerging trends that take Business Education beyond a one-dimensional profit-driven approach. As I have argued, Business Education curriculum should be aligned with the needs of the 21st century South Africa. I also identified theoretical gaps in the Master's and Doctoral studies used in this study and made evidence-based recommendations for further research. My final reflection is that Business Education should not be used as an instrument to create human capital to fuel economic growth. Instead, Habermas's communicative action and Freire's emancipatory theory should be employed to open new pathways for Business Education so it can evolve into an ever changing social context.

POST-SCRIPT
POST REFLECTIONS ON MY PHD

The road to the finishing line of a PhD has proved to be a strenuous climb involving resilience and personal growth. The road has not been as clear as one might think at the beginning of a PhD journey. One would think that a PhD journey is ultimately a lonely one. This is not the case. There is an ecology of support structures along the way. In my first year of traveling on this road, doctoral training programmes provided some of the necessary tools, for example, how to write a research proposal, tips on how to write, and to use electronic referencing, amongst other things. It also does not imply that one is going to use all these tools, as each PhD journey are unique. I for one did not choose to use electronic referencing as I knew the reference guide by heart and believed that the most accurate reference list is done by hand. One-stop engine shops are also on the way, where one could upgrade skills needed. I did a workshop on using Atlas.ti™. Then of course there were the scholars (Master's and Doctoral students) whose writings I analysed to present new insights during my journey. Do not forget the gatekeepers (or shall I rather say promoters) who gave constructive feedback to assist me in completing my PhD journey successfully. Family members, friends and colleagues stood on the side-lines cheering me on, gave advice and dried tears. And in times when I came crashing to the ground too tired to walk, my heavenly Father carried me and whispered to me: 'You can do this my child, have faith'.

I have learnt during this journey that I should think critically about phenomena and should question the status quo. When I started my journey, it was an adventure, an exploration, a journey to the unknown. I was not sure what the data would reveal neither did I know what contribution I would be making. It made a significant difference to me to explore and determine what intellectual projects Master's and Doctoral students have undertaken in Business Education. The theses and dissertations highlighted interesting research topics, but some studies revealed a very narrow engagement with their research. I had forgotten to pack my compass and therefore uncritically followed the path of these fellow travellers on the rocky 21st century learning route. I uncritically accepted the arguments of other Master's and Doctoral students who believed that 21st century skills were a panacea to solve socio-economic ills. Until I was well into the journey, I did know that 21st century learning consists of more than only 21st century skills. After having complicated conversations with my gatekeepers and reviewing and exploring structures which several scholars had built their houses on, I realised that 21st century skills are not the answer to the problems or challenges of a digitised transformative 21st century. First lesson learnt! Be wary of falling into traps so engage critically with the literature and the data of the study. During my PhD

journey one aspect stood out more than others. For the most part, the Master's and Doctoral students uncritically adopted an instrumental agenda for Business Education. Yet, it seems I did not learn from my earlier lesson. I also fell into a trap of neo-liberal agendas when I wrote my first drafts of my literature. Later on, my gatekeepers challenged me to read more and most importantly to think critically. Right from the start of a PhD journey, one needs to think like a PhD student. Getting this advice at that point left me feeling demotivated and anxious. I just needed a little bit of direction. I discovered the secret was to take small steps and make each step count. This does not mean every step has to be perfect. I learnt that I had to take the step, even in the face of uncertainty, and not just give up! I put on my critical theory lens and continued this journey head on. I found the confidence to critique instrumental agendas – I was starting to develop my own academic voice!

During the analysis of the theses and dissertations, I was overjoyed to discover cherry blossoms (emerging trends in Business Education) signalling signs of new life that could enrich the Business Education landscape. I wonder what this road would look like in five to ten years' time from now if these cherry blossoms grow and increase. I also noticed that there were roads less travelled. Master's and Doctoral students did not embark on a research journey with a meta-study methodology. In this sense, my journey was unique in Business Education. Future travellers in Business Education should consider conducting a meta-study design. It makes it possible to access rich data that lends itself to further exploration and the possibility of making a significant contribution to intellectually advanced curriculum pathways.

My final PhD destination took me four years to reach. There will always be more roads one would have liked to explore and different roads that could lead to another end destination. The experiences of each PhD journey will be different from any other – that is what makes a PhD journey unique. It is always a climb to the unknown.

There's always gonna be another mountain
I'm always gonna wanna make it move
Always gonna be an uphill battle
Sometimes I'm gonna have to lose
Ain't about how fast I get there
Ain't about what's waitin' on the other side
It's the climb

~Miley Cyrus "The climb"

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ADDENDUM A

LETTER OF ATTENDANCE: QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS WITH ATLAS.TI™ 8 (2 DAY WORKSHOP)

Private Bag X1290, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520

Tel: 018 299-1111/2222
Fax: 018 299-4910
Web: http://www.nwu.ac.za

AUTHeR
(Africa Unit for Transdisciplinary Health Research)

Chris-Mari Le Hanie
North-West University
Potchefstroom
2520

Potchefstroom, 12 June 2019

Dear Chris-Mari Le Hanie

LETTER OF ATTENDANCE: QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS WITH ATLAS.TI 8 (2 DAY WORKSHOP)

This letter serves as confirmation that you attended the two-day workshop on qualitative data analysis with ATLAS.ti 8 held by Dr Nicole Claasen 05 to 06 June 2019 at North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus.

The workshop programme included:

Introductory level (1st day)

- Basics of qualitative data analysis
- Advantages of computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software
- Preparing and organising data for analysis
- Interface and basic terms of ATLAS.ti
- Setting-up a project in ATLAS.ti
- Coding and building a code system in ATLAS.ti
- Creating networks, word clouds and word lists in ATLAS.ti

Advanced level (2nd day)

- Descriptive and conceptual levels of qualitative data analysis
- Using analytic memos
- Creating and managing semantic relations between codes
- Creating networks based non-semantic and semantic relations
- Querying data including the Query Tool, Code-Document Tables, Code Co-Occurrence
- Generating reliability using the Inter-Coder Agreement Measure in ATLAS.ti
- Using ATLAS.ti for a literature review

Yours sincerely,

Dr Nicole Claasen
ATLAS.ti certified senior professional trainer
AUTHeR, North-West University

ADDENDUM B

ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER OF STUDY

NWU®
NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA

Private Bag X1290, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520

Tel: 018 299-1111/2222
Fax: 018 299-4910
Web: http://www.nwu.ac.za

Senate Committee for Research Ethics
Tel: 018 299-4849
Email: nkosinathi.machine@nwu.ac.za

ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER OF STUDY

Based on approval by the **Faculty of Education Research Ethics Committee (EduREC)** on 19/07/2020, this committee hereby **approves** your study as indicated below. This implies that the North-West University Senate Committee for Research Ethics (NWU-SCRE) grants its permission that, provided the special conditions specified below are met and pending any other authorisation that may be necessary, the study may be initiated, using the ethics number below.

Study title: The Business Education curriculum in 21st century South Africa: A meta-study of Master's and Doctoral studies

Study Leader/Supervisor (Principal Investigator)/Researcher: Prof P du Preez

Student / Team: C Le Hanie (PhD student – 22116052); Prof M Rathbone

Ethics number:

N	W	U	-	0	1	6	0	3	-	1	9	-	A	2
Institution				Study Number						Year			Status	

Status: S = Submission; R = Re-Submission; P = Provisional Authorisation; A = Authorisation

Application Type: Single Study

Commencement date: 23/05/2019 **Risk:** No Risk

Expiry date: 23/05/2020

Approval of the study is initially provided for a year, after which continuation of the study is dependent on receipt and review of the annual (or as otherwise stipulated) monitoring report and the concomitant issuing of a letter of continuation.

Special in process conditions of the research for approval (if applicable):

General conditions:

While this ethics approval is subject to all declarations, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, the following general terms and conditions will apply:

- *The study leader/supervisor/principal investigator/researcher must report in the prescribed format to the EduREC:*
  - *annually (or as otherwise requested) on the monitoring of the study, whereby a letter of continuation will be provided, and upon completion of the study; and*
  - *without any delay in case of any adverse event or incident (or any matter that interrupts sound ethical principles) during the course of the study.*
- *The approval applies strictly to the proposal as stipulated in the application form. Should any amendments to the proposal be deemed necessary during the course of the study, the study leader/researcher must apply for approval of these amendments at the EduREC, prior to implementation. Should there be any deviations from the study proposal without the necessary approval of such amendments, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.*
- *Annually a number of studies may be randomly selected for an external audit.*
- *The date of approval indicates the first date that the study may be started.*
- *In the interest of ethical responsibility, the NWU-SCRC and EduREC reserves the right to:*
  - *request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the study;*

- *to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modification or monitor the conduct of your research or the informed consent process;*
- *withdraw or postpone approval if:*
  - *any unethical principles or practices of the study are revealed or suspected;*
  - *it becomes apparent that any relevant information was withheld from the EduREC or that information has been false or misrepresented;*
  - *submission of the annual (or otherwise stipulated) monitoring report, the required amendments, or reporting of adverse events or incidents was not done in a timely manner and accurately; and / or*
  - *new institutional rules, national legislation or international conventions deem it necessary.*

The EduREC would like to remain at your service as scientist and researcher, and wishes you well with your study. Please do not hesitate to contact the EduREC or the NWU-SCRE for any further enquiries or requests for assistance.

Yours sincerely

Prof JAK Olivier
Chairperson NWU Faculty of Education Research Ethics Committee

Original details: (22351930) C:\Users\22351930\Desktop\ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER OF STUDY.docm
8 November 2018

Current details: (22351930) M:\DSS1\8533\Monitoring and Reporting Cluster\Ethics\Certificates\Templates\Research Ethics Approval Letters\9.1.5.4.1 ES-REC Ethical Approval Letter.docm
5 December 2018

File reference: 9.1.5.4.2

ADDENDUM C

DATA REGISTER

Colour code index	
Red	Data used for pilot study
Grey	Data excluded for language consistency (Afrikaans)

Surname and Initials of Master's and Doctoral students	Year of Submission	Degree	Format of degree	Instition of degree completion	Title of study
Mabunda, P.N.	1997	Master of Education	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	Business involvement with education in the Dzumeri Royal community
Van Koller, J.F	1997	Doctor of Education	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	Alternative measurement instruments for the evaluation of learner achievement in Business Management at the Technikon SA
Maistry, S. M	1998	Master of education	Research report	Uniersity of Natal	Case studies of economic teaching in secondary schools
Mokane, R.P	1998	Magister educationis	Dissertation	Rand Arikaans University	Learners' involvement in the attainment of learning outcomes in the teaching of Economics

Lugayeni, P.F	1999	Master of education	Not stated on document	University of zululand	Motivational challenges experienced by Economic teachers
Van der Merwe, A.S	1999	Magister Educationis	Thesis	NWU (Potchefstroom)	Entrepreneurskaponderrig vir leerders met leerprobleme
Van der Westhuizen, D	1999	Doctor Educationis	Thesis	Rand Afrikaans University	Teaching information technology in education using online education
Westraad, S.F	2001	Magister Philosophiae	Thesis	University of Stellenbosch	An evaluation of the design and implementation of an outcomes-based education Business Studies bridging programme
Olivier, M	2002	Magister Technologiae: Education	Not stated on document	Port Elizabeth Technikon	the development of a model for the assessment of the subject Entrepreneurship and Business Management at the N4 level using an Outcones Based Education approach
Le Roux, I	2003	MPHIL in Entrepreneurship	Not stated on document	University of Pretoria	Economic and Management Sciences learning area of Curriculum 2005 and entrepreneurial orientation
Taft, T	2003	Doctor Educationis	Not stated on document	Rand Afrikaans University	Managing education-business partnerships within a project cycle management framework

Groenewald, S	2004	Magister educationis	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	‘n Onderwysersopleingsprogram om struikelblokke tot leer in rekeningkunde te oorkom
Korpel, I.R.	2004	Philosophiae Doctor in education	Not stated on document	University of Pretoria	Identifying a leverage point to improve business performance through eLearning: a case study in a financial institution
Paxton, M.I.J	2004	Doctor of Philpsphy	Thesis	University of Cape Town	Intertextuality in student wrinting: the intersection of the academic curriculum and student voices in first year Economic assignments
Smith, L.C	2004	Master of Commece	Dissertation	University of Cape Town	A multivariate evaluation of mainstream and academic development courses in first-year microeconomics at the University of Cape Town: A comparative study
Jacobs, L	2005	Doctor of Commerce in Financial Management Sciences	Not stated on document	University of Pretoria	The impact of the changing practitioner requirements on management accounting education at South African universities

Maistry, S. M	2005	Doctor of Philosophy	Thesis	University of KwaZulu-Natal	Teacher learning in a community of practice: a case study of teachers of Economic and Management Sciences
Moore, C	2005	Master of Education	Minor dissertation	University of Cape Town	A contextual investigation into selected factors associated with student performance in Financial Accounting 1 at a South African tertiary institution
Niyonkuru, R.	2005	Magister Commercii (Management)	Research project	University of the Western Cape	Entrepreneurship education at teritary institutions in Rwanda: a situation analysis
Shotter, M	2005	Doctor of Commerci	Not stated on document	University of Pretoria	The influence of Marshallian neo-classical economics on management accounting in South Africa
Assan, T.E.B	2006	Doctor of Philosophy	Thesis	North-West University (Mafikeng Campus)	Phenomenograpgic studies in variations of learning and teaching of Economic and Management Sciences in Secondary Schools
Fouché, J.P	2006	Doctor of philosophy in accountancy	Thesis	NWU (Potchefstroom)	Programme development for first year accounting in South Africa higher education
Steenkamp, E. A	2006	Magister Commercii in International Trade	Dissertation	NWU (Potchefstroom)	The structure and content of undergraduate Economics curricula offered by South African universities

Thomas, K	2006	Philosophiae Doctor	Not stated on document	University of Pretoria	Learner perspectives on the use of learning management system in the first-year Economics
Bray, N	2007	Mtech Marketing	Thesis	Cape Peninsula University of Technology	An Accounting syllabus for marketing students as determined by SME needs and specifications
Du Plessis, A	2007	Magister in die educationis	Not stated on document	University of Johannesburg	Assessmenr of learning in accounting at first-year level in higher education promoting a deep approach-to-learning
Du Toit, A.	2007	Magister Educationis	Mini-thesis	University of the Western Cape	Group work in management education- the role of task design
Francis, R.H.C	2007	Master of Philosophy in Higer Education	Minor dissertation	University of Cape Town	The value of the Matriculation and the Alternative Admissions in predicting success for the Bachelor of Business Science Extended Curriculum Programme studies at University of Cape Town
Greyling, L	2007	Masters in Business Administration	Not stated on document	University of Pretoria	The effective integration of entrepreneurial development into the Education Curriculum as Potential Stimulus for New Venture Creation

Selesho, J.M	2007	Magister technologiae education	Dissertation	Port Elizabeth Technikon	An investigation into factors that influence the results of Accounting (education) at the technikon Free State
Sissing, D.	2007	Magister Commercii (Information Management)	Thesis	University of the Western Cape	Information technology architecture and related strategic factors supporting business advantage
Van Wyk, M.M	2007	Philosophiae Doctor	Not stated on document	University of the frees state	The use of cooperative learning in Economics in the further education and training phase in the Free State province
Coetzee, J.J	2008	Doctor of Business leadership	Thesis	University of South Africa	A social contract with business as the basis for a postmodern MBA in a world order of inclusive globalisation - a critical metasynthesis
Hollis-Turner, S.L.	2008	Master of Education	Thesis	Cape Peninsula University of Technology	Higher Education Business writing practices in office managemet and technology programmes and in related workplaces
Meyer, F.J	2008	Philosopiahe Doctor Educationis	Not stated on document	Central University of Technology	The provision of support material to assist FET phase accounting educators in the Free State province
O'Reilly-Bargate, K.	2008	Master of Education	Dissertation	University of KwaZulu-Natal	An investigation of prescribed managerial Accounting and Finance textbooks used by

					B.Com Accounting students at some Universities in South Africa
Sekhukhune, M.E	2008	Masters of Business Administration	Mini-dissertation	NWU (Potchefstroom)	An empirical investigation into the key factors causing second-year Accounting students to drop out Tshwane University of Technology-Soshanguve Campus between 2004 to 2006
Leepile, G.	2009	Master of Education	Not stated on document	University of Pretoria	Assessing home economics coursework in senior secondary schools in Botswana
Lewis, J	2009	Master in Business Administration	Mini-dissertation	North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus)	Business viability: a comparison between franchises and independent business
Lombard, F.A.	2009	Magister Edutionis	Not stated on document	University of the Western Cape	Exploring the relationship between work and learning within small business development
Meyer, N	2009	Master in Business Administration	Mini-dissertation	North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus)	An investigation into the determinants of women entrepreneurship
Roodt, L	2009	Magister Technologiae	Not stated on document	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	A Quality analysis of the cost and Management Accounting curricula at higher education institutions in South Africa

Russell, Y	2009	Master of education	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	New assessment methods in Business Studies in the FET Phase
Sathorar, H.H.	2009	Masters in Business Administration	Not stated on document	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	Assessing entrepreneurship education at secondary schools in the NMBA
De Jager, E	2010	Mphil	Thesis	Stellenbosch University	Studente se belewenis van 'n hulpgroep in 'n eerstejaarsmodule in Finasiele Rekeningkunde
De lange, A.J	2010	Master of Commerce	Dissertation	University of KwaZulu-Natal	can "podcasts" significantly help improve first time, first year Economic students' results
Henrico, A	2010	Philosophiae Doctor in leer en onderrig	Thesis	NWU (Potchefstroom)	n Onderrigmodel vir die ontwikkeling van onderwysstudente in Besigheidstudies se hoërorde kognitiewe vaardighede
Mungroo, B.A	2010	Master of Business Administration	Dissertation	University of KwaZulu-Natal	Entrepreneurship education
Thaanyane, M.E	2010	Master of Education	Dissertation	University of KwaZulu-Natal	Teachers' experienes of implementing Business Education in three secondary schools in Maseru districy, Lesotho
Weyers, C. G. W.	2010	Philosophiae Doctor in the school of	Not stated on document	North-West University (Vaal	Management Accounting as a tool to measure the viability of performance

		Accounting Sciences		Triangle Campus)	management or the acedemia in higher education in South Africa
Beck, R.A.	2011	Master in cost and management Accounting	Not stated on document	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	Retention and dropout rates for a sample of national higher certificate students in the school of Accounting
Cook, V.S	2011	Masters in Business Administration	Not stated on document	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	Entrepreneurship education at a FET college
Kgagara, M.R	2011	Master in Business Administration	Mini-dissertation	NWU (Potchefstroom)	An assessment of the attitude towards entrepreneurship among higher education students in Sedibeng district
Naidoo, Q	2011	Master of Business Administration	Dissertation	University of KwaZulu-Natal	Evaluating effectiveness of adult entrepreneurial education in building the South African Economy
Pistorius, Z	2011	Master in Business Administration	Mini-dissertation	NWU (Potchefstroom)	Entrepreneurship competence of Economic Management Science teachers in the Kenneth Kaunda District
Shaku_M_D	2011	Master of commerce	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	The gap in management accounting skills required by venture capital providers and those possessed by small and medium enterprises in the craft industry

Van Staden, L.J	2011	Philosophiae Doctor (Educationis)	Dissertation	NWU (Potchefstroom)	'n Akademiese steunraamwerk vir onderwysstudente in die leerarea Ekonomiese en Bestuurswetenskappe
Wojtulewicz,L	2011	Master of Business Administration	Dissertation	University of KwaZulu-Natal	An assessment of the South African MBA Curriculum
Ackerman, L	2012	Master of education	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	Factors affecting the choice of Business Studies in the FET phase in three co-educational independent schools in Kwazulu-Natal
America, C	2012	Doctor of Philosophy in Education	Dissertation	Stellenbosch University	The relevance, importance and applicability of Sustainable Development in Economic and Management Sciences (EMS) Education
Baka, P	2012	Master in Business Administration	Research report	North-West University (Mafikeng Campus)	Financial Management literacy of early childhood development centre managers in Mafikeng
Barnard, J.M	2012	Masters in Business Administration	Mini-dissertation	NWU (Potchefstroom)	An assessment of entrepreneurial intentions of secondary school learners in selected areas

Chisenga, D.C.	2012	Master of Economics (structured)	Research report	University of the Western Cape	Clustering and Incubation in Africa's Small Business Development: Some experiences and lessons
Dos Reis, K.M	2012	Doctor educationis	Dissertation	Cape Peninsula University of Technology	Challenges pre-service teachers face while learning to teach Accounting in the context of mentoring
Julius, C.A	2012	Magister educationis	Thesis	Stellenbosch University	'n Ondersoek na Ekonomiese-en Bestuurswetenskappe as leerarea in die senior fase van die skoolkurrikulum
Maboko, F.M	2012	Masters of Economic and Management Sciences (EMS) education	Mini-dissertation	NWU (Mafikeng)	An analysis of Economic and Manafement Sciences curriculum in the North-West province
Malebana, M.J	2012	Doctor of commerce	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	Entrepreneurial intent of final-year commerce students in the rural province of South Africa
Mandla, S	2012	Magister in Business Administration	Research project	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	Second life: a support teaching methodology for entrepreneurship
Mothabeng, A.J	2012	Masters in Business Administration	Mini-dissertation	North-West University	An assessment of the attitudes of Grade 12 learners toward entrepreneurship in a

				(Potchefstroom Campus)	selected area in the North West province. NWU- Potchefstroom
Ngwenya, J.C.	2012	PhD in Education	Not stated on document	University of KwaZulu-Natal	Formative assessment in Accounting: exploring teachers' understanding and practices
Qoto, N.M	2012	Masters in Business Administration	Not stated on document	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	Assessing entrepreneurship education programmes in secondary schools
Sithole, B.M	2012	Doctor of Education	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	A curriculum for vocational Business subjects in Botswana Junior secondary schools: challenges for entrepreneurial pedagogies
Waghid, Z	2012	Master of Education	Thesis	Stellenbosch University	Investigating intersections between the further eduaction and training Economic curriculum and growth and development frameworks- implications for teaching and learning
Williams, J.A	2012	Magister Bibliotechologiae	Mini-thesis	University of the Western Cape	An evaluation of the information literacy education of MBA students at the University of Stellenbosch Business School

Agbenyegah, A.T	2013	Philosophiae Doctor in Business Administration	Thesis	North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus)	Challenges facing rural entrepreneurship in selected areas in South Africa
Jantjies, H	2013	Master of Commerce in Management	Not stated on document	University of the Western Cape	Black economic development ventures in the South African wine industry: Business models and key success factors
Katunga, N	2013	Master in information Systems Management programme	Thesis	University of the Western Cape	Understanding the role of e-skills in the utilisation of electronic small business development support services
Keyser, J.N	2013	Phlosophiae Doctor	Thesis	University of the frees state	Self-regulated learning and time perspective as predictors of academic performance in undergraduate economics studies
Kilasi, P.K.	2013	Philosophiae Doctor in education	Thesis	University of Pretoria	The role of higher education in promoting entrepreneurship education: the case of public universities in Tanzania
Meyers, L.P.	2013	Master of Eucation	Thesis	Rhodes University	An analysis of the structure of knowledge and students' construction of knowledge in an introductory Accounting course

Ramasedi, M.	2013	Magister Commercii in Business Management	Not stated on document	University of Johannesburg	Business expectations of corporate social responsibility spent in education
Zikhali, J.B.S	2013	Master of education	Not stated on document	University of KwaZulu-Natal	Students' learning experiences in second year Augmented Economics
Dikgwatlhe, K.	2014	Masters in Business Administration	Mini-dissertation	North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus)	Developing a framework to enable small business enterprises to be sustainanle
Flanagan, W.G.T	2014	Master of Education	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	Creating authentic learning environments in a grade 10 Economics classroom via a progressive teaching design
Letshwene, M.J	2014	Master of Education	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	Improving Grade 10 Accounting teachers' competencies in the Ekurhuleni district of the Gauteng Province
Maharaj, N	2014	Master of Education	Dissertation	University of KwaZulu-Natal	The geographies of inclusion and exclusion in the Business Studies curriculum: narratives of six students at a vocational education and traning collage in Kwazulu-Natal

Malindi, M.M	2014	Master of Business Administration	Research proposal	University of Pretoria	Impact of enterpreneurship education on entrepreneurial intent at further education and training (FET) colleges in South Africa
Meintjies, A.J	2014	Philosohae Doctor in Enterpreneurship	Thesis	NWU (Potchefstroom)	The enhancement of selected entrepreneurial competencies of grade 11 learners in Business Studies
Pele, N.V	2014	Master Educationis	Not stated on document	Central University of Technology	Mediation of learning in Business Studies in the furher education and training phase in the Lejweleputswa education district
Schreuder, G.R	2014	Doctor of Education	Thesis	Cape Peninsula University of Technology	Teacher professional development: the case of quality teaching in Accounting at selected Western Cape Secondary schools
Van Romburgh, H	2014	Magister Commercii in Accounting	Dissertation	NWU (Potchefstroom)	Accounting education: investigating the gap between school, university and practice
Breedt, M.M	2015	Master of Education	Not stated on document	University of Pretoria	Aspects influencing Accounting teachers' attitudes towards Computer Aided Learning
Enderstein, B	2015	Master of Philosphy in Education	Minor dissertation	University of Cape Town	An analysis of curriculum knowledge in an introductery actuarial science course

Enombo, J.G.P.	2015	Master Technology: Business Administration (Entrepreneurship)	Thesis	Cape Peninsula University of Technology	A needs analysis for entrepreneurship education in selected high schools in Liberville, Gabon
Janse van Rensburg, E.C.	2015	Magister Commercii in Accounting Sciences	Not stated on document	University of Pretoria	South African Accounting students' reading comprehension of the IASB's conceptual framework and selected international financial reproting standards
Kalitanyi,V	2015	Doctor of Philosohy in the School of Business and Finanace	Dissertation	University of the Western Cape	Socio-cultural valuea as determinants of entrepreneurial intentions among university students in Cape Town
Mkhize, T.F.	2015	Phd in Education	Thesis	Rhodes University	An analysis of the certificate of the theory of Accounting knowledge and knower structures: a case study of professional knowledge
Nchu, R.M	2015	Master of Technology: Business Administration in Entrepreneurship	Thesis	Cape Peninsula University of Technology	The effectiveness of entrepreneurship education selected high schools in the Cape Town Metropolitan

Nkalane, P.K	2015	Magister Educationis	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	Factors influencing quality assessment practices in Business Studies at technical vocational education and training colleges
Odendaal, K	2015	Magister Commercii in Accountancy	Dissertation	NWU (Potchefstroom)	Applying a framework-based approach to teach complex problem-solving to Accounting students
Van der Ross, R.	2015	Masters's degree in Information Management	Thesis	University of the Western Cape	Identifying the benefits of social media within large financial institutions in South Africa
Van Rooyen, A.A	2015	Doctor Computationis	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	Didactic conversation and transactional distance: A case study of retention and throughput of accounting students
Fourie, A	2016	Philosophical Doctor in Economics	Thesis	NWU (Potchefstroom)	A case study of determining the economic literacy of introductory economic students in South Africa
Kirstein, M.	2016	Master’s degree in Economic and management sciences	Not stated on document	University of Pretoria	Differences in Accounting students' perceptions of their development of generic skills and emotional intelligence in a heterogeneous classroom

Malan, J.H.	2016	P.hD in Business Administration	Thesis	North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus)	An assessment of the impact of entrepreneurial orientation on the success of selected public secondary schools
Matemane, M.R.	2016	Magister Commercii in Financial Management	Mini-dissertation	University of Pretoria	The relationship between financial literacy and saving habits: an analysis of black South Africans with a commercial tertiary education
Mbanga, N	2016	Masters in Business Administration	Not stated on document	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	Entrepreneurial mindset and entrepreneurial education as tools for sustainable smes
Olivier, A.J.	2016	Master's Degree in Development Studies	Mini-thesis	University of the Western Cape	Exploring the perceptions and value of a field study programme for small business owners on their human capital development
Reyneke, Y	2016	Master of Philosophy in Accounting Sciences	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	The use of case studies for pervasive skills training in ODL Accounting education
Venter, A	2016	Master's in Education	Thesis	Cape Peninsula University of Technology	Cognitive prepartion of NCS (Grades 10-12) Accounting learners for studies at a university of technology

Wingfield, B.	2016	Magister Commercii in Financial Management Sciences	Not stated on document	University of Pretoria	The relationship between demographic factors and financial literacy among students at a South African university
Aboo, F	2017	Master of Philosphy	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	Non-academic factors contributing towards performance of postgraduate open distance learning accounting students
Ariail, D.L	2017	Doctor of Business leadership	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	The person-organization fit of Accounting students: Long-term value change following an education intervention
Dadam_V	2017	Doctor of Philosophy	Not stated on document	University of Pretoria	Structural Unemployment, Labour Market Dynamics and the transmission of monetary Policy in South Africa
Dames, E.W	2017	Magister Educationis	Thesis	University of the Western Cape	The impact of neoliberalism on South Africa's education policy
Fakoya-Michael, S.A	2017	Master's of Information Studies	Not stated on document	University of South Africa	Library usage by university accounting students: a comparison of contact and open distance learning institution in South Africa
Hyland, T	2017	Master of education	Minor dissertation	University of Cape Town	Student negotiation of an undergraduate accounting assessment

Kruger, D	2017	Master of Education	Dissertation	NWU (Potchefstroom)	Teacher educators' perspectives on Pedagogical Content Knowledge for secondary school Economics teaching
Olivier, C.	2017	Magister Commercii	Minor dissertation	University of Johannesburg	The impact of formal credit extenions and education as enablers of small business growth in South Africa
Olutuase, S.O	2017	Doctor of Philosophy in the School of Business and Finance	Thesis	University of the Western Cape	Modelling the effect of Entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial mindset, skills and intentions: empirical evidence from the undergraduates in Nigeria
Susani, M	2017	Master of Education	Mini-dissertation	Walter Sisulu University	Challenges facing the teaching and learning of Accounting in secindary schools of the Mthatha education district
Van der Cloff_F	2017	Doctor of Philosophy in Financial Management Sciences	Not stated on document	University of Pretoria	An artificial intelligence model to predict financial distress in companies listed on the JSE
Minnaar, C.E.	2018	Master of Commerce in Accountancy	Dissertation	NWU	Analysing the use of a board game as educational tool in secondary school Accounting

Sambo, P.M	2018	Master of Business Administration	Mini-dissertation	North-West University	Investigating the attitude towards entrepreneurship among Business Studies learners in selected secondary schools

ADDENDUM D
ATLAS.TI™ PROJECT

Atlas.ti™ project dropbox link:

https://www.dropbox.com/sh/lrima53adgapag7/AABwWJWNDlQrhSAf-Vhpw6Qba?dl=1

To import the Atlas.ti™ project into Atlas.ti™ 8 or 9 software, follow the next steps:

Step 1: Copy the permanent dropbox link and paste the link into google chrome or any other internet explorer.

Step 2: A Zip folder named PhD_Atlas.ti project will start to download.

Step 3: When the Zip-folder has finished downloading, save the atlproj file on your computer.

Step 4: Open Atlas.ti™ 8 or 9 software.

Step 5: Go to the 'Project' menu.

Step 6: Click on 'import'.

Step 7: After the file have imported, the project will reflect on your project screen.

Step 8: Double click on the project to open it up.

ADDENDUM E
LANGUAGE EDITING CERTIFICATE

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Landline: 021 8871554

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to attest that I have edited the language of the thesis (The Business Education curriculum in 21st century South Africa: A meta-study of Master's and Doctoral studies) written by Chris-Mari Le Hanie.

(Dr) Elaine Ridge BA UED (Natal) DEd (Stell)

Freelance Editor and Translator

18 October 2020

ADDENDUM F

TURN-IT-IN REPORT

ORIGINALITY REPORT

12%	9%	5%	4%
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