COMMODIFICATION, INSTITUTIONAL RESTRUCTURING AND CORPORATE COMMUNICATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF THE MEDIA CAMPAIGN OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NATAL

BY

TŠIU ASSER TŠIU

(ST. NO.: 201505380)

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SUPERVISOR:

PROFESSOR K.G. TOMASELLI

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DECLARATION

I DECLARE THAT THIS RESEARCH THESIS IS MY OWN WORK. ALL CITATIONS HAVE BEEN DULY ACKNOWLEDGED. NO PART OF THIS WORK HAS BEEN SUBMITTED FOR A PREVIOUS DEGREE IN THIS UNIVERSITY OR ANYWHERE ELSE.

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(SIGN)

TŠIU ASSER TŠIU

UNIVERSITY OF NATAL

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ABSTRACT

Changes in global political economy are moving towards 'capitalisation' of public institutions through market instruments. These changes create new environments and challenges. In order to meet these challenges, higher education institutions are restructuring to position themselves in their new environment. In this process, the media play an active role. Using corporate communication as a focal point, this research examines how higher education institutions aim to accomplish their mission, on one hand and mitigate challenges of the new political economy, characterised by globalisation and marketisation, on the other. Using the University of Natal's corporate communication media campaign as a case study, the research looks into how education is commodified through processes of institutional restructuring and how this is reflected or mirrored through corporate communication strategies.

This study is done within cultural studies and critical media research tradition. In contrast to 'administrative' studies that focus on how to use mass communications within the given political economic order to influence audiences, sell products or promote institutions, it addresses social and cultural effects of corporate communication in higher education. It offers insight into how corporate communication could be utilised for societal good instead of perpetuating social inequalities.

Chapter One provides an overview of corporate communication and how it interacts with higher education by looking into challenges that threaten institutions to accomplish their mission. Chapter Two offers a theoretical framework of the new political economy through which higher education is now operating and how the media plays a role in this framework. Chapter Three provides an analysis of the media campaign of the University of Natal as evaluated against the institution's mission statement, and Chapter Four offers data analysis and lessons learned from the University of Natal media campaign.

CHAPTER ONE

CORPORATE COMMUNICATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Corporate Communication – an overview

Corporate communication occupies a special place in the operations of contemporary organisations in their interface with society. It forms part of a larger media landscape and processes associated with mediated communication, which characterise common practices in our everyday life. The rise of corporate communication is attributed to sophistication of society and its institutions, a phenomenon, which has diminished the role of traditional oral and face-to-face interaction. Corporate communication has increased the utility of mediated communications, the exchange of information or symbolic content through technological carriers without requiring co-presence in space and time. Mediation or mediated communication refers to the relaying of second-hand (or third party) versions of events and conditions, which we cannot directly observe for ourselves. It involves efforts of other actors and institutions in society, which aim to contact us for their own purposes or for our own supposed good (McQuail, 2000: 64). It is structural changes in society and technological innovations that saw the proliferation of new modes and arrangements of communication. According to Chris Skinner and Gary Mersham (1998: 347-348), "as society became more complex and sophistication in communication techniques and research methods increased, the need arose for communication experts who could deal with intricate socio-economic, political and other forces as they relate to the communication needs of modern-day organisations".

Communication strategies and media management have become key activities for organisations across the political, social and cultural spectrum seeking positive public perceptions and support. Brokerage of information being channelled through mass media, small media, marketing and web-based digital communications are designed and shaped to gain mileage on publicity, influence public opinion and to reflect organisational goals and objectives. Claims for visibility in the media are not confined to business and political issues, which have received wide critique and comment in their usage of media and corporate communication in particular, but also extend to social movements such as

environmentalists, marginalised groups like women and minorities, organised labour as well as public institutions like universities, which are not traditionally known to seek publicity (Wernick, 1991).

Carried out through a complex set of mainly communicative activities, the public-institution 'dialogue' is often handled through a specialised unit of corporate communication or public relations. Employing corporate communication techniques, institutions utilise communication strategies, information and media management to position themselves in society and marketplace.

Corporate communication is defined as "communications between a corporation or other large organization and its internal and external audiences – the purpose of which is to create greater understanding for, and perception of the ideals and purposes of the organization" (Dolphin (1999: 39). This definition does not, however represents a coherent body of views within this fragmented occupational system nor is it without contestation (Savio, 1992; Duffy, 2000a; Molleda, 2000; Holtzhausen, 2002; Pieczka, 2002). Using another perspective, drawn from Latin American public relations, Juan Carlos Molleda (2000:515) defines public relations as "a socio-technical and administrative discipline with which the opinion and attitude of a public are analysed and evaluated. Public relations is carried through a planned, continuous programme of reciprocal communication destined to maintain a beneficial affinity with and comprehension of the public." In corporate communication, publics may be both internal and external.

Corporate communication is said to have emerged, evolved or transformed from public relations. Both have also traded under various names, such as corporate affairs, external affairs, public information and public affairs, with the latter normally reserved for public-sponsored, government or state related affairs (Savio, 1992: 8; Dolphin, 1999: 2-3). The terms 'corporate communication' and 'public relations' will be used interchangeably in this work. My preference is for 'corporate communication', as it is a more holistic term.

The nomenclature of corporate communication is mainly European. In most contexts, a corporate institution is any organised social institution or body, whether commercial, public or voluntary. 'Corporate' implies organisations – both profit and non-profit making in their totality. It encompasses everything from the small family-run firm to the largest multinational. What defines it as corporate is its cohesion: the idea of people coming together and working towards a common goal (Ind, 1999: 2). Communication, on the other hand, refers to a process of negotiation and exchange of meaning in which messages, 'people-in-cultures' and reality interact so as to enable meaning to be produced or understanding to occur (O'Sullivan et al., 1994: 50). It is therefore not uncommon to learn of a corporate or corporate communication in reference to a voluntary or public organisation. The turn to corporate communication from public relations is also attributed to the negative image of the latter, sometimes referred to as 'spin-doctoring'. Corporate communication is also perceived more broadly as encompassing both external and internal communication, while public relations has a perception of mainly external affairs (Steyn, 1999: 24). The term corporate communication is increasingly being used to describe what is still referred to as public relations in academic literature, however a survey among Fortune 500 companies in the US indicated that, as early as 1992, corporate communication was used in 164 cases compared to 76 that persisted with public relations (Steyn, 2000).

The value of corporate communication, in a modern democracies, is that every organisation survives ultimately only by public consent. Such consent cannot exist in a communication vacuum (Skinner and von Essen, 1999: 5). To its practitioners, corporate communication fosters social harmony, promotes positive public opinion, and strives for mutual understanding between people, groups and organisations. Berendian Lubbe summarizes these functions as:

> Firstly, public relations deals with the *interpretation* of the needs, attitudes and opinions of people, groups and organisations. Secondly these needs, attitudes and opinions must be *communicated* between people, groups and organisations in such a way that an understanding of them is achieved. Finally, public relations must *manage* this process of communication in order to change or maintain needs, attitudes and opinions (1997: 103).

Corporate communication is beneficial to society as it facilitates building of good relations between sectors of society and its institutions whether they be economic, public or organic (Duffy, 2000a: 379). Through its public education, provision of information and dynamic dialogue, different sectors of society are able to access and engage their institutions. It can be conceived as a discourse, which has amongst its ideals the advocacy of equal and fair power relations, and therefore can be redefined as the production and exchange of meanings through relationships (Weaver & Motion, 2002: 327).

Despite the growing awareness of the importance of promotional professions, like corporate communication, in the fields of media and communication studies, media studies has predominantly considered corporate communication as media sources, looking either for patterns and evidence of domination by powerful institutions and interests; or more broadly, focussed on issues of access and participation (Pieczka, 2002; Pieczka & Schlesinger, 2002; Davis, 2000). This critical view is premised and validated by an understanding that research into corporate communication has to take into account intensions, aims, purposes, organisational frameworks, modes of operation, professional values, funding, general circumscriptions, external pressures and ideological considerations (Halloran, 1998: 19). Critical scholars argue that the distribution of power between the corporate institutions and society or its groups is unequal, hence the ability of the former to obtain greater media access for its own good. Media ethists estimate that about 50 per cent of all stories presented in the media – whether print or broadcast – probably are generated initially by a public relations person (Lester, 1995: 86). Corporate communication outlets are said to be exploiting a vacuum being created by staff cuts in newsrooms where fewer and fewer staff are expected to produce more and more. This view is highlighted by Robert McChesney (1997: 25) who states that, "with fewer journalists, limited budgets, low salaries and lower morale, the balance of power has shifted dramatically to the public relations industry, which seeks to fill the news media with coverage sympathetic to its clients". The decline in editorial resources and significant increase in corporate communication's sphere of operation is viewed more broadly as an outcome of capitalistic encroachment of the public sphere where market

ideals are preferred over those of public service (see Shoemaker & Reese, 1996; Davis, 2000; Fürsich & Roushanzamir, 2001).

Corporate communication utilises advertising and marketing as its main tools, thus blurring boundaries between itself, advertising and marketing. The use of these tools raises criticism about corporate communication as they are in the main associated with unethical practises of the capitalist business world. Whilst corporate communication is concerned with changing attitudes, altering perceptions and affecting what people believe about an organisation and its mission through provision of factual information, public education and open debate, its incorporation of advertising and marketing are a source of criticism (Dolphin, 1999: 11; Pieczka & Schlesinger, 2002: 300).

The most penetrating, coherent analysis and critique of advertising has been provided by Marxist thought. Marx argued that the exploitative social relationship between owners and workers under capitalism was concealed by appearance of the goods, which were produced (Sinclair, 1987: 2). This was the 'fetish of commodity' (Marx, 1976a: 71-83). Common in corporate communication is 'institutional advertising' or advertising aimed at enhancing the profile of an institutional name. In institutional advertising, Sinclair (1987: 2) argues, there is no actual product to be sold: instead its point is to induce the adoption of a favourable attitude towards an industry or corporation. At face value, this type of advertising lacks a commodity to sell, unlike commodity advertising, which is linked to a certain tangible product.

Differences between a physical commodity and a commodity lacking physical properties are explained by Paul Thompson and David McHugh (2002: 169) who argue that, "what gives weight to an object or idea in a market economy is its status as a commodity. Its physicality or otherwise is wholly irrelevant. Knowledge can be calculated, rationalised and ultimately commodified." When anything, tangible or intangible, is used with the intention of creating economic value, it becomes an item of 'capital' rather than consumption (Etzkowitz, 1997). It is the process of obliterating the object itself through advertising, which is the object of much criticism.

Large-scale advertising is associated with growth in industrial production. Raymond Williams, however argues that "it is not true that … with the coming of factory production large-scale advertising became economically necessary" (1993: 324). He argues that the formation of modern advertising has to be traced, essentially, to certain characteristics of the new 'monopoly' (corporate) capitalism (Williams, 1993: 328). On public relations, he argues that it is tactically the same with advertising. "The methods are often basically similar: the arranged incident, the 'mention', the advice on branding, packaging and a good 'selling line' (Williams, 1993: 333)."

In corporate communication, advertising provides controlled message production and circulation, unlike in news discourse where the final decision rests with the journalist or editor. Advertising is credited with building of brands, which is one important aspect in the promotional culture. Brands associate meanings with products and as such draw on and shift the multiple system of meaning that makes up culture (Myers, 1999: 9-18). In reference to the media systems, John Phelan (1991: 78) argues that it is the repetitive display over time of the station logo, the network mark, the series 'billboard' that is the fundamental tool in establishing identity. It is the association of corporate communication, advertising and 'products', however, which brings up the question of marketing.

Marketing and marketing techniques are widely used in corporate communication. The term "marketing' connotes an activity peculiar to the business world alone. To some, marketing seems to be synonymous with selling, as a result they feel it has no place in public discourses such as higher education (Bruwer, 1996: 121). Put in simple terms, marketing is a matching process, which involves identifying societal, wants or needs and matching them to organisational capabilities and objectives – what the organisation wants to be and it can be (Bruwer, 1996: 128).

The association of corporate communication with marketing remains problematic, as some view this association as a neutral activity whereas others view corporate

communication as creating an enabling environment to boost sales through pacifying members of society. The hidden agenda view or the 'iceberg notion' is expressed by Wilcox *et el.* who argue that, the "… major purpose of marketing is to make money for the organisation by increasing the slope of the demand curve. The major purpose of public relations is to save money for the organisation by building relationships with publics that constrain or enhance the ability of an organisation to meet its mission" (1997: 16).

Conversely, marketing is seen as production or service-related activity contributing to the bottom-line with indirect association with corporate communication, which can be regarded as an arm for social activism thus engaging an organisation on behalf of society. Marketing cannot therefore be confined to being a tool for corporate communication, hence a dilemma or contested role of marketing in corporate communication. The same conflicting views are expressed with regard to marketing and advertising. In the past, advertising has often been approached from two different viewpoints, namely the marketing viewpoint and the communications viewpoint. Proponents of the marketing viewpoint studied advertising within the context of marketing mix while proponents of the communications view did not dispute advertising's role in marketing, but felt that advertising was often reduced to a mere marketing term and not regarded as a dynamic process of communication in its own right (de Klerk, 1998: 327).

Threading across corporate communication, advertising and marketing is the concept of ideology. All advertising, even the most informational and rationalistic, is ideological, if only in the formal sense that it places its audience in the role of buyer or consumer and seeks to dispose that audience favourably towards what is for sale (Wernick, 1991: 31). Put within the context of a political economy dominated by neo-liberal thought, corporate communication, advertising and marketing are ideologically-charged and are not always symmetrical in their execution. However they have the scope to be used positively to promote issues of public interest and social good (Duffy, 2000b: 378; Weaver & Motion, 2002:325). According to V.N. Volosinov (1981:145) "everything ideological possesses meaning: it represents, depicts or stands for something lying outside itself. In other words

it is a sign. Without signs, there is no ideology." In late capitalism, market ideology reigns supreme, hence the belief of its self-righting mechanism. In this paradigm, corporate communication, advertising and marketing are argued in relation to the market, not society.

Market ideology could be understood against the following definition of ideology, in which Althusser states that,

> It will suffice to know very schematically that an ideology is a system (with its own logic and vigour) or representations (images, myths, ideas or concepts, depending on the case) endowed with historical existence and role within a given society … So ideology is a matter of the lived relation between men and their world. This relation, that only appears as 'conscious' on condition that it is unconscious, in the same way only seems to be simple on condition that it is complex, that it is not a simple relation but a relation between relations, a second degree relation (Ricoeur, 1994: 53-55).

When the market ideology is naturalised, it manifests itself in its historical existence, own concepts and is taken without criticism. Institutions are viewed as instruments of owners and shareholders, not as institutions of society. In this context, the role of corporate communication is narrowly defined, whereas its practice must be embedded in the idea of freedom, justice, harmony, equality and respect for human dignity (Molleda, 2000: 519).

The argument on manipulative, pacifying, indoctrinating and persuasive nature of corporate communication and its techniques are mainly located within the media-centric interpretation of the communication process. The media-centric view sees media technology (and content) as primary movers in social change (McQuail, 2000: 89). The argument which narrowly sees corporate communication and similar professions as media-sources only, fails to focus upon these professions from a neutral and broader view. This neglects to see how media strategies are organised or the operation of cognitive goals such as public information programmes for the fight against illiteracy, road safety or AIDS prevention (Schlesinger, 1992; Shoemaker & Reese, 1991: 188). The view of message-source as the primary defining role, assume that audiences lack defences against persuasive communication and pay less emphasis on how audiences

reconstruct or interpret the communication messages. They fail to recognise the power of audiences; the polysemic nature of the text or its subjectivity to multiple interpretations; the nature of interpretive communities, which accounts for production of meaning within a community or against the intended objective of the message constructor; instability of sign over context or ability of signs to change meaning depending on the speaker, time, space and environment (Tomaselli, 1996: 29-49). Furthermore, corporate communication and media-source analysis needs to be interpreted in a holistic view taking into account the political economy within which corporate communication is practised, how significantly it works and how public interest is construed in such processes. It is important to note that economics of institutions are major determinants of their practices and how they communicate within and outside them (Fairclough, 1995, 42; Weaver & Motion, 2002: 329). Corporate communication should therefore be analysed within the context within which it is practices.

Corporate communication and higher education

The institutional association of corporate communication and higher education is a well-established practice. Universities and other institutions of higher learning, both private and public have long understood the necessity to cultivate favourable public opinion (Baskin, Aronoff and Lattimore, 1997: 382). UNITECH, an association of university marketing and communication practitioners, was established in the early 1980s as a forum for marketing, communications, fundraising and alumni relations professionals in higher educations in South Africa. It is modelled on its counterpart in United States, CASE (Council of the Advancement and Support of Education) that was established in 1917. From an American perspective, corporate communication in higher education is a long established phenomenon. The first systematic fund-raising campaign identified as an example of early public relations activity was initiated by Harvard College in 1641 (Brendenkamp, 1997: 71). Also in the US, the first university press bureau was established at the university of Wisconsin (Madison) in 1904 (Kummerfelt, 1975: 6). The association of corporate communication activities and higher education has been prompted by several factors, most of which are economic in nature, and less with regard

to the social good of education. These include financial cutbacks in state funding, competition from other higher education providers, income generation and redefining the image of higher education and its usefulness (Wernick, 1991; Savio, 1992; Oyedemi, 2000). In this work, higher education will be used to refer to tertiary education or post-secondary education offered in formal educational institutions supported the state or authorized and permitted to function by the state. Such institutions include universities, colleges, community colleges, technical institutes, and institutions of professional training. Such institutions may be public or private (but mostly public) and are authorised to grant degrees even though they may also offer short-term courses of study recognised by a diploma or certificate rather than a degree (Mauch, 2000: 26). Higher education will be deemed to cover both instruction of students and conducting of research. The term university will be used when it is specifically appropriate.

Financial cutbacks in state funding of higher education, through which public institutions try to mitigate through corporate communication, could be broadly seen through the global view of the diminishing role of the state, the increasing role of markets, fiscal crisis of the capitalist state and changing spending priorities. The relationship of the state and higher education has been premised on a number of goals including, cultural, social, economic and political goals.

The importance of higher education is to prepare citizens for the future. It helps to develop students with the technical capacity to support economic growth. It is expected to provide professionals and leaders with high-level technical skills, in the hope that economic development will follow. Higher education is also expected to contribute to capacity building by training and educating future leaders of business, government, and the professions. Universities in particular are expected to produce new knowledge by supporting research, which will help the economy to grow and develop in positive ways, and to disseminate the knowledge to others so it can be widely useful (Mauch, 2000: 25-26). Others expect higher education to contribute to the growth of democracy and good citizenship, political stability, ethnic tolerance and provide other public, private and personal benefits.

The increasing role of markets in all spheres of life has not spared higher education. There are a number of rationales for the introduction of markets and/or market-like forms to higher education systems, "foremost is a desire for economic efficiency understood as 'value for money', particularly given the growing costs of meeting social demands for universal access of higher education" (Dill, 1997: 172). Flowing from business ethos, markets in higher education are believed to foster greater innovation and adaptation. These beliefs are then turned into public policy and inform spending patterns. Dill further argues that "the introduction into higher education of government reforms encouraging competitive research grants systems, greater reliance on tuition fees, and providing incentives for private fund-raising are therefore examples of the application of market instruments in academic reforms" (1997: 172). Similarly, Tomaselli (1986: 1) argues that "from point of view of commerce and government, higher education institutions do not enjoy a reputation for good management of resources. Commerce generally sees higher education as extravagant and unbusinesslike. Universities are sometimes regarded as a luxury that society could do without". To subject higher education to the system of markets is therefore a public policy instrument being used by governments, which on one hand is used to usher in and promote efficiency, effectiveness, innovation and adaptation into higher education and, on the other, to save funds for the state.

Higher education has been targeted for budget cuts. Spending priorities are being diverted to other sectors. It is against this background that higher education institutions have turned to non-traditional sources for funding and in this environment have turned to corporate communication activities to build relations with new partners. Non-traditional sources of funding are those other than the state and private donations. They include corporate funding, licensing, and intellectual and copyrights as well as university-private sector partnerships.

The monopoly of higher education delivery is not confined to public universities but is now open to private universities, technical colleges (technikons in South Africa) distance

education providers and even corporate universities[1]. Other institutions in the public and private sectors also carry out another major traditional function of public universities, which is research. They thus compete for contracts and funding with universities.

At present the tertiary education sector in South Africa is made up of 21 universities, 15 technikons and numerous technical and teacher training colleges (Kishun, 1998: 60). The total population of students in universities and technikons is around 600,000 and the argument is that if South Africa is to be competitive in the global economy this number has to rise. One avenue that is being seen as a solution is more openings for private higher education institutions. This would mean diversity of higher education providers in one system, meaning more competition for students and for funds from these students as well as corporate sponsors of higher education. As the table below indicates, student populations in public education are considered low if South Africa hopes to be competitive in global economic market. The figures also show inequalities in terms of race participation as part of the total population.

University student numbers								
Race	Undergrad			Postgrad			Total Students		
	male	female	total	male	female	total	male	female	total
White	44511	51378	95889	18307	15704	34011	63846	68348	132194
Coloured	6674	8762	15436	2212	1920	4132	9027	10911	19938
Indian	10858	14421	25279	3135	2928	6063	14318	17670	31988
African	68385	100969	169354	17889	20996	38885	88081	125248	213329
Unknown	410	939	1349	1136	2131	3267	1548	3071	4619
Total	130838	176469	307307	42679	43679	86358	176820	225248	402068

Technikon student numbers								
Race	Undergrad			Postgrad			Total Students		
	male	female	total	male	female	total	male	female	total
White	6262	4042	10304	581	375	956	20534	13203	33741*
Coloured	1204	712	1916	65	17	82	7312	5181	12493
Indian	1320	879	2199	81	67	148	4885	3305	8193*
African	20093	17022	37115	441	255	697*	76392	72347	148755*
Unknown	0	1	143*	1	1	4*	15	13	184*
Total	28879	22656	51677*	1169	715	1887*	109138	94049	203366*

Table 1.1 Student population in South African universities and technikons.   Source: StudySA.

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[1] Corporate universities – these are institutions created by corporate business for staff training and for profit making. Examples include the University of Phoenix, Lufthansa School of Business and Daimler-Benz Corporate University.

In a climate of rapid change, competition and uncertainty in the educational terrain, a kind of tug-of-war has been created between universities and technikons. This occurs even amongst the institutions themselves, as well as between domestic and international universities (Oyedemi, 2000:9). For instance, a regionally based university like the University of Natal may not claim territorial advantage over the KwaZulu-Natal province. It has to compete with universities located in other provinces as well as those from overseas.

System-wide, between 1993 and mid-1999, university first time enrolments were up by 15% while those of the technikons grew by 46% (Oyedemi, 2000:10). Vocationalism and business priorities are seen as the main reasons behind greater student preference for technikon education. Despite expectations of mass participation in higher education, since 1995 the total number of students enrolled in higher education has decreased by approximately 70,000. The decline is attributable to the number of matriculants who have dropped by 60,000 perhaps due to increase in competition from private and international education institutions (Mthembu, Naidoo & Soni, 2001: 6). Fewer matriculants enter the higher education system and adult learners and international students provide the slight growth in student numbers.

Information technology is opening spaces for further provision of higher education despite of one's physical location. "One of the major consequences of the information technology revolution is the rapid growth of on-line education" (Oyedemi, 2000:6). Overseas institutions are poised to tap into the international education market through provision of degree programmes by use of internet-based tuition.

The state funding of higher education in South Africa is tied to student enrolments. Funding to universities and technikons is through a framework called South African Post-secondary Education (SASPE) formula. Through this mathematically complex formula, institutions are allocated funds on the basis of full-time equivalents (FTEs) of enrolled students. In calculating the FTE enrolled students for an institution every student's registration is weighted with the aggregated standardised credits of all subjects or

modules enrolled in a specific year. For instance a full-time student doing first year will have an FTE count of about one, the exact figure depending on the subject choices. The formula automatically provides for cost inflation and rise in students numbers but the growth of these numbers is curbed by restrictions on projected student numbers.

In simple terms, an institution's funding depends on the total number of students. When enrolments drop so does the funding from the government's subsidy (see Appendix 1.1). To maintain or increase student numbers depends on how well an institution is known, including its ability to attract students. It is through their organic reputation and through corporate communication and allied marketing activities that institutions are known and students are attracted to them.

Corporate communication strategies are used to position institutions within their home catchments and beyond. Organic reputation transmitted through traditional oral means cannot reach far. Owing to sophistication in society and in communication technologies and techniques, institutions are using aggressive and proactive communication means to reach potential students. The drop in the number of new matriculants means institutions compete aggressively to secure patronage of those intending to pursue higher education. Corporate communication provides institutions with the means of being visible to potential students.

Fund-raising and income-generation are behind some of the core corporate communication activities as institutions grapple with the problem of inadequate funding. The traditional revenue sources for universities have been public funding, student fees and donations (see Appendix 1.1 and 1.2). In South Africa, the government provides 50 percent of the funds to the higher education sector while 25 percent come from student fees, and the balance from donors and endowments (Mthembu, Naidoo & Soni, 2001: 9). To reach this target, many institutions are developing mechanisms to generate income. Some have set-up partnerships with industry and business and offer consultancy services for research and training. Mthembu et al. (2001: 9) note that it is mainly the historically

white institutions, which have moved quickest in this direction, but even them, the move is not necessarily in their own terms, but in terms set out by business and industry.

Universities and colleges have long been the recipients of private donations, but in recent years the pace of fundraising efforts in universities outside North America has sped up significantly. In North America, fundraising is a permanent feature of university financing. "University presidents are chosen on the basis of their fundraising capacities, while special administrative departments ('Development', 'External Relations', and the like) have been set up to mobilize every campus constituency to contribute time and money to that end" (Wernick, 1991: 156). While traditional funding regimes of universities have been state sourced and private donations mainly from the alumni, institutions are broadening their fund-raising mechanisms to 'non-traditional' sources such as corporate sponsorships, investments in business sector and intellectual proper rights. Werner Hirsch indicates that,

> Second generation non-traditional income sources include corporate sponsorship of university research, commercialisation of university-owned intellectual property resulting in royalties and licensing fees, as well as establishment of joint start-up revenue companies; university-owned business enterprises; and joint university-private sector commercial enterprises (1999: 76).

He however argues that large-scale fundraising activities by universities involve what economists refer to as high transaction costs (Hirsch, 1999: 77). These include time spent by presidents and vice-chancellors in fundraising rather than in guiding and inspiring academic endeavours. The preferential choices of popular programmes by industry results in unequally resourced departments with programmes closer to industry getting more support, something, which can affect staff morale. In the name of fund-raising, at times, universities are engaged in activities outside or in conflict with their mission. Sport is one enterprise used by American universities to raise their profiles and corporate sponsorships and which has received wide criticism as well as support.

Bridging relations with institutions, which provide funding to universities, falls within the ambit of corporate communication's sphere of operation. Some communication activities

are targeted at or respond to these constituencies. Programmes are set to woo new partners and forge partnerships.

Support of higher education by society and its institutions is a political act that hinges upon the image and perceived benefits of higher education. When these wane in the eyes of society, questions about its necessity and support are raised. Building a reputable image of higher education in general and an institution in particular is one aim of corporate communication. According to Oyedemi (2000: 8), a redefinition in the image of tertiary institutions has been conditioned and influenced mainly by global trends, socio-economic factors and new political dispensation.

Global trends tend to filter into local public policy in number of ways. This is reflected in the Department of Education's *White Paper on Education* that was coded into the Higher Education Act of 1997. The *White Paper* recognises that the transformation of higher education in South Africa is part of the broader process of her political, social and economic transition, which include political democratisation, economic reconstruction and development and redistributive social policies aimed at equity. When the state examines a local problem it also identifies global trends and practices. The White Paper, states that, one of the objectives was to integrate the country into the global economy. This has to be through a sound higher education system.

The image of higher education in post-apartheid South Africa has to take into account a number of factors. It has to be seen to have shed the segregated practices of the past, be open and accessible to all, especially previously disadvantaged communities, maintain or surpass international standards and appeal to local and overseas governments, investors and clients.

The media ecology of corporate communication

The presence of a healthy media 'ecology' is fundamental to the operational success of corporate communication. This 'ecology', or the media landscape, environment and

related industries in a given geographic location consists broadly of channels of mass media, small media and associated cultural industries (McKinsey, 1999). Mass media are newspapers, radio stations, television channels, magazines, outdoor, cinema and lately the new media (including information and communication) technologies. The major characteristic of 'mass' media is their reach of larger audiences at the same time.

Small media often refers to channels of information dissemination that require little capital outlay. Examples include newsletters, institutional, in-house journals, pamphlets, video and audiotapes, compact discs, institutional merchandise and so on. Production and expert facilities in advertising and related cultural industries provide an essential foundation to the media ecology. The value of healthy media ecology provides institutions with the means of message production and transmission to a wider audience.
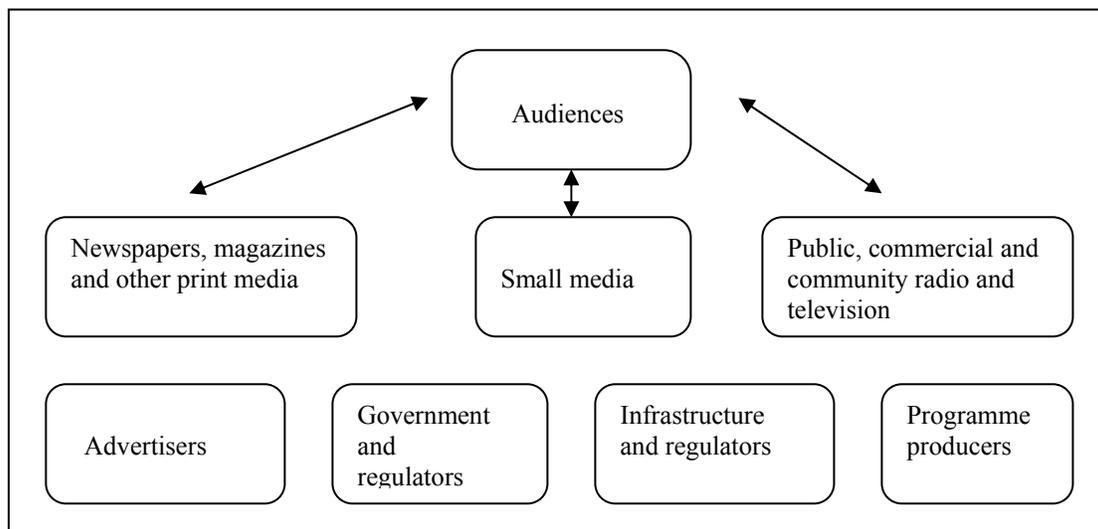
Fig. 1.1: Schematic representation of media ecology

Corporate communication practitioners use mass communication media mainly to reach external publics or mass audiences. The media could be used through 'uncontrolled communication' whereby journalists source interesting stories and report about them. The coverage of institution's affairs in this manner depends on the policies and editors of the media concerned (Rensburg, 1994:150). There are times when corporate communication practitioners prefer to use 'controlled communication'. This is achieved through buying space and time in the media through advertising. Ideally, corporate communication messages are sourced or placed in mass media whose audiences inter-link with the profile

of the targeted corporate communication audience. These profiles are commonly determined on the basis of regional location, socio-economic grouping, age, gender or other demographic variables. Myers (1999: 77) summarises the strengths and weakness of the major mass media as follows.

	advantages	disadvantages
press	dailiness of newspapers targetable audiences reaches hard-to-reach audiences readers may keep magazines	easily ignored limited formats
radio	link to daily activities (driving housework, homework) economical repetition narrowly targeted audiences	low recall narrowly targeted audiences
television	broadest audience discussion and press attention range of sound, visual, story	can be ignored by viewers expensive now fragmented
cinema	captive audience high quality image and sound more adult content than TV. mostly young audience	relatively small audience mostly young audience
outdoor	visual impact repeated exposure	no way of knowing who sees it seen briefly seen from a distance

Table 1.2 Strengths and weaknesses of major media channels

Unlike the mass media, the versatility provided by the small media offers corporate communication practitioners a greater control and flexibility in message production, targeting, production and transmission. Small media products can be produced to suit needs and profiles of the intended audiences or narrowly defined target publics. Small media are used for 'narrowcasting' or communicating to relatively small, geographically private audiences (Rensburg, 1994: 148). For instance, a higher education institution could use databases to write personalised letters to select Grade 12 learners informing them of its programmes of study. The traditional small media for universities has been the catalogue or prospectus, later followed by direct mail, posters, open days and video. Universities are now venturing into a number of new and different media depending on how their audiences consume information products (Myers, 1999: 89-90).

Communication strategies and media management have become key activities of both private and public institutions like higher education. In a climate of democracy and late capitalism, organisations claim their space through media strategies or corporate communication. However, this culture is not without criticism. Its main criticism is premised on the belief that capitalism as a system reproduces itself through cultural institutions that help sustain it. While these criticisms may be valid they need to go beyond media-centric critique and account for textual readings and audience capacity. They also need to take into account the political economy within which corporate communication operates.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework of this research is the concept of commodification. The concept cuts across both higher education and the media in general as well as corporate communication. According to Vincent Mosco (1996: 143-144), "commodification refers to the process of turning use values into exchange values, of transforming products whose value is set by what they can bring into the market place." Similarly, John B. Thompson (1995: 27) regards commodification as a particular type of 'valorisation' or one of the ways in which objects can be ascribed a certain value. As Norman Fairclough (1992: 207) notes of the process of commodification:

Commodification is the process whereby social domains and institutions, whose concern is not producing commodities in the narrower economic sense of goods for sale, come nevertheless to be organised and conceptualised in terms of commodity production, distribution and consumption… In terms of orders of discourse, we can conceive of commodification as the colonisation of institutional orders of discourse, and more broadly of the societal order of discourse, by discourse types associated with commodity production.

Commodification may also be described as the process of transforming objects and services into commodities, that is, into products, which have both use value and exchange value. The use value of a 'product' is that value that derives from its satisfaction of a human need or utility. It is the existence of the commodity as a natural object, which is its existence as a use value. The exchange value is what that 'product' commands in the marketplace or on exchange. For example, one might express the exchange value of ten metres of linen alternatively as one coat, two shirts, two kilograms of wheat or fifty rands. This means that commodification turns a product whose value is determined by its ability to meet human and social needs into a product whose value is set by what it can bring in the marketplace (Dick, 2000: 6; Sensat, Jr., 1979: 80).

Several interrelated processes occur when universities respond to pressures of state cutbacks, global competition and financial challenges. Resource dependence theory[2] suggests that as unrestricted moneys for higher education constrict, institutions within a national system will change their resource-seeking patterns to compete for new, more competitively based funds (Slaughter and Leslie, 1997: 65). Further, they will likely

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[2] Resource dependence theory, credited to Pfeffer and Salancik (1978), holds that the internal behaviours of organisational members are understood clearly only by reference to the action of external agents. In the case of higher education, the external agents are the policy makers and policies that are enacted by the state and adopted by institutions (Slaughter and Leslie, 1997: 68).

increase tuition fess and become more active in expanding services while lowering labour costs, primarily through replacing full-time staff with part-time professors. Internally they restructure operations and academic programmes to maximise their funding regime, prune programmes deemed unnecessary and do away or outsource 'non-core' services. This process is enabled by set of policies ranging from commercialisation, liberalisation, and internationalisation (Mosco, 1996). These sets of policies are enabled by the nation-state which is a major player in the commodification process of higher education mainly through regulations and incentives or subdivision of these factors through information, the treasury, authority, and action (Amaral & Magalhães, 2001: 7).

In this chapter, attention will be placed on the concept of commodification and the role it plays in the 'business' of higher education and how this process leads to the use of corporate communication in higher education or in former public sector institutions, which are not traditionally associated with 'promotional' culture. The commodification process will be studied in terms of higher education mission, institutional restructuring, effects of globalisation, marketisation and higher education and symbolic capital.

Higher education missions

Higher education has traditionally received financial support from the state for a number of reasons. These reasons are embodied in the missions of higher education. Starting with institutional missions, they involve the establishment of an enduring statement of purpose that distinguishes one business from other similar firms (Peeke, 1994: 7). Establishing an institutional mission is usually seen as a process, a key part of which is the development of a mission statement. Such a statement may be defined as, "… a charter that defines the basic business or businesses in which the enterprise will engage, the types of product it will make or the services it will provide, the markets it will service, and perhaps how the company will conduct its affairs" (Brown, 1984: 44).

This definition introduces the market as an important element in mission establishment, a theme that will be engaged frequently in this research. The concern for the market can be tracked back to Peter Drucker

(1973: 50) whose definition of mission is firmly customer-oriented and indicates that: "to satisfy a customer is the mission and purpose of every business. The question 'what is our business?' can, therefore, be answered only by looking at the business from the outside, from the point of view of customer and market".

The definitions above all originate from the corporate context, but even definitions of missions in the educational world appear very similar, in that they reflect a major concern for the customer and market (Peeke, 1994: 8). Mission statements do not only reflect the institution's internal consensus but aid it in representing itself to external bodies and consequently in obtaining resources. For instance, the mission of the University of Natal is to strive to serve all sections of its community through excellence in scholarship, teaching, learning, research and development (Bell, 2000). Commitments in programmes, performance and quality follow from this mission and the document in which it is embodied. "The mission process may be viewed, then, as a process which promotes planning, aids decision making and communication, and also facilitates marketing and evaluation strategies" (Peeke, 1994: 11). There is, however, little consensus with regard to the compatibility of mission statements in higher education and that of the corporate sector. But there is a wider agreement on the mission of higher education, though with conflicting interpretations.

It is widely held that the mission of higher education is to educate, to train, to undertake research and in particular, to contribute to the sustainable development and improvement of society as a whole. It is tasked to educate highly qualified graduates and responsible citizens. Moreover, higher education has acquired an unprecedented role in present-day society, as a vital component of cultural, social, economic and political development and as a pillar of endogenous capacity building, the consolidation of human rights, sustainable development, democracy and peace, in a context of justice. It is the duty of higher education to ensure that the values and ideals of a culture of peace prevail (UNESCO, 1998: 21). In a declaration on higher education, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) states that "higher education should be considered public service. While diversified sources of funding, private and public, are necessary, public support for higher education and research remains essential to ensure a balanced achievement of its educational and social missions" (UNESCO, 1998: 2).

University education is designed to be at the frontier of what is knowable. Universities are custodians of knowledge; students are initiated through discipline into critical

thinking and are located where a search for new knowledge takes place (Gibbs, 2001: 91). Higher education which liberates and conscientises is essential if such a society is to develop both socially and economically (Freire, 1972). It is indisputable that in both the developing and the developed economies, education achieves both social and private returns on investment. Higher education contributes to the social well being of its host community and ought to be preserved outside the market – upon which no price should be extracted. Higher education is a public good, to which everyone has a right (Gibbs, 2001: 89). Advancing the argument that knowledge is an essential human resource, Cees Hamelink (1993: 3) argues *for* the public good interests of knowledge-users. He cautions that the production of knowledge is increasingly being privatised and commercialised. Knowledge is now being created and controlled as private property. Knowledge as a common good is being destroyed, and the emerging intellectual property rights (IPR) regime is transforming common heritage into private (corporate) property.

In the context of the present-day South Africa, according to the *White Paper on Education*, higher education must contribute to and support the process of societal transformation with a vision of people-driven development leading to the building of a better quality of life for all. It should meet the learning needs and aspirations of individuals through the development of their intellectual abilities and aptitudes throughout their lives, address the development needs of society, provide skilled labour and contribute to the socialisation of enlightened, responsible and constructively critical citizens. Higher education encourages the development of a reflective capacity and willingness to review and renew prevailing ideas, policies and practices based on a commitment to the common good. It contributes to the creation, sharing and evaluation of knowledge and engages in the pursuit of academic scholarship and intellectual inquiry in all fields of human understanding, through research, learning and teaching (RSA, 1997a). The above highlights the use values of higher education. But the roles and importance of these use-values are subject to differing interpretations.

While education performs different social roles, these roles are subject to conflicting interpretations, and are not always compatible with each other. They may be characterised as the custody and care of students, the academic development of students, the preparation of a democratic citizenry, the construction of a more productive economy, and social selection (Marginson, 1993: 16). Each of these roles is associated with a body of ideas about education. There is a tendency to claim that one or another role of education is important, for instance, employers (and unions) have a natural interest in the economic and selection effects of education, teachers are more likely to focus on academic learning, parents often focus on the custodial and selection aspects and educational policy and professional education practice must strike a balance between these different and conflicting roles (Marginson, 1993: 16). It is the dominance of the economic value of education that seems to have gained the most currency. When policies are created and implement around this role, new situations emerge. One such effect is restructuring which aims at positioning institutions for new challenges.

Institutional restructuring

The restructuring of institutions of higher learning is normally a periodic process that occurs when there is recognition of structural deficiencies to meet certain goals. Restructuring is technically confined to the alienation or privatisation of state property or strategies for capital injection (Teer-Tomaselli, 2002: 9). In universities restructuring may not always be done with capital injection as a goal but to realign academic or administrative structures towards new corporate position. It may also occur at two levels within an institution at macro and micro levels. At the macro level or across programmes, restructuring includes purposely reshaping the institution or its parts, prioritising academic programmes and closing or downsizing loss leaders. Restructuring at the micro level or within programmes involves the reengineering of work like through use of technology to perform certain tasks.

Restructuring is often a product of, or intertwined with similar processes such as transformation or overall change in both the institution and society in general as well reforms in how work is carried out. For instance, the restructuring of NU, which was completed around 1998, involved realigning academic departments into ten faculties and 44 schools. This was preceded by curriculum reform whose outcome was full semesterisation (*NU Vice-Chancellor's Report*, 1999; Duminy and Lund, 1995). Institutional changes are often made for strategic reasons, these being to position an institution in a strong position against its competitors or in line with international trends. In the case of South Africa, many changes had occurred in other parts of the world during her isolation, therefore the end of apartheid saw rapid efforts to catch-up. These include opening new opportunities for previously marginalised groups, in addition to adjusting to new education policies such as the National Qualifications Framework, which required the modularised curricula.

Today, South African universities are facing serious challenges and are attempting major transformations on several fronts – financial, political, intellectual and organisational (Szanton and Manyika, 2001: 22). The internal reconfiguration is in part an outcome or reflection of government policies on higher education. The major restructuring is occurring on curricula and in 'non-core' services.

Significant in internal reform is the programmatisation or modularisation of higher education curricula. The policy shift is summed up by Rob Moore (2002: 33):

> As South Africa makes the transition from its apartheid era towards a democratic dispensation, it reflects (at least) two broad imperatives: a local concern for equity and social reconstruction on the one hand, a response to

global changes in the role of universities in the knowledge economy on the other.

Programmatisation or sequential learning activities leading to the award of particular qualifications, a concept mostly borrowed from New Zealand and United Kingdom, provides a way of packaging the academic enterprise. It is hailed for providing for student choice, adaptability to new modes of learning and to new modes of learning and assessment, speed of response to external pressures and agencies, openness to new kinds of knowledge and new connections, all of which supports the philosophy of access and equity being advanced by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA[3]) (Jessup, 1991; Walker, 1994; SAQA, 1997). At a lower level, programmatisation is modularised. Modularisation provides packaged units of education that can be purchased by students, something that falls well within the commodification process.

The above could be explained using the industrial revolution as an example. The industrial revolution was pushed forward by use of interchangeable parts and this made mass production possible. Modularisation is the contemporary variation of interchangeable parts. With modularisation, a system is constructed in such a way that its individual parts can stand alone (Frame, 1994: 37). Modularisation reduces complexity by reducing the number of links between different components of the system. Therefore, each module is relatively self-contained. Modularisation reduces complexity of system mastery.

Explained in another way, the cynical packaging of the academic enterprise is a "kind of intellectual supermarket shelf from which 'consumers' (that is fee-paying students) can choose the 'brand' that best fits their professional 'lifestyle'" (Tomaselli & Shepperson, 2002: 5). When thought in these terms, the university can be conceived of as a means of educational consumption, one that allows students to consume educational services and eventually to obtain important "goods" – degrees and credentials (Ritzer, 1998: 151). In this line of thinking or perspective, Gibbs (2001: 87) argues that:

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[3] The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) is a statutory body in terms of the South African Qualifications Authority Act (58 of 1995). It oversees the development of and implementation of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). SAQA has three infrastructural deliverables: the registration of qualifications and standards on the NQF, the establishment of a system-wide quality assurance system and the establishment of a National Learners' Record Database.

The adoption of this model of the market for HEI[4], and its accompanying discourse of marketing, is based on a manifestation of the concept of rights, particularly consumer rights, and can be seen in the move towards structured, consumable education through modularisation, semesterisation and self-learning. This leads to education being dealt with as a commodity. The sense of ends rather than means that this confers is most visible in outcomes-driven education.

The adoption of modular programmes may be premised on making education more accessible for students. But it also was also based on the concept of massification of education whereby institutions would be flooded with both young and mature-age scholars. Massification requires provision of resources but is met by the 'offloading state' policies, which prioritised markets for academic capitalisation or financing (Neave, 2000: 16).

Public funding of higher education has gone through many phases in different countries but the general trend during the 1980s and 1990s was towards academic capitalism, which emphasises the utility of higher education to national economic activity and the preference for market and marketlike activity on the part of the faculty and institutions (Slaughter and Leslie, 1997). With regard to access, higher education policies encouraged greater student participation but at a lower national cost.

Human capital theory explains why states have been divesting in higher education. As developed by the Chicago school, human capital theory has two hypotheses. First, education and training increase individual cognitive capacity and therefore augment productivity. Second, increased productivity leads to increased individual earnings, and these increased earnings are a measure of the value of the human capital (Marginson, 1993: 38). According to Marginson, two different methods are used to estimate the social rate of return on investment in education:

The first sums the net benefits to individuals, subtracts the cost of government funding of education, and then adds 'externalities' (sometimes called 'spillovers') – economic benefits of education that are not captured by individuals (for example, work is collaborative, and one worker's education may add to the earning power of another). Externalities are very important in the neo-classical framework, because they are the only clear argument for government funding (1993: 39-40).

The second hypothesis "isolates a series of discrete 'causes' of economic growth (demographic growth, capital investment, entrepreneuralism, education and so on) which

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[4] HEI denotes Higher education institutions.

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do not overlap or have feedback effects on each other". Viewed from human capital theory, higher education provides both private and public good, hence its expenditure has to be shared between individuals and the state. According to this theory, social returns are assumed to decrease as more years are spent in education, as the figure below illustrates.
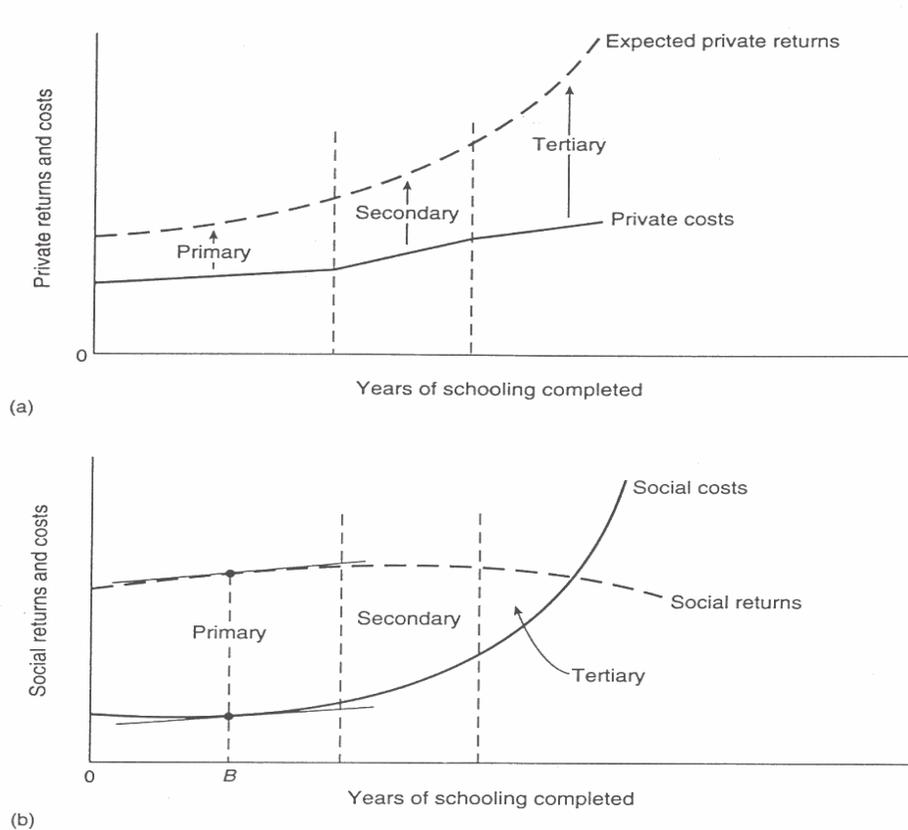
Fig 2.1 Diminishing social returns as years of schooling and costs increase
Source: Todaro   (1994)

In case of South Africa, observers note a relative policy shift following the demise of apartheid with beginnings in post-1994 elections. Early ANC-government's policies reflected immediate needs of reconstruction and development and thus putting agency of the local priorities. The period in between, which was marked by formulation and negotiations of policy on higher education, was demonstrated by broad commitment to directing higher education towards serving both the South Africa's entry into the global economy and the basic needs of the majority of the population (Kishun, 1998: 60). A later shift is mirrored by the adoption of the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) strategies. GEAR prioritises fiscal prudence and posits redistribution as an outcome rather than condition of economic growth. It implies a clear commitment to reducing state involvement in the economy in order to reduce public expenditure (Barnett, 1999: 653).

GEAR, the *White Paper on Education* (1997) and the 1997 Higher Education Act, and 'outcomes-based education' (OBE), all bring to the fore the state's 'dual strategy' of acting locally and responding to global imperatives with greater emphasis on global imperatives. (Kishun, 1998: 60; Teer-Tomaselli, 2002: 16).

The education *White Paper* states that higher education benefits both the individual and the public, hence its costs should be shared equitably between public and private beneficiaries. It also states that fee-free education for students is not an affordable or sustainable option for South Africa. Complementary resources have to be harnessed from private sources such as employer contributions, bequests and donations, better management of institutional investments, contracts and consultancies, and an expansion of properly-regulated private higher education programmes and institutions (RSA, 1997: 30). Section 4.48 of the *White Paper* states that "with a well considered advocacy and marketing approach, the scale of private sector investment in higher education through loans, bursaries and sponsorships might well increase substantially". Furthermore, the *White Paper* indicates that institutions will be able to enrol students in addition to the agreed number of publicly subsidised full-time equivalent (FTE) student places but they must be able to do so from funds raised by themselves, not from the government.

The choice of a mixed public-private funding of higher education for South Africa is evidently economic-driven, whereby the state indicates that public spending on higher education will be proportional to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and national economic growth (RSA, 1997a: 45). Other funds will be sourced from private beneficiaries (students). The rationale for this funding mixture is consistent with the human capital theory discussed above.

Having considered the above trends in higher education, further analysis of the commodification process is in order. Here I will use arguments advanced by Jean-François Lyotard. First, Lyotard argues that knowledge and information are increasingly produced only where they can be justified on grounds of efficiency and effectiveness or where a 'principle of performativity' prevails. The main consideration is the practical use

of knowledge and information. Second, he argues that knowledge and information are being more and more treated as a commodity. This view endorses a theme of most political economy theorists that tradability of knowledge and information are the main concerns in the capitalist economy. Movement towards this direction can be seen through the increasing adoption of the mode 2^5 education curriculum in higher education institutions. The 'mode 2' thesis has clearly influenced recent higher education debates in South Africa to the level of foremost policy documents. Documentary evidence in support of the interesting yet puzzling and often uncritical, policy preoccupation with 'Mode 2' begins with papers commissioned around the theme of knowledge by the Council of Higher Education in 1995 and subsequent policies and legislations (Ravjee, 2001: 2). Having considered the situation, Lyotard argues the consequences of these forces (Webster, 1995: 183-185).

Applying the principle of performativity, Lyotard argues that when knowledge and information cannot be justified in terms of efficiency and effectiveness, they will be downgraded or even abandoned. For example, aesthetics and philosophy cannot easily be justified in terms of performance, while finance and management are straightforwardly defended (Webster, 1995: 184). Secondly, he argues that knowledge development is shifting out of the universities where, traditionally, a cloistered elite had been ensconced with a vocation to seek the 'truth'. "Challenging the dominance of the traditional university is an array of think tanks, research and development sections of private corporations and pressure groups which generate and use information/knowledge for reasons of efficiency and effectiveness (Webster, 1995: 184). Recognition of out-of-university learning by SAQA can be interpreted to be the dawn of movement towards knowledge produced in multiple centres. Thirdly, Lyotard highlights the consequence of the redefinition of education by indicating that established conceptions of truth are undermined for the sake of performativity and commodification leading to definitions of truth in terms of utility. It is for universities to seek universal truth and knowledge whether it affects the poor, the rich, the elites, the marginalised, the powerful or the powerless. He finally argues that performativity applied to information/knowledge change ideas about what is considered to be an educated person. Is it about having a certain body of knowledge or knowing how to access some kind of information as exemplified by computer skill training, which equip one to search information from

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[5] Mode 2: Knowledge production carried out in the context of application and marked by its transdisciplinarity; heterogeneity; organisational hetararchy and transience; social accountability and reflexivity; and quality control which emphasises context – use dependence. Results from the parallel expansion of knowledge producers and users in society.
Mode 1: The complex of ideas, methods, values and norms that have grown up to control the diffusion of the Newtonian model of science to more and more field of enquiry and ensure its compliance with what is considered sound scientific practice (Gibbons, et al. 1994:167).

Internet? To Lyotard the truth is sacrificed for both performativity and commodification (Webster, 1995: 186).

While Lyotard provides a useful insight into the processes of commodification, the main problem with his view is that he concludes that through these processes, reliability of all knowledge is lost hence the triumph of the capitalist economy. He however highlights how the commodification processes penetrates the spheres of higher education and information through considerations made on exchange values (Webster, 1995: 189-190).

It can be concluded that while higher education is beneficial for its use values, its support from nation-states has been declining. Several reasons are advanced for this decline, such the slow-down in economic growth, the debt burden, redirection of resource to other social services and the general ideological belief in free market principles. The downturn of the funding regime of higher education has triggered sets of alternatives such as Thatcherist 'users-pay' cost recovery systems, formation of public-private sector partnerships and general trend towards market-related solutions. According to Mosco (1996: 153-154):

These developments suggests that the process of commodification has extended into place

> and practices that once tended to be organised according to a different logic, one based on universality, equality, social participation, and citizenship, which, for all of its well-chronicled shortcomings, broadened the grounds of social action now increasingly reduced to a market logic that equates rights with market power.

Another important force towards commodification processes in higher education is that of globalisation.

Higher education and globalisation

'Globalisation' is a shorthand term for the processes through which national economies are integrated. It occurs through four principal channels: movement of goods, capital, labour, and ideas (Bloom, 2001: 21). It may be described as the process by which societies are connected through rapid, large-scale networks of political, social and economic (as well as academic) interaction. The intensification of globalisation is partly made possible through the reorientation of time and space, a process facilitated by communications and information technologies which make it easy to take action at a distance (Slevin, 2000: 200). Many trends in the organisational, pedagogical and technological delivery of higher education are underway as a result of globalisation

(Lemmer, 2001: 23). In this section, I examine how globalisation contributes towards the commodification of higher education.

Globalisation is often confused or used interchangeably with internationalisation as both are contemporary terms that have penetrated the consciousness of many due to their perceived far reaching consequences for all spheres of social, cultural, political and economic life. In higher education, internationalisation has been referred to as importation of higher education, exporting of higher education, transfer of academic offerings, distance higher education and formation of higher education networks. It may also be extended to access, taking on board the concept of a 'virtual university' or a 'virtual classroom' and in discussing and planning for effective use of information technology (Anderson and Maharasoa, 2002: 15).

Globalisation has been mainly discussed in political, economic and cultural terms and it is only recently that its connections with higher education have been explored. Institutions of higher education are involved in the production and dissemination of knowledge. Interests in education as being the key to success in global economy is not confined to institutions and nations alone but extend to multinationals and world global regulatory bodies such as the World Trade Organisation (WTO). Through WTO's General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), education is one of the twelve service categories that could be regulated on global scale (Kishun, 2002). This means education can be treated as a tradable commodity and nations should allow for its free trade, when the WTO negotiations are complete.

Theories on globalisation try to explain why some countries do better than others as political economies becomes more global and what role higher education has in their success (Slaughter and Leslie, 1997: 31). When considered from an economic view, higher education becomes to governments and industry an arm of economic policy and a part of the social process of commodity production. This perspective on globalisation is further explained by human capital theory, which assumes that students and governments take only economic factors into account when making decisions about participation and investment in education (Marginson, 1993: 21). When higher education is seen as an export item and a tradable commodity, it becomes attractive to multinationals, nations and institutions involved in its marketisation. The case in point is that of private higher education institutions. As an illustration, in February 2000, it was reported that at least 43

foreign universities were operating in South Africa: five from Australia, 21 from the United Kingdom, 13 from the United States and Canada, three from Europe and one from Asia. Out of these only four were officially authorised to operate in the country: Monash University, Bond University, De Montfort University and the Business School of the Netherlands (Bitzer, 2002: 24). It is reported that Monash University charges in the order of R29 000 for a Bachelor of Arts and up to R32 000 for a Bachelor of Computing, a charge that is between two to three times the tuition fees of most public universities in South Africa.

Concerns that have been raised about private foreign universities is their targeting of the lucrative market of those who have the ability to pay and thus leaving the poorly resourced students to the public institutions. Private universities do not invest in courses requiring heavy capital outlay especially in laboratory equipment and in research facilities with research being one of the expensive budget items of higher education. They also tend to close when business is not good, thus leaving students with unfinished degrees. Some of these concerns are being addressed through policy by amendments to the Higher Education Act of 1997 (Higher Education Amendment Act No. 54 of 2000).

There are both advantages and disadvantages when the higher education market is opened up for private and public providers. Through diversity, more choices and opportunities are made available for students and there is a possible rise in standards emanating from international experience and from competition. Possible disadvantages are inequalities created by high fees, possible low or irrelevant quality if proper monitoring is not done and uneven concentration of studies, which may not be relevant to the country's needs.

The above examples explain that globalisation has brought opportunities in higher education but has also brought new sets of problems, such as the need to develop a policy regime to police private providers.

More broadly, globalisation has at least four far-reaching implications for higher education. First is the constriction of moneys available for discretionary activities such as

post-secondary education (Slaughter and Leslie, 1997: 36). This would occur because in the process of globalisation priority is given to areas that offer competitive advantage in the marketplace. Second is the growing centrality of techno-science and fields closely involved with markets, particularly international markets. Webster (1995: 86) expresses a similar view and argues that,

> The consequence is that universities, institutions at one time committed, at least in part, to wider community needs as well as the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake, have increasingly changed direction dedicating themselves to research aimed at improving the commercial competitiveness of industry, thereby assuming that the marketplace is appropriate arbiter of technological change.

Third is the tightening relationship between multinational corporations and state agencies concerned with product development and innovation, thus marginalising universities as essential research institutions. Fourth is the increased focus on multinationals and established industrial countries on global intellectual rights. The result is an increased commodification of knowledge as intellectual property particularly with regard to connecting intellectual work of universities with community, business and government interests and priorities (Hamelink, 1993: 3; Waghid and le Grange, 2002: 6). These effects of globalisation on higher education are concentrated on exchange values and much less so on its use values.

Marketisation of higher education

There are no neat cuts between globalisation and marketisation of higher education. There are overlaps and distinct features of each. Markets in education are defined as educational opportunities delivered by markets, largely regulated by government, with the supply-side liberated and the price mechanism in place (Gibbs, 2001: 86). In a market situation, students turn into consumers and educators into service providers and thus leading to commodification of education to be delivered in packages based on market principles (Gibbs, 2001: 87). Gibbs argues that, "the economic market is based on the poorly established yet hegemonic and underlying principles of utilitarianism and rationality inherited from the Enlightenment, which underpins the market yet never really or fully explains the behaviour of man either separately or through the idea of the market (2001: 87).

The belief in the market as a fair arbitrator or the 'market ideology' influences the nature of the university towards what has been called the 'market university' whose primary characteristic is the commodification of knowledge which can be manufactured, bought and sold (Kishun, 1998: 61). As the distinction between knowledge and commodity are collapsed, the outcomes are visible shift in governments' funding of higher education.

The 'market ideology', Kishun (1998:61) argues, is an avenue through which "the forces of privatisation, deregulation and liberalisation have led to the return of 'experts' and 'advisers' to Third World countries. For example, foreign advisers have been directly involved in the formation of educational policy in South Africa". The Finance Reference Group to the Ministry of Education advocated for diversity or opening of South African higher education to private providers in order to reduce financial pressures on the state and in accordance to the Higher Education Act of 1997 (Fehnel, 2002). The example of private universities operating in South Africa is one case of marketisation. The same process filters into public institutions when balancing of the budgets becomes the 'business' of the institutions, thereby overriding other concerns.

Higher education institutions, as knowledge-driven organisations are greatly affected by rapid advances in information technology – computers, telecommunications and networks. The goal in using technology is to increase access and flexibility while reducing costs and enhancing quality (Kishun, 1998: 62). The new information and communication technologies offers a potential for the renewal of higher education by extending and diversifying delivery and by making knowledge and information available to a wide public. They offer opportunities and should be harnessed to innovate course content, teaching methods and to widen access to higher education (UNESCO, 1998: 2). The institutional quality of both scholarship and research has already been enhanced by the interconnectivity of institutions. This aspect differentiates the well-endowed from those who are poorly resourced, thus exacerbating what is commonly referred to as the 'digital divide'. Information and communication technologies are, however, double-edged instruments, which can usher both benefits and perils. When used for marketisation of higher education, communications and information technologies (ICTs) are used to create wealth for institutions using them.

The implications of marketisation of higher education are that, in part, it may lead to vocationalisation of curricula. The logic behind this is to meet immediate needs of industry by providing ready-made products. It replaces the what 'ought' with the imperatives of 'what do I need' and leads to commodification of education in skills packages to be managed through market principles, rather than under pedagogical guidance or the morality of fairness. Marketisation goes against the principles of public service upon which higher education is premised and pushes the agenda of exchange values over that of use values.

In summary, the rightward shift has created an environment in which universities are in competition with one another. Globalisation puts a premium on innovation, but has decisively displaced the centre of gravity on innovation and scholarship towards the production and diffusion of knowledge as well as accreditation and outcomes (Gibbons, 2001: 11). It is the competitive environment which stimulates the commodification process. Globalisation represents market-related economy ideology and its material strategies that aim to increase profits. These strategies have struck consonance with some governments which apply them to public sector agencies, including higher education, to make them more competitive in both national and international markets (Teer-Tomaselli, 2002).

The preceding section has tried to explain how the economy of the higher education sector is embedded in socio-political relations, ideological formations and power structures, leading to its commodification. The following section will argue that in this environment, higher education employs 'symbolic capital' to negotiate its position in society.

Higher education and symbolic capital

The 'symbolic capital' that higher education acquires through use of the media empowers it to negotiate its position in society. In its own right, higher education commands some respect (through symbolic content or knowledge) however, its value depends on the political, economic and social contexts within which it operates. Symbolic capital can be referred to as the accumulated prestige, recognition and respect accorded to various products and social institutions. Some symbolic capital can be drawn from 'symbolic power', which stems from the activity of producing, transmitting and receiving meaningful symbolic forms (Thompson, 1995: 16). Symbolic power has capacity to intervene in the course of events, to influence the actions of others and to create events, by means of production and transmission of symbolic forms. The concept of symbolic capital will be interrogated through institutional branding, and institutional and non-institutional apparatuses of transmission (including the Internet).

Institutional branding in higher education is a common feature now that higher education is embedded in an environment of competition, globalisation and restructuring. Branding offers distinctive image and builds on identity and values of the institution. Despite its lacking of tangibility, it contributes an added value. The word brand comes from the Old Norse *brandr*, meaning 'to burn', and it was by this means that early stockowners stamped ownership on his livestock (Blackett, 2001: 9). One definition refers to branding as an integrated process, the systematic and consistent application of product or service design, storytelling, media, and technology to the buying and using experience of customers throughout a satisfaction lifecycle. Others define it as a product or service that provides functional benefits plus added values that some consumers value enough to buy (Moon & Millison, 2000: 36; Blackett, 2001: 9). Branding is based on such factors such as personality, benefits, value, values and imagery.

Institutions of higher learning, like business, have embraced the concept of branding for a number of reasons. Branding, Blackett (2001: 15) argues, is important because a powerful brand provides a platform to build a relationship with customers; it provides significant competitive differentiation; can cross borders of countries and markets; can influence behaviour and attitudes and can cultivate customer loyalty. Branding provides synergy and multiple meanings. An explanation of how branding works has received significant theoretical development in academic fields such of semiotics.

Signs and symbols used as brand metaphors are potent carriers of meaning because they are so concentrated and economical. These signs stand for products and services. Signs signify meaning, or make things mean (Tomaselli, 1996: 30). Trusted brands become signposts through a clutter of similar offerings. An example of an institution of higher learning brand is the Harvard Business School (HBS). HBS is a premier brand in business education. Today, the HBS brand covers a wide range of activities. These include academic qualification courses such as MBA (Master of Business Administration); executive education programmes to which companies send their top managers; and a publishing operation responsible for the renowned *Harvard Business*

Review and business books. What sets the school apart from other business schools is its different approach, its ability to attract gifted professors and a combination of the Ivy League prestige of Harvard University (Dearlove and Crainer, 1999: 75-76). Branding could be used to extend symbolic capital and as is often the case in business, the appropriation of symbolic capital for financial gain can lead to the commodification process. Institutional brands can be created through institutional and non-institutional apparatus of transmission.

Institutional apparatus is defined as being a determinate set of institutional arrangements within which the technical medium is deployed and in which the individuals involved in encoding and decoding symbolic forms are embedded (Slevin, 2000: 67). Institutionalised 'mass' media facilities are to a large extent situated outside the realm of institutions of higher education, except in the national public radio system (in United States), campus radios and recently Internet facilities. Production, transmission and circulation of symbolic forms have had to be done by educational institutions through indirect means, mostly through corporate communication. In a sense, corporate communication is a social practice located at the construction of symbolic capital and is thus involved in the development of meanings. Direct control over content of messages can be achieved only if advertising space is bought, or through the use of small media. This makes ability to pay a major factor by which institutions may communicate or transmit messages to large audiences, hence effecting further limitations on the creation of symbolic capital.

Drawing from the concept of symbolic capital, corporate communication at universities has changed in recent times by becoming more pro-active and has transformed from an information dispensing function to a communications function. Media strategies are necessary not only to position the university and raise awareness of its strengths, but also to defend its reputation in a highly competitive environment and era of league tables and rankings (Cripps, 2002: 6). The creation of symbolic capital using non-institutional apparatuses of transmission operates within the context of the available media systems – providing information to media outlets or purchasing advertising space in the media.

When other social institutions have to reach larger audiences they have to adapt or respond in some way to make use of mass media outlets or they have to work within policies of the established media systems. For higher education, media technologies have generally been viewed as platforms for extending educational opportunities to society and building democracy. But corporate media owners view these outlets as profit-making entities. Denis McQuail (1977: 89) argues that the path of development of media institutions has in most ways influenced the culture and social structure of society. It may be argued therefore that commodification within media industries has had an effect on the way higher education interfaces with the media. Higher education relates with the media as clients, not as partners working for public good through public service ethos. For higher education, both knowledge and information have characteristics of symbolic power, which have to be appropriated to society for its own good. However within the 'cut-throat' environment of markets and corporate influence, institutions have had to adapt or use other alternatives. One major alternative has been the use of the Internet.

Universities and colleges have quickly embraced the new medium of the Internet. Two major reasons are that, first, the Internet ideally suits a university mission and environment in the sense that universities are primarily information gathering and dispensing institutions, and secondly, in today's world of shrinking academic budgets and stagnating enrolments, the Internet has become a vital tool for achieving a competitive advantage, allowing institutions to offer new educational programmes (including distance learning) and services (such as on-line applications or registration) (Mechitov *et al.*, 1999).

The Internet provides higher education institutions, their constituent departments and students the institutional apparatus or controlled transmission, production and circulation of messages. It also provides a platform for launching an expansion of programmes. Ownership of reliable and advanced Internet facilities provides an institution with symbolic power and that power can be used to accumulate added value.

The concept of commodification provides a framework for analysing the use of media (corporate communication) in higher education. Basic to this concept, is the exchange of use value of products and services for exchange value. The value of higher education ranges from its public good to its individual benefits. Higher education policies have been constructed within this continuum. The state as a major player contributes to the commodification of higher education by adoption of policies and incentives which are tilted towards only its economic value on the expense of its cultural, social and political good. In reacting to economic strains and globalisation, institutions are looking to the market for solutions and internally they restructure programmes to fit student and policy requirements.

In the next chapter I critique the media campaign of the University of Natal, the context in which it is being conducted, how it has been implemented, and how it is structured. I also offer a textual analysis of the campaign's media materials.

CHAPTER THREE

THE MEDIA CAMPAIGN OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NATAL

This study is framed as a case study of the media campaign of the University of Natal (NU). I will concentrate on the current campaign, referred to as Phase 2 and make connections with the previous phase and other campaign initiatives. "A case study is defined as an empirical inquiry that uses multiple sources of evidence to investigate a contemporary phenomenon within its real context, in which the boundaries between the phenomenon and its context are not clearly evident" (Wimmer & Dominick, 2002: 124). A case study uses as many data sources as possible to systematically investigate, understand or explain a phenomenon. In this case study, the methodology for the data collection incorporates extensive use of various reports and unpublished literature on the university, conducting interviews, reviewing and analysing campaign materials using textual analysis.

The preceding chapters have attempted to provide an indication of the political economy under which higher education currently operates. It also offered some explanations for the turn to corporate communication. This chapter will be specific in its approach and will provide an evaluation and analysis of NU's media campaign. Previous works in this area were mainly confined to production processes. Using Eric Michael's (1990) Model of Teleported Texts and its application to NU's advertising campaign, Tokunbo Oyedemi (2000) provided a useful evaluation and analysis of NU's corporate advertising materials. Shahida Cassim (1987) offered an analysis based on concepts employed in the advertising campaign materials and their exposure, while Kyle Watkins (2000) assessed learner perceptions, a baseline upon which a communication programme could be launched. Kanti Bhowan and Shahida Cassim conducted stakeholders' perception studies of the University of Natal amongst the alumni, matriculants and support staff at Durban and Pietermaritzburg campuses. Drawing from these works, but moving beyond campaign production processes, this research offers a context-specific analysis, locating the media campaign within a corporate communication environment. In this chapter, I will provide a brief historical background about the NU's media campaigns; the context under which the media campaign is implemented, examine the structure of the campaign through a systems approach and finally offer a textual analysis of the media materials.

Historical background

The University of Natal was first established in 1910 in Pietermaritzburg through a University College Bill, promulgated as Act No. 18 of 1909. The University extended to Durban in 1923 (Brookes, 1966: 7-14). Beginning with 57 students in 1910, it now has more than 25,000 students located in four campuses and spread over 44 schools and ten faculties (Mason, 2002: 24). In the last decade the university, as well as the whole higher education sector has been undergoing major changes following the demise of apartheid in 1994 and the dawn of new political order.

Historically, there have always been concerns about the University's corporate communication (then referred to as public relations) activities, its role and significance. An example is an evaluation done by a committee set-up by the Principal in 1985 to gauge NU's public relations policies. The committee recommended that the University must be aware of its image in its own eyes as well as those of the public; internal communication between staff, students and the administration must be promoted; external communication between the NU and the wider public should be enhanced and a defined set of service functions must be provided (Savio, 1992).

In 1986, NU commissioned a survey to explore ways of promoting communication between the university and its immediate environment of former students, parents, donors and other participants in University life (Möller et al., 1987: 2). The report found that NU's (alumni) mailing lists were hopelessly outdated; fee-payers and company donors had little access to the University communications; NU's picture even though strong and positive, was ill-defined; media coverage of NU was not favourable and its campaigns for funds were aimed largely at the KwaZulu-Natal constituency. The Möller report concluded that a perceived need existed to actively reconcile the First and Third world standards of education; all sections of the wider community wished to be kept abreast of progress regarding educational development and reform, and publicity was necessary to show for the good progress in NU's successful attraction of financial resources (Möller et al., 1987: 24 – 52).

The precursor to the current "Power to Succeed" campaign is the one embarked by the University in 1998/99. This was the first stage of a two-tier marketing strategy, and it involved brand building. (Oyedemi, 2000:v). The objectives of the campaign were firstly, to basically package the University as a product through a brand-building process and brand markings. As part of the 'branding' of the University, the corporate identity was standardised, meaning that all signage, publications, pamphlets, brochures and letterheads spotted the same 'look'. Secondly, it aimed to position the University as world-class institution providing an education that would open doors for its graduates.

The campaign flighted a series of advertisements featuring a basketball player, a Rolls Royce, a 'star-wars' model, an 'Elvis Presley' model as well as radio advertisements dubbed: 'Bill Clinton'; 'Desmond Tutu', 'Louis Luyt' and the 'Rolling Stones', where messages about the University were juxtaposed against sound

Fig. 3.1 Campaign advertisements featuring the 'superman', the Rolls Royce, the basketball player, the 'star-wars' model, the 'handstand' and 'Elvis' models.

tracks of these personalities (Oyedemi, 2000; *NU Focus*, 1999). Newspaper advertisements were placed in *The Sunday Tribune, The Sunday Times (KZN Edition), The Mercury, The Independent in Sunday, Natal Witness, Sowetan KZN edition, The Sunday Times* (Gauteng) *and Sowetan* (Gauteng). Radio advertisements were aired on Radio 5FM, East Coast Radio and Radio Lotus. This campaign was targeted primarily at school leavers (*NU Info*, 2000a; *NU Vice-Chancellor's Report*, 1999).

The corporate communication context at NU

Inset Pics

Corporate communication in higher education institutions is commonly coordinated through public affairs departments, a descriptor that associates the university with public policy or government related service. Such an association is fitting as universities have traditionally being financed by governments or through public funds (White & Mazur, 1995: 182) Public affairs activities have traditionally been aimed at harmonising relations between institutions and government on one hand and the institution and society on the other.

At NU, the Media and Publications division, restructured and renamed in 2000, has formal responsibility for the implementation of the University's communications efforts in terms of marketing, liaison and publications (*NU Info*, 2000c: 1). The division's work is interlinked with other units of the University which deal with specific target audiences such as Schools Liaison/Student Affairs which deals with prospective and registered

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students as well as parents and teachers; Alumni Affairs – with past students; Natal University Development Foundation (NUDF) with potential donors, both corporate and private; Functions with visitors to the campus; Graduate Office with graduands, their families and the public; NU International with potential continental and overseas students and visiting academics; Conferences with delegates to the University as well as university-based conferences and faculties with students and staff. Corporate communication in this case is a system-wide strategy even though Media and Publications coordinates the specialist functions.

The division liases closely with Public Affairs and NUDF, and employs a range of tools to achieve the University's communications strategy. The main avenues are through publications, electronic media and media liaison. The University centrally publishes corporate communication publications such as: *NU Focus*, aimed at alumni and politically influential individuals like government officials and chief executives in corporate business; *NU Info* for staff communication; *NU Contact* which serves potential students and educators of feeder schools; *Partners* is aimed at potential donors; *Networker* is targeted at high-income alumni; *NU Heritage* is aimed for old alumni; and faculty newsletters serve as communication media for students and staff. Other sundry publications are the Annual Report, Expert list, brochures, pamphlets and *ad hoc* newspaper and magazine advertisements.

The University also uses a website and email system as a medium of communication with its various publics. For corporate communication, the website is the public face of an organisation presented to a broad, inclusive set of its present and future customers and stakeholders, while an intranet facilitates communication within the internal structures of an organisation, a kind of 'private' network where the organisation's working information is shared among its management and employees (Mersham & Skinner, 2000: 205). NU employs both systems for its academic and communication purposes, through its website (http://www.nu.ac.za) and Intranet (http://innerweb.nu.ac.za).

The NU website and intranet contains news about the institution, information for students and other stakeholders, academic journals with some offering full text, rare art collection of the Killie Campbell Collections (http://khozi2.nu.ac.za), interactive media collections (referring to video pictures which have been digitally encrypted and compressed to operate on a computer) and library search facilities spanning three campuses. Media communication products on this site include *Focus Online* (www.nu.ac.za/focus) and university cinema advertisements (www.nu.ac.za/nu/clip01.mpg and (www.nu.ac.za/nu/clip02.mgp).

The University maintains relations with the mainstream media institutions through its Media Liaison Office. The objective is to proactively engage with print and electronic media to ensure (positive) coverage, timeously to identify potential threats, and at best to manage news objectively to minimize negative publicity. Media institutions are contacted for important events and through writing news stories and issuing press releases. Media liaison is done both at institutional level, through Media and Publications and at the faculty level. The University's assumption is that it operates within a faintly hostile media environment but succeeds in getting consistently high exposure in both print and electronic media through its news-based approach.

The above context highlights how corporate communication can be systems-based. Through such a system programmes and levels of responsibility differ. A corporate communication programme is put in place because of an anticipated need by an organisation for continued dissemination of information to its publics. It may be reviewed periodically to determine relevance and need. If needs be, the whole or parts of the programme will be continued, providing that the need for more communication between an organisation and its relevant publics exists (Brendenkamp, 1997: 90). Other objectives of corporate communication could be achieved by a more intensive set of activities or a campaign.

The current media campaign

A media campaign is an intentional, purposeful, effective and impersonal dissemination of messages through a variety of 'mass' media platforms. It informs audiences about a need-satisfying product, service, personality, place, institution or an idea, and/or the place where it is available, and/or its price. It is usually carried out by an identifiable sponsor (David, 2001; Mark & van de Walt, 1989). A campaign may be accompanied by a series of ancillary activities, such as organised events (sometimes referred to as pseudo-events), addresses by senior executives, and sale or handout of branded merchandise. A media campaign is normally done through but not limited to advertising in selected media like newspapers, radio stations, television channels, outdoor billboards, cinema and other media.

Over the past three years, a mix of radio and print media has been used to support the University of Natal media campaign. Outdoor advertising, using the 'Adopt-a-light' street pole platform was introduced in late 2000 and cinema advertisements were added to the mix in July 2001. A pilot campaign sub-component comprising a series of personal communications (direct mail and emails) to a selected group of top school learners was embarked on in 2001. The focus of this media campaign has been largely the KwaZulu-Natal province even though a limited national coverage has been done through 5FM which is a national youth radio. Other aspects of the radio campaign comprise interviews of selected University personnel at East Coast Radio, a series of posters and postcards (*NU Focus*, 2002: 53; Druce, 2002).

The current media campaign analysis will be tackled in a systems approach – using a campaign cycle adopted from David Nylen (1986: 75-85), which allows for systematic tracing of individual steps taken from conception to completion of a campaign. The major steps of a campaign plan are a situational analysis; positioning of the product and setting advertising objectives; programmes for reaching objectives and finally control and evaluation of the advertising programme. The advertising plan provides a framework within which thorough analysis of factual data is used to define problems and solutions. It traces processes and steps taken to come out with the communicative artefacts or acts under analysis.

Fig 3.2 Steps in a media campaign
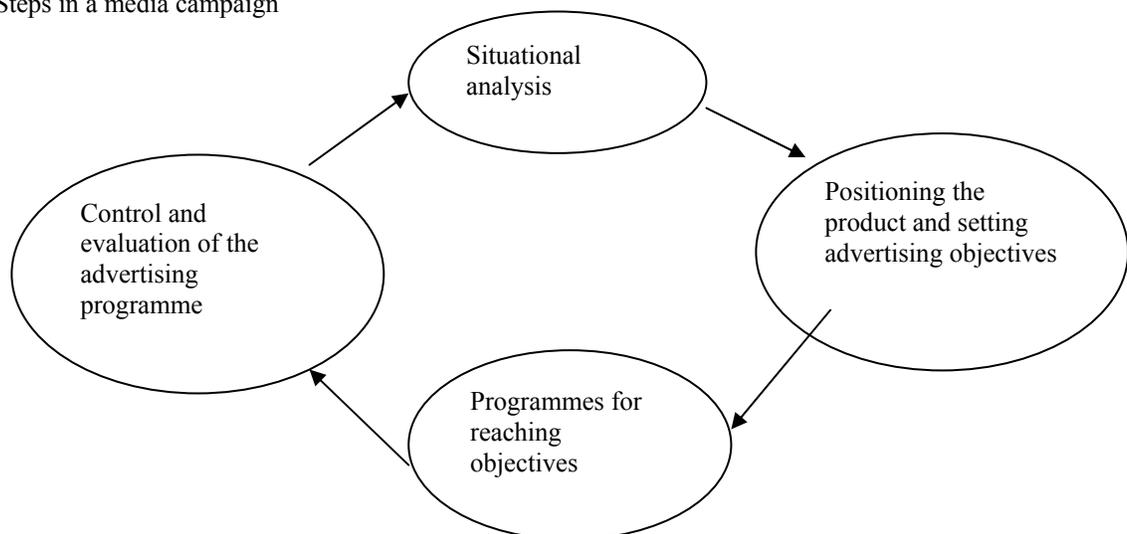
<u>Step: 1   Situational analysis</u>

The situational analysis consists of the background that is used to develop a campaign. The information, upon which it is based, should be organised, structured, detailed and focussed (Parente, 2000: 29). The first step is to start by analysing the problems and opportunities offered by the institution, its mission and its purpose in order to provide a research foundation that can be used to develop strategy and tactics. The most common way to approach a situational analysis is through a SWOT (designating strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) analysis and this stage entails examining the critical issues an organisation is facing (Parente, 2000: 30).

In a national survey conducted by the Human Sciences Research Council (2002) in August, 2001 among the Grade 12 learners, the percentage of learners intending to enter higher education within the next three years was 73%. Thirteen percent of learners did not intend doing so, while 14% were unsure. Employability, intrinsic interest in a field of study, higher income and availability of finance were among the major factors these learners cited for wanting to enter higher education (Macfarlene, 2002: 12). Technikons rather than universities are the first choice for the majority of those planning to enter the tertiary sector. The report indicates that more than half – 55% of learners planned to study at a technikon, 35% at a university and 10% were undecided (HSRC, 2002: 2). These factors, which are of concern to learners, indicate the situation or conditions upon which a university should address through its programmes and communication through its corporate communication activities.

On the basis of its intellectual and physical resources, NU positions itself in the market as one of the three top English-language research and teaching institutions in South Africa, a premier Eastern Seaboard institution and an African centre of excellence in some academic areas (NWG, 2001; *NU Vice-Chancellor's Report*, 1999; Kishun, 2002, Makgoba, 2002).

The reality facing the university, as far it is discerned from focus group research and student enrolment trends, has been an increasing difficulty in attracting top-calibre

students. These students can financially afford the alternatives of study elsewhere in the country or the world. The University also faces competition from the private sector institutions and the technikons (Media and Publications, 2002; HSRC, 2002). Higher education institutions in South Africa also compete for students amongst themselves in addition to competition posed by overseas institutions. NU is perceived as a regional institution while its main rivals like universities of the Witwatersrand and of Cape Town are seen as national universities (see Table below). NU lacks a national profile and it is relatively unknown (Odendaal-Magwaza, 1998).

Image of RAU	Image of UCT	Image of Wits
• High academic standards • Associated with BA and Bcom. rather than specialised fields • Emphasis is on sport and social life • Afrikaans and conservative • Not accommodating to blacks, but not as bad as it used to be.	• Excellent • Internationally known • Aspirational institution – achievement to be accepted there • Lively social scene • Big, somewhat impersonal.	• Established, high academic standards • Degrees recognised and credible, international reputation • Successful and confident, high self-esteem • Students seriously immersed in their studies, don't care how they look • Aspirational institution – proud to be accepted • Racially diverse – primarily black and Indian • Somewhat 'old and wrinkly', old-fashioned lecturers • Snobbish, arrogant • Too big, impersonal, distant lecturers.

Table 3.1: Learner perceptions on selected South African universities   Source: Navigator Research

For NU, areas of particular concern are perceptions of declining academic standards, qualifications not being recognised overseas, fears about personal safety, and the employment benefits of a university degree as opposed to other qualifications (Odendaal-Magwaza, 1998, Watkins, 2000). Technikons are believed to offer a gateway to employment. According to the HSRC report (2002: 4) the popularity of technikons is attributable in part to ease of access. No matriculation endorsement is required for entry to technikons, and lower percentage of African and coloured than of Indian and whites

achieve matriculation endorsement. Their popularity is enhanced, in part, due to technikon marketing focus on industry links and therefore technikon graduate employability. NU is also perceived to lack appropriate social life, lacks in sport prowess and the student body is fractured and segregated along racial lines (Weinburg, 1991: 12; Odendaal-Magwaza, 1998: 5).

During the situational analysis stage, it is crucial to conduct a target market analysis. The basic purpose of the market analysis is to determine the geographic areas, groups of individuals and their characteristics that warrants special attention, either because they are problems or because they are most likely to respond favourably to the organisation's corporate communication campaign (Parente, 2000: 61).

NU originally targeted both school leavers and their parents, with the understanding that parents serve as 'gatekeepers' or influence the decision of their children when selection of an academic institution is made (Druce, 2002). During 2000 and 2001, the potential student market was more specifically targeted. The decision was based on the importance of the potential market in the decision-making process, and the difficulty in effectively reaching disparate groups with one campaign. It was recognised that the message needs of both parents and learners were different and at times conflicting. The target has been broadened geographically to include Gauteng and the Eastern Cape provinces. The basis of this expansion is that NU should be seen as a national institution competitive with major universities in other regions of South Africa.

There has also been an increasing focus on 'top students'. The target market is characterised by the following attributes: black, Indian and white males and females in Grades 11 and 12 falling within the LSMs (Living Standard Measurements)[6] 6, 7 and 8 in KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng and Eastern Cape provinces.

Step 2: Positioning the product and setting advertising objectives

In order to devise an effective strategy, the institution must determine precisely the role that advertising and related communications play, that is, objectives that are to be met should be set. In campaign literature, marketing objectives are normally set out separately from the campaign or media objectives. The marketing objectives usually entail higher order outcomes like increase in enrolment figures while the media

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[6] The LSM index was designed to profile the market into relatively homogeneous groups. It is based on a set of marketing differentiators which group people according to their living standards, using criteria such as degree of urbanisation and ownership of cars and major appliances (assets). Essentially, the LSM is a wealth measure based on standard of living rather than income.

In the new SAARF Universal LSM, the population continuum is divided into 10 groups, from 1 at the bottom end, to 10 at the top end. The LSMs are calculated using 29 variables taken directly from the SAARF All Media Products Survey (AMPS), and focus on what services the respondents have access to, which province they live in and what assets they have (ie, car, TV, radio etc).

campaign objectives tend to mean reaction to communication outputs like change in perceptions after a communicative intervention.

In 2001 the NU media campaign moved into cinema while expanding the 'Adopt-a-light' posters and maintaining a background corporate branding campaign in radio and limited print media. The move from awareness was to tease out into sub-themes around university programmes highlighting creativity and innovation, intellectual rigour and social involvement. The twin objectives of the campaign are: to raise the profile of the University among target audiences of potential students, parents, alumni and the donor community, as well as to maintain continuity on the branding building campaign. Two pilot areas that are being fully attended to are the Pietermaritzburg campus and the Howard College School of Law. Some of the examples appear below:

Inset pics

Step 3:   Programmes for reaching objectives

The media campaign budget is essential in determining what activities may be carried out. The budget can limit what may be planned or influence a change in strategies. Budgeting to a large extent determines media selection, as media expenditure takes up the bulk of advertising and therefore the larger share of the budget. The brand-building exercise implemented in 1998/99 was budgeted around one million rands. The budget allocation for the current media campaign amounts to R1,410,000 and is subdivided for radio – R450,000, cinema production R30,000, cinema – R650, 000, press space - R150,000, schools magazines – R30,000 and poster campaign – R40,000.

The NU media campaign was outsourced to a marketing agency. Following the brief, the agency developed the campaign objectives. The agency oversaw the target audience research activities, message development,

message creation and testing, campaign implementation and monitoring. The agencies, which have been involved in the campaign, are FCB Lindsay Smithers Bond, and Octarine Communications.

The NU media strategy for the campaign has been mounted on a mix of radio, cinema, print, school magazines, outdoor and direct mail. The basic purpose of the media is to deliver messages efficiently and effectively (Parente, 2000: 175). The general objective is to deliver messages to as many prospects as is practical and be cost effective – and to deliver these messages with sufficient frequency to achieve the desired effect. Radio advertisements have been used to create awareness of the specific benefits of the University. These have been aired on East Coast Radio and Lotus FM in the KwaZulu-Natal province and nationally on 5FM (See Appendix 3.1). Through East Coast Radio, brief interviews with both staff and senior students are being conducted as part of the campaign. The argument for the restricted radio coverage is mainly due to the available budget (Druce, 2002).

Cinema advertising has been found to be most popular with the cinema audience who are mainly youth. This part of the campaign focuses on the 'excellence' of the University rather than programme offerings even though the Law School and the Pietermaritzburg campus have received special attention. Advertising in newspapers, was reduced mainly because monitoring reports indicated that even though the target groups do read papers, their quality of readership is low. The few advertisement placements are being limited to 'high interest' areas of the newspapers. While school magazines have been used as part of the campaign, it has been difficult for the marketing agency to evaluate their effectiveness. Indications point to high message retention but could not be verified (Druce, 2002). The outdoor campaign has also received good reviews and awards, but as is the case with outdoor, it has its advantages and disadvantages. It is not restricted to the target group, it is hard to read moving on the road and it is difficult to monitor.

Step 4:   Control and evaluation of the advertising programme

Evaluation is the systematic application of scientific procedures to assess the conceptualisation, design, implementation, impact and cost-effectiveness of a campaign or an intervention (Piotrow et al., 1997: 132). According to Piotrow et al., (1997:132-133), the purpose of an evaluation is to measure the process and impact of a programme against the objective established in the strategic design in order to contribute to decision-making. *Measurement* requires methods for collecting information and assessing the changes specified in the programme objectives. *Process* refers to what takes place as the programme is implemented. *Impact* refers to programme outcomes. *Decision-making* means applying the findings of an evaluation to improve ongoing or future programmes.

Media campaign evaluation despite its importance, is however an unsettled, debated and contested terrain. Debates often range from whether the correct methodologies were applied in researching the initial problem, if so, were the correct strategies or methodologies for intervention employed? If strategies were

correct the final question is whether the right methodologies for evaluation were used and whether the evaluation gives the true outcome of the activity and have not been contaminated in any way.

The overall campaign evaluation is scheduled for later in 2002, except the direct mail component, which was evaluated in December 2001 and got a generally positive assessment. 95% of respondents to evaluation questionnaires (response rate 11%) gave it a positive review. The previous campaign was evaluated by an independent private research agency, Nyasulu & Associates and was deemed successful on marketing comprehension, message creativity and general achievement of the objective of brand building and profiling the University in a positive way (McMurray, 1998).

Textual analysis

Textual analysis is being used for the analysis of the campaign materials. Several works that have been concerned with analysis of advertisements have been those of product advertising or corporate advertising of organisations or business, which produce physical goods for sale (like in Williamson, 1978; Leiss, Kline & Jhally, 1990; Myers, 1999). These works provide some basis for analysis even though they were not used in a context of advertising of an organisation whose primary role is public service and education in particular.

Textual analysis is presented as a systematic approach to understanding the meaning of advertising. The method has three steps: identification of textual elements (the parts or literary attributes), construction of meaning (the whole, a sum of parts) and deconstruction (the unsaid assumptions that challenge singular meaning) (Stern, 1996: 61). The method is preferred because it has been proved useful in cracking the communication codes. Stern (1996) fully described the method using a single advertisement. It is premised on the understanding that language, texts, readers and culture is better as a network of associations than a bridge.

In the method, the definition of advertising text is any media artifact designed to persuade consumers, and generated, composed, recorded, and analysed by sponsorial agents and/or researchers. The definition posits media artifact as persuasions to consume that can be analysed in a systematic way (see table below).

Three-Step Textual Analysis:
Identification – Construction – Deconstruction
1. Identification of attributes
    A. Language
    B. Character
    C. Plot
2. Construction of Meaning
    A. Genre categorisation

B. Rhetorical tactic
3. Deconstruction of Meanings
   A. Oppositional binaries
   B. Revelation of gaps
   C. Deprivileging privileged voices.

Table 3.2 Steps in textual analysis

I first applied the method on the posters of the phase 2 of the NU media campaign (see Fig. 3.3). Sampling was unnecessary as one genre or type is used and there were little significant differences. Grey Myers (1999) argues that the messages of posters are often simple, but they become complicated when we consider 'the idea' and how people encounter them and what they make of them.

Step 1: Identification of attributes. In these advertisements *language* is used sparingly mostly for different fields of study written on banners which are slanted at 90 degrees and for institutional name, all in simple English written in informal *sans sarif* Helvetica type in italics. These banners are on the left one-third. The technique here is to stress the message. Reading is guided by circular eye movement, which ends with the logo and institutional name – the University of Natal. The brand name is neither prominent nor small but visible. The *characters* in these posters are pictures or images of items associated with such field, framed horizontally on the middle third. All images are slim, in colour against white background. The metaphor of the image is structured in iconic coding such as sugarcane for agriculture, saxophone for music and bandaging for nursing. Metaphors in advertising are used to make associations. The character and plot of these advertisements is interesting as they are made of non-humans where humans (students) are being targeted. Visuals are mostly the strong points of any poster advertisements.

Step 2 Construction of meaning: The genre refers to the categories that people use to classify cultural objects into groups with similar properties or themes. The posters use conservative, elegant and 'classic' mood. They avoid clutter of elements associated with other outdoor advertising. Brand banners are used for hailing hence their large typeface.

Step 3 Deconstruction of meanings: The lack of humans in this series of posters is their strength. Readers are in fact conversely taken inside the poster because there is space there analogous to their own (Williamson, 1978: 173). Advertisements are made of social myths, which are used as a self-referent, as is in this case. Using one of the posters as an example, if one wants to be a musician the instrument is already there for him or her and the logo and the institutional name points to the University of Natal.

The above reading of this series of posters may not be the only one. Sociological research into 'media effects' suggests that people may read the same image in divergent was, often depending on their identity, their experiences and the subject positions they adopt (Emmison and Smith, 2000: 68). Whilst there may a 'preferred' or 'dominant' or 'hegemonic' reading which is intended by the author or reinforces a prevailing ideology, 'oppositional' readings can be made of the same text.

The series of radio advertisements for the campaign were also constructed similarly hence a sample of one would be used for analysis. For the purpose of the analysis, the advertisement was transcribed.

Step 1 Identification of attributes: The use of sound and voice is the strength of any radio advertisement. In this radio advertisement (referred to as UON/35/5108 – see Appendix 3.5), the narration is made in English through voice-overs and group conversation. The initial voice-over is constructed in a 'voice of God' manner while the conversations are constructed in an informal manner interspersed by jokes and laughter. The conversations, narrated by a male and two females are sandwiched between voice-overs and also used as a trailer. These conversations, constructed in a play-like manner, are the metaphor behind the advertisement. The shoosh sound is used but sparingly.

Step 2 Construction of meaning: The construction of these radio spots taps into how meaning is made in ordinary life. Poetic devices are used to capture the attention of the audience as well as providing information. While the construction of the advertisements appears like ordinary group dialogue, it is in fact providing information and giving out an impression of relaxed atmosphere. The voice-overs are used as a unifying structural device and are used to balance the entire advertisement, with the last voice-over being interspersed with a shoosh sound which itself hails the listener to a meaning-loaded, mythic device, the university slogan, '… gives you the power to succeed'.

Step 3 Deconstruction of meanings: The relaxed mood and informal conversations used in these advertisement are mythical devices that are meant to inform a potential student that NU offers its students a relaxed atmosphere for studying. The seriousness of the voice-overs ensures that informality is not confused with mediocrity. The direct address 'you' speaks to someone outside advertisements. The binary opposition device like male-female, are used to speak to students of both gender. The advertisements therefore say to potential students if you are serious about your studies come to the University of Natal where you will enjoy studying in a relaxed but serious atmosphere.

The cinema series had two slightly different styles, one shot from stills (documentary) and a montage of live action (sci-fi). For analysis cinema one advertisement was selected from those shot from stills as they made for university-wide audiences other than those for Pietermaritzburg or law school. Copy of the advertisement is available as www.nu.ac.za/nu/clip01/mpeg.

Step 1: Identification of attributes: The strength of cinema advertising is that it draws from visuals, text and sound. In this advertisement, there is no talking, only classic music used as the background throughout. It is structured in five different segments with each segment using a picture of a former NU student. The camera shots start from extreme close-up and zooms out. To illustrate, I describe the first segment. A framed colour picture of young informally dressed Alec Erwin appears. On the photo he is greeting a

formally dressed black man. The framed phone is shot at extreme close-up and the camera zoom out showing other background items, like books whose title are visible, laid on a mahogany table. The subtitles **ALEC ERWIN**, 1983 in capital verdana bold are inscribed on the screen frame. The pictures fade to black then over the black background appear: *Became Minister of Trade and Industry*. The pattern is repeated throughout the five characters or segments with a closing fade to black upon which the NU crest appears then another fade to black followed by the ending text reading: Become someone.

Step 2: Construction of meaning. The cinema advertisements create meaning by representation. The institution is represented by the achievements of its alumni who are doing well in different spheres of life. The background, such as books on economics, in the first segment is a device that shows the value of education. The devices are used to construct meaning through common sense. For instance the advertisement do not show how these people got to where they are.

Step 3: Deconstruction of meanings: In the sample cinema advertisement, we encounter binary oppositions such as black-white, male-female, young-old, closed-open being used as devices to create harmony rather than hierarchy. They lead readers of the text to make multiple meanings or interpretation that suits them from the advertisement.

The overall impression created is that NU is a place for successful people whether 'White', 'Black', 'Coloured' or 'Indian', young or old in whatever field they chose. One's success is constructed through examples of prominent alumni. What these spots connote is that if potential students choose NU as an institution, there is high likelihood that they would be become successful people.

Textual analysis is helpful in reading or cracking the codes in advertising, however as with all texts, there are possibilities for disparate readings. As illustrated by McMurray (1998), the Roll-Royce was associated with being elite, therefore NU was being read as an elitist institution. The analysis itself is not foolproof but provides instruments for engaging different parts of message construction, reading and deconstruction.

Advertising works, in part, through self-referential manner, where audience members identify with what is shown on the advertisements. On one side the advertisements look at the consumer and the institutional goals on the other. Overall, the thematic categories that are dominant in the NU media campaign are: quality of education, internationally recognised degrees, career options for graduates, conducive social environment and academic facilities at NU. Some of these themes overlap.

Several advertisements used in the campaign deal with the question of quality of education being offered at NU. This quality is premised on excellent lecturers who are selected through a quality process, interactive classes and provision of good academic facilities. The textual analysis indicates that the preferred reading is for learners to see NU as the institution to help them realise success. The identity of the individual is connected to that of the institution – its brand.

The brand-building exercise has been quite successful in articulating the notion of internationally recognised degrees. Construction of a symbolic identity is important not only to the institution as a corporate body but even to the recipients of services. NU has branded itself as an institution, which gives one a "power to succeed". The fusions of brand signs and symbols have been used to package the university. This process provides a foundation upon which the institution could be commodified and marketised. Commodification does not only reside with institutions but the self could be commodified, through the credentials, therefore the media experience induced by advertising connects individual aspirations and institutional objectives (Giddens, 1991).

The textual analysis of cinema advertisements, in particular, reflect an effort in portraying NU as an institution that can provide its students a base for career options. The cinema portions of the campaign seem to adequately capture the 'university product' as its graduates who are benefiting society in various ways – in government, business, sports, arts, human rights and other important fields (http://www.nu.ac.za/nu/Clip02.mpg). This part of the campaign highlights the quality of the products, its reliability and strengths (Tomaselli, 2002: 6). Read together with other media product, the 'product' concept needs better clarity and consistency. Is the university 'product' its educational or research programmes or its graduates or both? That would help to define to whom the product is promoted and how.

The reading of communicative products addressing the social environment of the University highlights sports, entertainment, social clubs and best sporting facilities in the province. The use of high-tech music and video montage in the Pietermaritzburg advertisement illustrates the tension of addressing students as a homogenous group of youth given that about 35% of university students are at postgraduate level (*NU Annual Report*, 2000: 1). Special treatment of the social environment indicates concern expressed by numerous learner perception studies and the need to put the issue in its proper perspective.

Academic success of students is in part dependent on good academic facilities such as libraries, information and communication technologies, laboratories and similar resources. This is adequately addressed in the NU media campaign. The campaign shows the strengths of the institution and positions it within a global market.

Finally, the critique of NU media has been its lack of concern of the poor and the marginalized communities by not specifically addressing them even though indirectly it touches on programmes aimed at them (Tomaselli, 1992: 56). Given that a campaign hinges on and does not work in isolation of other media products of the institution, coherence of messages and strategies is important. This concern may be extended to

student publications, which should also be seen to reflect similar corporate outlook, despite their editorial independence. Concentration on the economically viable stakeholders of the university at the expense of the poor ones has implications for the same image that corporate communication is concerned about.

This chapter has highlighted the processes, environment, implementation and textual analysis of media products of the NU media campaign. The following chapter provides an analysis of the findings and lessons learnt.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS, LESSONS LEARNED AND CONCLUSIONS

The nature of responses that universities take in dealing with their changing markets and environment are important for their well-being. Their success depends on how they adapt. The pursuit and adoption of corporate discourse in public institutions including higher education is one facet of a pervasive new market-driven ethos, which commodifies the products of knowledge and knowledge itself, and offers them for purchase in the marketplace of ideas (Atkinson-Grosjean, 1998). The success of adaptation and change from collegial and bureaucratic to corporate and entrepreneurial is a subject of different studies (Wasser, 2001). The purpose of this research has been to uncover how commodification and restructuring in higher education institutions manifest or play themselves out through following and interrogating the media campaign of the University of Natal. In this chapter, I thread the research questions with the findings and draw what can be learned from the media campaign. First, I look at the general issues surrounding higher education capitalisation or funding through market related means and corporate communication and conclude with specific discussion on the NU media campaign.

On a macro level have been issues of whether higher education institutions should employ corporate communication strategies including marketing to communicate with society about the academic enterprise including research activities. The argument draws two opposing views. That communication or 'dialogism' within and outside institutions of higher education should occur seems indisputable but what is contested is the form of such communication.

It is in order to note that public universities are changing as institutions and despite being the creations of nation-states; they are developing toward the status of transnational corporations (Readings, 1996: 164). They draw their students from their home base and beyond their national boundaries and undertake collaborative research with professionals and institutions of similar status from abroad. The complexion of staff is multi-national. Through information and communication technologies, these institutions network amongst themselves and the world outside.

In his argument against publicity by universities, Thorstein Veblen (1954: 234) argues that the "whole traffic in publicity and general conventionalities appears to be little else than a boyish imitation of the ways and means employed, with shrewd purpose, in

business enterprise that has no analogy with the pursuit of knowledge". He stated that yearly aggregate expenditure of the universities on this competitive academic publicity runs well into millions and in all multifarious ways and means, university advertising accomplishes no useful aggregate results. Also critical about the promotional culture that has permeated into operations of universities is Andrew Wernick (1991) who argues that it is not through the strength of advertising that universities could attract more students but through what he calls 'accumulated promotional capital' that has gone into constructing a school's perceived academic reputation.

Counter-arguments for use of corporate communication and allied marketing strategies are also strong. The foundations of these arguments are that the environment of higher education has changed: the funding of universities from governments is declining, there are more service providers in the higher education market and institutions of higher learning are also being affected by globalisation in various ways (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997; Bruwer, 1996; Readings, 1996). In short, the university is becoming a different kind of institution; one that is no longer linked to the destiny of the nation-state and is gradually adopting the status of the multinational corporation. It is the sophistication of the university as an institution due to rising number of students, staff and stakeholders, and the market within which it operates that gives credence to adoption of similarly sophisticated communication techniques. Moreover, it is almost impossible, in the short term, to reverse the trends of the crisis of the nation-state, globalisation and commodification except to negotiate and adapt to strong position within the new political economy.

Greg Myers (1999: 89) argues that, "universities do have to market themselves somehow, to at least three kinds of audiences: prospective students, prospective users of research and prospective donors." He criticises the traditional means of publicising a university and its programmes through catalogues and prospectuses, which are dull, but acknowledges recent efforts in direct mail, posters, open days, videos and the World Wide Web. Similarly Johan de W. Bruwer (1996: 121) argues that public higher education in South Africa is now in the midst of economic hard times and universities

and technikons now look to marketing in order to increase their resources, or at least to compensate for ongoing resource reductions.

Due to these broader political, social and economic changes, a diverse range of public and private organisations and institutions are professionalising their range of corporate communication activities. Arguments for better communication with society are not only confined to where institutions promote, publicise and project themselves but also extend to questions of accountability and transparency. It is believed that public support for higher education would be greatly enhanced where corporate communication of institutions of higher education breaks the barriers of elitism. While these issues are intertwined with daily activities of practitioners of corporate communication like in production of annual reports and media briefings on the issues about the institution, it seems more energy is expended on more prestigious and influential target groups and in self-promotion (Deacon and Monk, 2001: 54).

The White Paper on Education (1997) states that fee-free higher education for students is not an affordable or sustainable option for South Africa and argues that the costs should be shared equitably between public and private beneficiaries. It prescribes complementing public funding by harnessing more private resources arguing that with a well-considered advocacy and marketing approach, the scale of private sector investment in higher education students through loans, bursaries and sponsorships might well increase substantially. Within the higher education system there are institutions whose wealth and accumulated reserves are sound, as David Maughan-Brown (2002) argues:

> … we have a situation in which some universities can afford to offer free tuition to all
>
> students in select faculties, or to pay substantially higher salaries to their staff and
>
> literally buy productive researchers, or to recruit top students from across the country by
>
> offering generous financial incentives and thereby minimising the costs of academic
>
> support and maximising throughput rates.

The net worth of some institutions, which is based on accumulated wealth, indicates inequalities within the higher education system. Some institutions have sound financial base while some are more vulnerable to financial insecurity. Some are located at the heartland of business where sourcing funds is much easier. These issues have a bearing on corporate communication if institutions are to source their funding from the private sources as prescribed by higher education policy.

Advocacy and marketing through public communication are now part of public policy and also a way of mitigating problems of funding. Motivation for communication is, in the context of late capitalism, ultimately about winning public support in order to reverse the situation of declining state funding by seeking alternative means. It is through symbolic capital created through media communication that institutions raise economic capital (Holtzhausen, 2002: 34). As universities model themselves after corporations and business, they tend to adopt commercial solutions such as repackaging themselves and advertise to increase student numbers and patronage for research projects. These are the processes of commodification of higher education which are based mainly on the logic of the market. The larger social role of education should be based on principles of public service, social justice and elimination of inequalities.

Findings

The NU media campaign was targeted at all racial groups in Grades 11 and 12 and falling within the Living Standards Measures (LSMs) of 6, 7 and 8. The target areas were in KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng and Eastern Cape provinces. The LSMs, (www.saarf.co.za) were introduced in the late 1980s to segment the South African market and categorise people according to their living standards using criteria such as degree of urbanisation, ownership of cars and major appliances. This instrument has become one of the most widely used marketing research tools in South Africa in advertising circles. It is purported to be based on non-racial issues as a growing number of black South Africans are progressing to the more affluent sectors of the society (Roome, 1999). The post-

apartheid society is believed to be integrating more now that segregation laws have been scrapped and upward mobility of all people tends to blur the racial lines.

When considering market segmentation, race is a real issue considering the inequalities of the past. For instance, ownership of television sets shows a marked disparity between black South African (49.2) and 'coloureds', 'Indians' and 'whites' (91.3 percent), while less than less than 5 percent of all South Africans read a daily newspaper, 89.5 percent of households own a radio set and 61.7 percent a television set (Barnett, 1999:649). Despite the 'objectivity' of the LSMs, according to studies on advertising patterns in South Africa, there seems to be a correlation between patterns of adspend, race and class (MDDA, 2001: 26). LSMs might be a blunt non-racial instrument but the reality on the ground is different and this has an impact on how the university addresses different groups of potential students, especially those from marginalised backgrounds.

Media selection is one of the critical issues that the campaign should have paid more attention to if it were to project NU as a national or an international institution. A more equitable distribution was made in placing newspaper advertisements at both national and regional newspapers but the same could not be said of other campaign materials or sub-components of the campaign which were limited or concentrated to the KwaZulu-Natal province. The radio campaign was aired originally on East Coast Radio and Lotus FM, later extended to 5FM. These radio stations account for a total national listenership of eleven percent with East Coast Radio attracting 5%, 5FM at 4.4% and Lotus FM at 1.6 percent (see Appendix 3.1). Regional emphasis was also made with poster and direct mail sub-components, which were limited to KwaZulu-Natal cities and schools with expansion being earmarked for Gauteng and Eastern Cape. This decision is defended through budget constraints (Druce, 2002). If NU is to be seen as a national or international institution it needs to communicate in a similar manner – it should transform its renowned international academic recognition into a national image through appropriate national media channels and presence.

The above issues point to two interlocking media reflections – narrow selection of affluent market segmentation and an attachment to cost-containment measures by trying to do more with fewer resources. Market segmentation business - like ratings are forms of commodification processes, as Mosco (1996: 150) argues that commodification demands the use of measurement procedures to produce commodities and monitoring techniques to keep track of production, distribution, exchange and consumption.

These processes entrench selective targeting of potential students by their ability to pay over potential to succeed and thus privileging urban over rural populations, rich over poor.This has a potential to slow down the integration process the country has embarked upon. If private higher education represents the best prototype of commodified education, it is from them that we could draw lessons. As indicated, private higher education institutions have restricted access and perpetuate inequalities. Communication emanating from commodified institutions or based on selective market segmentation helps widen these inequalities by not addressing some sections of society.

Advertising is important in delivering messages to target audiences through the media. It is one of the tools used by corporate communication departments to reach their various audiences and stakeholders. Armand Mattelart (1991: 31) amply sums up this connection:

> … behind the concept of advertising in its instrumental sense – namely, 'the multiple and impersonal announcement of goods, services or commercial ideas by a named advertiser, who pays an agency and a transmitter (the medium, or advertising support) to deliver his message to the market' – behind this concept is hidden another, an idea deeply rooted in the history of the mode of communication: that of a new model of social organisation, a new means of creating consensus, of forging the general will.

Intertwined with these processes are the advertising or marketing agencies and the way they conduct their business.

Advertising and marketing agencies specialize in buying advertising space from the media on behalf of clients. In addition to buying space, they venture into other aspects of advertising like market research, opinion polling, audience ratings, consulting, design, graphics, sales promotion, direct marketing (including telemarketing with new

technologies) audiovisual production, video communication and sponsorship (Mosco, 1996: 107-108).

The NU media campaign was outsourced to FCB Lindsay Smithers Bond, which is one of the leading advertising agencies in South Africa with 'grossed-up' billings close to R410.3 million and income of R67.7 million (1996 estimates) (Sinclair, 1997: 44). The University is now using Octarine Communications agency.

The political economy of communication theory argues that corporate structures tend to interlink in a web that facilitates movement of capital from one structure to another and that has a significant effect on construction and circulation of media commodities (Meehan, Mosco & Wasko, 1993: 111). This is exemplified by the foregrounding of media advertising as a major campaign strategy. Placing advertisements in media normally forms a large share of a campaign budget. Consequently, advertising as a strategy suits advertising agencies more than clients or the audiences which needs to be communicated to (Holt, 1996). Due to incentives of drawing commission from media advertising, advertising agencies prefer advertising as a solution for a client's problem, even when other forms of marketing may be more appropriate (*Financial Mail*, 2000).

The scope of the campaign was locally based and as such ignored the identifiable diversity of NU students. NU International (Kishun, 2002) identified possible marketing avenues for international students through the South African High Commission, advertisements in the media of other African countries, other universities and through the NU website.

The NU media invokes commodification of higher education in its branding exercise where popular culture texts are encoded with institutional name and logo. The reader's entry point is the widely circulated television series which have become an ordinary culture such as *Star Wars* and *Superman*, as well as sports and leisure (basketball and cars). The familiar popular culture texts, the ordinariness and the naturalness are used in a metaphorical sense to situate the commodity and in this case the University, as encoded by the logo, name and slogans. These are crafted using commercial advertising techniques and networks. They are finally transmitted or circulated in a commercial manner to audiences through mass media outlets. The resulting commodities are the audiences whose appropriation benefits the media and the advertisers, and the branded

product, the University, whose value is raised through exposure to the public. The brand is appropriated for value through student numbers from whom the institution could raise funds by FTEs and fees.

Since 1994 South Africa has been in the project of nation-building and this is partly done through the media, especially through the public broadcasting service. Advertising as part of the media establishment needs to reflect this notion and values by engaging local themes. In the brand-branding exercise, the NU media campaign posters reflected the multiracialism of the South African society by reflecting different races and gender type. Oyedemi (2000: 53) noted that the racial segmentation was commendable, with the Superman – white, the basketball player – black, and star-wars model – Asian. What was problematic with these advertisements were the Eurocentric values that were reflected. These include American popular movies – the *Star Wars* and the *Superman*, using American popular sport – the basketball and British Rolls Royce. Given that developing nations remain hostage to global functions of capital, ideas of unity and coherence through cultural negotiations are still held dear in new emerging nation-states and hence Eurocentric advertising discourses are questioned (Tomaselli & Aldridge, 1996).

Cultural identities are manifested in symbols, rituals, heroes and values, which should be reflected in advertising (de Mooij, 1998: 44). The distinctive identity of South Africanness is well captured in the NU campaign cinema spots (www.nu.ac.za/nu/clip01.mpg, www.nu.ac.za/clip02.mpg) and law school cinema spots which use South African heroes and heroines, produced by the University of Natal and making an impact on different spheres of life both nationally and on global scale. Reflections of the cinema spots are in consonance with the concept of identity being an important aspect that should be mirrored in the media products along the spirit of the Triple Enquiry Report of the Independent Broadcasting Authority on locally produced materials (Teer-Tomaselli & Tomaselli, 2001). The principle behind local productions is a unified South African culture which is not being preserved by imported materials. Some of the materials used in the current campaign, for instance the cinema spots, bore well with the mission of the University of Natal as being a national institution. These cinema spots were grounded on local production and local personalities.

One of the critical but often difficult processes in corporate communication is translating institutional mission into a corporate communication strategy. Corporate communication strategy provides focus and direction to an organisation's communication with its stakeholders – determining what should be communicated to assist in achieving organisational goals. It is an approach that directs the course of action of the corporate communication's functions and provides an indication of its positioning in the future by providing the logic behind the corporate communication functional activities (Steyn, 2000: 11). Steyn further agues that corporate communication strategy "is developed within the context of the organisation's vision, mission, corporate culture, policies and strategies (the internal environment), but focuses on an assessment of the external (macro and task) environment, and on stakeholder environment".

The mission of the University of Natal is to strive to serve all sections of its community through excellence in scholarship, teaching, learning, research and development (Bell, 2000). Recognition is made of dedication to quality, equity, responsiveness, regional collaboration, internationalisation, innovation, income-generation and information technology. The University also recognises its obligation to enable students from educationally disadvantaged backgrounds to succeed, and develop new modes of delivery to increase access to tertiary education for geographically isolated and historically excluded communities. In pursuit of its ideals of equity, access and quality, there are however some challenges. "The inability of the State to meet the demand for quality tertiary education among previously disadvantaged groups has meant that the University of Natal has had to assume a far more vigorous approach to student funding" (*NU Vice-Chancellor's Report*, 1999: 3).

The translation of the institution's mission into a corporate communication strategy is a combination of expressed mission objectives and results of a situational analysis expressed in communication terms. Broadly, NU has opted to apply its corporate communication strategy through an audience-based approach with different departments drawing their strategies from the institutional mission and translating them to the

requirements of their constituencies. The overall institutional corporate communication strategy is held together through institutional policy which aims for consistency in message production from individual units (Saunderson-Meyer, 2002).

The brand-building exercise, which was the main focus of the media campaign, though narrow in focus, has tried to take aboard the major issues of the institutional mission but has left some out in the process. Other elements of the campaign were in fact in conflict with NU's mission regarding the question of access. While the mission advocates equity, the targeting was based on segmentation.

Media evaluation is another important element of every campaign as it shows whether objectives have been reached or not and if not where problems emerged. It also informs future programmes. For the NU media campaign, all preliminary reports and reports of the completed campaign parts indicate a positive response to the campaign, enrolments are increasing and the university is enjoying a positive public image (McMurray, 1998; Wedekind, 2001)

Communication effects and impact evaluation pose special problems for evaluators. It is a daunting task to demonstrate that media campaigns or any media communication was responsible for a change in certain phenomenon or behaviour (Piotrow et al., 1997: 134). First, communication is not only an independent function but also part of an overall strategy of how an institution interacts with its stakeholders or members of society. Second, most communication has both short-term and long-term effects. People often evaluate or consider information received over unlimited periods of time. Third, communication may have both intended and unintended effects since media campaigns never take place in a vacuum but always in context (Piotrow et al., 1997: 134). Evaluation is also a subject of heavy commitment in resources which are never easily justified. Taking a comment by the former head of research at South African Broadcasting Corporation, Dr. Daan van Vuuren, during a recent Southern African Communication Association (SACOMM) conference, the efficacy of advertising is difficult to justify but most companies are convinced that advertising works. Campaign

evaluation is one area that NU should invest in in the future in order to inform its media programmes and future campaigns.

Conclusion

The period during which the NU media campaign took place fell with an era of significant changes in South African higher education. During the period, transformation and reforms of various kinds were occurring. There have been institutional mergers, managerial changes, changes in staff and student racial composition and new policy framework. The campaign was, however, limited to institutional branding and academic excellence and barely touched on these major issues.

Concentrating on excellence, the campaign was addressing the immediate short-term needs of the institution such as the declining numbers of top-calibre students. In terms of corporate communication, however transformation should have been seen as one of the threats or opportunities, which could either destabilise or offer new impetus to the institution's efforts on excellence and as part of its social responsibility tasks. As a threat, transformation could erode some of the gains of the campaign if the University's stakeholders equated it with mediocrity or viewed it with skepticism and hostility (Fehnel, 2002). As an opportunity, it could usher in new avenues for the institution and build on previous gains as well as moving along with the new post-apartheid society of South Africa. This would have been in concert with the NU mission statement with strives for quality with equity.

The award-winning media campaign of the University of Natal seems to have succeeded in raising the profile of the institution albeit around its immediate environs. It has also enhanced the institutional symbolic capital which it is yet to translate fully to the national scale. Despite the positive reviews, the campaign was short on penetration and its full evaluation, scheduled for December 2002, should form a benchmark for future initiatives especially the extension of communication to the marginalised areas, the national audience and the emerging markets in Africa and beyond, by maximising on NU's strengths via its information and communication technology infrastructure.

The relationship between institutions and discursive practices is not a neat or simple relationship. Different institutions come to share common discursive practices. A

particular discursive practice such corporate communication may have a complex distribution across many institutions. For instance, advertising may be rooted in the orders of discourse of commodity production, distribution and consumption, but it has come to be an element in orders of discourse of diverse institutions including higher education institutions (Fairclough, 1995: 63). Wholesale importation of discursive practices from business to public service raises problems of legitimacy. Such discourses need to be adapted to ethos of environment and situation they are applied.

Corporate communication in higher education institutions has adopted the complexion of corporate communication in the commercial sector, which conflicts, with the ethos of public service by segmented markets and lack of social justice. The closest case of higher education is public service broadcasting whose principles are universal access, contribution to national identity, distance from vested interests, direct funding and universality of payment, and competition in good programming (Teer-Tomaselli & Boafo, 1996:184). Corporate communication in this situation should be shaped around these ideals similar to the model of university-run National Public Radio system in the United States, unfortunately dwarfed by commercial interests.

As shown throughout this research about the NU media campaign, the process of commodification of higher education elevates the economic determinants above other vital cultural, social and political values. These processes are driven by the 'dual strategy' of nation-states through public policy aimed at globalisation on one hand and restructuring of public institutions on the other, and are influenced by the free-market ideology. Under this political economy, institutions of higher learning model themselves along corporate and entrepreneurial business and adopt market-related solutions to their declining levels of funding and apply their communication efforts in pursuit of these goals as against principles of public service. Corporate communication in higher education, as knowledge itself, should be tool for emancipation of society.

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Top Radio Stations 7 day Listeners (100% = 29 013 000)

	Jul 2001-Jun 2002		Jun 2001 -Dec 2001		Jul 2000 -Jun 2001		Jan 2000 -Dec 2000		Jul 1999 -Jun 2000	
	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000
AFRICAN LANGUAGE SERVICES	64.2	18987	65,0	18864	65,8	19102	67,0	19074	67,3	19171
UKHOZI FM	22.6	6675	22,9	6640	23,2	6732	23,8	6771	23,2	6612
METRO FM	19	5626	18,7	5425	19,1	5549	19,6	5572	18,9	5395
UMHLOBO WENENE FM	15.5	4581	15,6	4522	16,3	4730	17,5	4987	17,4	4970
LESEDI FM	13.1	3872	13,1	3787	13,1	3807	13,5	3858	13,5	3845
MOTSWEDING FM	11	3252	11,6	3365	11,4	3299	11,5	3265	11,5	3275
THOBELA FM	9.2	2722	9,5	2755	10,2	2947	11,1	3153	11,4	3238
JACARANDA 94. 2 FM/RMFM			5,1	1472	5,0	1438	4,5	1296	4,0	1153
JACARANDA 94. 2 FM	5.9	1731	4,9	1434	4,8	1406	4,5	1281	4,0	1145
YFM 99.2	5.4	1609	5,5	1596	5,2	1514	5,0	1413	4,9	1387
RADIOSONDERGRENSE	5.3	1576	5,5	1584	5,4	1572	5,2	1482	5,4	1529
MUNGHANA LONENE FM	5	1491	5,1	1465	5,2	1501	5,1	1465	5,2	1479
EAST COAST RADIO	5	1475	4,3	1247	4,1	1186	4,1	1166	3,5	998
5 FM	4.4	1292	4,6	1348	4,7	1362	4,7	1335	4,7	1349
LIGWALAGWALA FM	4.3	1258	3,9	1137	3,8	1092	3,9	1098	4,1	1168
IKWEKWEZI FM	4.2	1228	4,2	1222	4,3	1253	4,5	1287	4,2	1197
94.7 HIGHVELD STEREO	3.5	1029	3,2	924	3,1	907	3,1	885	2,8	800
PHALAPHALA FM	3	880	3,2	928	3,0	858	3,1	883	3,3	937
KAYA-fm 95.9	2.9	869	3,2	938	2,8	819	2,3	666	2,1	603
Kfm RADIO	2.9	861	2,7	772	2,6	762	2,5	726	2,4	696
GOOD HOPE FM	2.6	776	2,9	831	2,9	850	3,0	842	3,1	878
CKI FM STEREO	2.3	682	2,4	708	2,4	682	2,3	662	2,6	729
SAfm	2.1	632	1,8	515	1,6	477	1,7	490	1,7	479
RADIO KANSEL/PULPIT	2	603	2,0	574	2,0	567	2,0	558	2,0	558
RADIO BOP	2	594	2,4	691	2,4	707	2,6	735	2,7	765
LOTUS FM	1.6	461	1,6	467	1,7	500	1,5	431	1,5	418
P4 RADIO KZN 98-100 FM	1.5	445	1,4	397	1,2	336	0,7	191	0,4	121
RADIO ALGOA / BRFM	-	-	-	-	1,4	401	1,2	355	1,1	316
RMFM	1.5	451	1,2	361	1,1	306	0,6	185	0,5	153
RADIO ALGOA STEREO 94-97FM	1.5	435	1,4	392	1,4	400	1,2	353	1,1	315
Ofm (RADIO ORANJE)	1.3	380	1,2	343	1,2	355	1,4	394	1,4	396
702 TALK RADIO	1	287	1,1	319	1,2	357	1,4	392	1,4	409
P4 RADIO CT 100-108 FM	1	292	0,9	261	0,9	267	0,8	220	0,6	176
RADIO 2000	0.7	203	0,6	188	0,7	200	0,6	173	0,6	169
CLASSIC FM 102.7	0.5	134	0,4	130	0,5	132	0,5	139	0,5	154
567 MW CAPETALK	0.3	92	0,3	81	0,3	87	0,3	73	0,2	70
PUNT GESELSRADIO			0,2	68	0,3	85	0,3	85	0,3	86
BRFM	-	-	-	-	0,2	61	0,2	58	0,2	47
TOTAL COMMUNITY RADIO	11.1	3293	3074	10,6	10,8	3135	11,0	3124	11,2	3202
TOTAL RADIO	90	26635	26395	91	91,6	26590	92,3	26305	92,4	26334

Source: South African Advertising Research Foundation (www.saarf.co.za)

UON/35/108 English   0.43 seconds

Male Voice-over: At the University of Natal lecturers are carefully selected and are of highest the calibre.

Group conversation (*female voice* against noisy background): Ok now listen to this, alright, he is the best lecturer that I have come to … (interruption *another female voice*: yeah, he is really) excellent, excellent (second interruption: *male voice*: he is funny man ..) (group laughter) you have got amazing like top-end people who are really prominent figures people in society (interruption male voice: I have already said for English 'ike speaks in words, I can never never … drown by laughter…(fade out).

Female voice-over: The University of Natal (shoosh sound) giving you the power to succeed.

Continuation of laughter and jokes … ha ha ha … the lecturer (fade in and out).

Appendix 3.2b

UON/35/109 English   0.43 seconds

MVO: The University of Natal ensures that all its lecturers are equipped to meet the needs of its students.

Female voice: He will push me to my extreme limit and he will show me things that I can do that I thought I could not be able to do. *Male voice*: He used to wear his socks above his knees (laughter) and his shorts were really short. *Female voice*: She is phenomenal. She has taught me things that are incredible. *Male voice*: She doesn't comb her hair, she is …(laughter) she could live in her car, I don't know.

Female voice-over: The University of Natal (shoosh sound) giving you the power to succeed.

Continuation of laughter and jokes … ha ha ha … the lecturer (fade in and out).

Appendix 3.2c

UON/45/110   English   53 seconds

MVO: The University of Natal not only offers the highest academic standards but also stimulating and invigorating social life.

Male (student) voice: The party is here, they're cool. *Female voice*: If you wanna dance, you can dance. *Another female voice*: I've done with some parties for a while…

MVO: The University of Natal also offers a wide variety of interesting student clubs and societies.

Female voice: There is something happening here. *Male voice*: jazz centre is amazing, I have never seen anything before in any university. *Female voice*: There is really some good stuff going on here

FMO: The University of Natal (shoosh sound) giving you the power to succeed.

Female voice (trailing in): … there was a circle of Espirits and one of the cars parked on the hill …(laughter) … they were all naked … (laughter).

Appendix 3.2d

UON 50/110   English   01.02 minutes

MVO: One of the greatest benefits of studying at the University of Natal is our enormous depth of resource. Our libraries, for an example, are world class.

Noise – group voices: they are excellent, excellent, they are internationally … *Female voice*: The people there are very helpful. They will help you find any book, anything you want. *Male voice*: I am blacklisted (laughter)

MVO: And students benefit from sporting facilities, which are some of the best this country has to offer.

Female voice: The school facilities, the fields are always good and there is always equipment, which isn't always the case, I mean in the … *Another female voice*: I play hockey.

FMO: The University of Natal (shoosh sound) giving you the power to succeed.

Female voice (trailing in): We just wanna want to kick arse when we want to (laughter) … that's the bottom line.

Appendix 3.2e

UON/45/112   English   43 seconds

MVO: All degrees from the University of Natal are internationally recognised.

Female voice: Its very important for my degrees to be recognised because I don't want to be undermined by anybody. *Another female voice*: Yeah, absolutely. You see, I have just finished my BA and I have been accepted to do my postgraduate in Oxford, I am very excited, I can't wait.

MVO: And if students would like to study abroad, the University of Natal offers a thriving student exchange programme.

Female voice: The experience is incredible, it really is. Going on these exchange programmes is brilliant because you get to the taste of other cultures and other worlds and there are a lot of international students and we are all going through it together.

FMO: The University of Natal (shoosh sound) giving you the power to succeed.

Male voice: Its good for me (laugher) I am serious, I am serious …

Appendix 3.3a

Cinema adverts

Starts with classical music as background throughout

Picture	Background and title
Alec Erwin 1983	Background: Books and mahogany furniture
	Title: Became Minister of Trade and Industry
Shamila Batohi 1981	Background: Baton, gun and handcuffs
	Title: Became Head of the Scorpions Special Investigations
Unit	
Miles Dally 1978	Background: Replica of a ship and family photos
	Title: Became Chairman of Robertsons Spices
Selby Baqwa 1974	Background: Bedside lamp, mini-statue of justice, two
	closed books, one open and a baton
	Title: Became South Africa's Public Protector
Mampele Rampele 1982	Background: Money, newspapers and other artifacts
	Title: Became Managing Director of the World Bank
	Cut to logo
	Title: Become someone.

Appendix 3.3b

Classical music as background

Picture	Background and title
Frank Mdlalose 1975	Newspapers – 'Weekly Telegraph' and some artifacts
	Became Ambassador to Egypt
Michelle Dougherty 1983	Open book with space pictures, pens, small-framed photo
	Became a Space Physicist and NASA investigator
Bobby Godsell 1974	Golden bowls and artifacts
	Became a Director of Anglo American
Fatima Meer 1947	Bedside lamp, old typewriter, a closed book
	Became a world renowned Human Rights Activist
Shaun Pollock 1993	Photos of different ages

	Became Captain of the South African Cricket Team
Logo	Cut to NU logo
Title	Become someone

Appendix 3.3c

FACULTY OF LAW CINEMA AD
May 2002

INTERNATIONAL RECOGITION

Picture	Title
Deon Govender LLB (Natal) 1995	Awarded Fullbright scholarship to Georgetown
Ayesha Dawood LLB (Natal) 1998	Awarded Fulbright scholarship to Harvard
Ndumiso Lance Luthuli LLB (Natal) 1999	Awarded Rhodes scholarship to Oxford
Jabu Thobela / Natalie Browne LLB (Natal) 2000	Commonwealth Moot Court Champions 1999 - 2001
Murray Wesson LLB (Natal) 2001	Awarded Rhodes scholarship to Oxford

Logo: Cut to University of Natal logo & title: Faculty of Law

Title: Become someone.

Appendix 3.3d

YOU

Picture	**Title**
Ross Garland LLB (Natal) 1997	Investment banker
George Koumantarakis LLB (Natal)	Striker – Bafana Bafana
Carlo Gonzaga	Founding MD - Scooters Pizza

LLB (Natal) 1998

| Thembisa Dingaan | Regional Vice-President, |
| LLB (Natal) 2000 | Citibank NA |

Another still life of picture frame that is empty.

Title: What will we say about you?

Logo: Cut to University of Natal logo & title: Faculty of Law

Title: Become someone.

Appendix 3.3e

Description: 'Maritzburg Campus Cinema

Date: 15 November 2001

Beautiful Campus

This commercial comprises beautiful imagery of the 'Maritzburg campus and surrounds. The entire length of the commercial is made up of flowing photography with pristine editing showing architectural exteriors, interiors, campus grounds, images that allude to university study and the campus environment etc.

The visual effect is one that gives a sense of stability, tradition, solidity and institution.

Throughout the beauty shots we only hear a soundtrack that is totally juxtaposed to the visuals. It's a massive party with music thumping, students having a fantastic time, laughter etc.

Cut to black screen:
University of Natal logo and title: **'Maritzburg**

Fade to new black screen with title:
Own the Town

Cut to black screen with **website** title.

Appendix 3.3 f

Description: 'Maritzburg Campus Cinema

Date: 15 November 2001

Old Man

Sunrise one morning we open on a typical 'Maritzburg street. An old man (76ish) gets out of his Valiant. He walks into a bakery. The woman behind the counter starts to talk to him, "Hello Mr Thatcher, I've got your fresh bread…", the old man looks up and the camera goes to his point of view (POV).

He is looking directly at the woman behind the counter as she continues to speak to him but all he can hear is "doef, doef, doef". He smiles and picks up the packet and walks out. The old man walks out into the early morning street that still hasn't woken up. He begins to cross the road looking left and right. We cut to old man's POV. Again all he's hearing is "doef, doef, doef".

He gets into his car, pulls off and stops at the traffic light. A trendy newspaper vendor approaches the car and talks to his in a very animated manner, trying to sell him a paper. The old man just looks at him and smiles. Again all he hears is "doef, doef, doef".

Cut to the old man driving down his road and pulling into his driveway. Camera pulls back to reveal the house the old man lives in and the house next door. The neighbouring house is obviously a student digs where a huge party is still going on from the night before. There are students still partying inside and the music is blasting out – doef, doef, doef.

Cut to black screen:

University of Natal logo and title: **'Maritzburg**

Fade to new black screen with title:

World class education

Fade up 2nd title:

<div align="center">By day</div>

On second title music blasts through and continues to the end

Cut to black screen with **website** title.

Appendix 3.4

INTERVIEW WITH DR ROSHEN KISHUN, DIRECTOR NU INTERNATIONAL AT
NU STUDENT UNION BUILDING – 17 OCTOBER, 2002

Tšiu: What is the profile of the potential student for NU, including the international
         student – how is it different from that of the national student, what does this
         means in terms of institutional restructuring?

Dr. Kishun: O.K., in the broad context, the University has identified this sort of
         geographic areas for particular focus, in terms of our strategic plan, SADC will be
         our first priority, rest of Africa and other parts of the world. Now, in terms of
         limited resources *et cetera* it is not so easy to interact with all parts of the world
         like, I think, one of the parts of the world that we have not done well is Latin
         America. Historically then SADC is important, Africa is important and but also in
         sort of colonial context you had the UK, you had some European countries and
         then you had the USA. There are different types of students that come to the
         University of Natal, some from SADC and some from Africa. SADC is mainly, is
         not like, you know, hundred percent, but mainly full-time undergraduate students
         who come here for full degrees. You know, they will do a degree in Engineering
         or whatever and of course there are some full time postgraduate students who
         come to do their degrees. Those students who come to us from the USA, they are
         mainly what we call study abroad students, so they come here for a semester and
         basically in the United States for example, there is a requirement, they go out for a
         semester to complete their study abroad requirement, so many of them choose to
         come to South Africa and particularly the University of Natal. The same with
         Europe. The European countries have … links are getting stronger like with
         Finland, with Sweden, with Norway and they want to send us more students and
         recently we had some visitors and they are planning to bring more than one
         student. Now then we have what is called the University of Natal student
         exchange programme. Now, that is very important for us – the reason that it is
         important is because it allows us to send a block of students abroad and the way it

works is, each one works on an agreement – it basically means that there is like a tuition waiver, its not really a waiver, the term is wrong because we pay the local fees, and then you go over and your fees are paid on that side but it depends on the agreement because it could include fee-related tuition, accommodation and sometimes a stipend to cover the living costs. And I think that it's a challenge because it is very expensive for our students. (Tšiu: Is it because of the foreign currency?). That's the challenge, many of our students are interested. You see there are additional costs, even if you have tuition *et cetera* you have to pay the airfares, you have to pay for the visas, you have to buy the food, you have to find some clothes, books you know. So by the time they take these things into account - USA, Europe and even some other country, its expensive. We try to assist those students who are on financial aid to go, so the traffic is not large. It is important for us to send South African students abroad and we try our best.

Tšiu: If the University of Natal is admitting foreign students does that mean it has to restructure itself or its programmes so that these programmes can fit into their needs?

Dr. Kishun: There is a little bit in a sense of restructuring but to a large extend the students will fit into our existing programmes and where it is necessary there may be adjustments made in ensuring that the student meets his or her requirements. But now those who come here for study abroad purposes they enrol NDP that means non-degree purposes, so we are not necessarily concerned about their academic qualifications, but of course that is important depending on their level of study. So when you go to third year we make sure that the exchange students have to go to the University for a certain time. Our exchange students going out, we ensure that whatever courses they take in host institutions will be courses that are more or less equivalent to what would they will be taking with us. Because another work that is being done in terms of syllabus, so the head of a school looks at syllabuses, looks at semester, I mean you cannot send a student for three weeks semesters, of course, to what we do as part of the year. Of course what we say we are not going to send out students away for a semester and when they come back

they don't get credit, so they must get credit there. But I think that is not a question of exact equivalences because if you really want to add what we call an international dimension to education its probably is to have an educational feel to other things and that's the whole idea, its not for you to go to a new location and try to cover the same syllabus, it doesn't make too much of a sense. So the idea is to get new ideas and learn new things, hopefully you will be a better individual.

Tšiu: Further on that one, I realise nowadays you are attracting a lot of African, like from Eritrea and other places. How does it impact the institution itself, how do you assist the students and how do you get into long term relationships with those countries?

Dr. Kishun: Eritrea, Rwanda, Burundi and those countries, are now looking to South Africa more and more, particularly Eritrea as you know. I will tell now how we come to have Eriterian students at the postgraduate level and that is under a sort of special agreement that we have and that is a very good relationship between the University of Asmara, for example and the University of Natal and other universities in South Africa, so there are of course other universities like Cape Town, Orange Free State and other places, but the University of Natal has the largest number of Eriterian students and another fifty are coming next year and we are now within a process to expedite that. There are challenges because students come and some without the English language and some of them would come without basic computer literary. So what the University has done, we have courses, I am sure you are aware of this, English language courses for international students at different levels, so if you don't speak totally you sort of start at the basic levels and progress and some of the stuff could be done in time allowed, that is while you are doing you mainstream in your programme. So we have gone out of our way to accommodate students – there are other challenges like the accommodation. There are cultural, social socio-cultural challenges because each country has different dynamics.

So Eritrea, for example, those students have come, I think to a large extend, from a very difficult background, they were in the army or the situation

like that, so we understand that, we have in-depth orientation for them, we have tried to identify individuals that we can talk to to keep open communication lines, it hasn't been that smooth, some of the students were not happy with some of the things but you know, its also a steep learning curve for us. Rwanda is interesting because the government of South Africa requires us to treat Rwandan students as local students, as SADC students, because of the historical context or because of some of the issues that they are faced. We are getting a visitor here from Rwanda on Monday. You see there is another thing that is happening that may be useful for you, its not just students that we are interacting with, its staff training. In this case in Rwanda, the Institute of Technology, they have a fairly large number of people who are teaching but who don't have the qualifications. So we gonna be helping them to look at this – its human resource development in Africa. I think that's a critical factor. The University of Natal is much aware. So its SADC and Nepad, both of these initiatives will require a massive, massive training in terms of human resources and skills in engineering or whatever and I am of the view that in the future very large numbers of African students will come to South African universities and particularly the universities that have open doors. It's a little bit of a challenge, I don't know whether we can accommodate all because its not gonna be easy and we are a very large university as we speak, as you know that the numbers are huge.

Tšiu: What can you say are the constraints concerning international students, what are the potential growth points, taking into consideration that NU has got cultural linkages with countries in the seaboard?

Dr: Kishun: I think the potential growth points, some countries like India and China, potentially, the challenge is that both those are huge countries and they probably know us in the sense of Nelson Mandela and they probably do not know us of the quality of education and that we have a good university so we have done some work there. We have been to various fairs and Deputy Vice-Chancellor, I don't know if you knew Ahmed Bawa, he went to China and he has been to India and I have been to India and we continue to interact. In other words we got to market,

to use that term that you probably use in your studies. In other words we gonna market the University of Natal but the key reason is that South Africa also needs highly skilled people and some of those countries could may be able to provide that type of people, but of course our primary aim is to attract students, postgraduates but those are sort of potential growth points but I think in terms of the study abroad short-term students, I think Europe is a growth point.

But just to come back on SADC we have one thousand, seven hundred and twenty-four international students at the University of Natal this year, right, I'll give you a number which is very interesting, you have Angola and you have the Democratic Republic of the Congo and they are sending about eight to twelve students to us right now. A very small number right, Lesotho sends three hundred and twenty-one students, now the peace initiatives in Angola and the DRC and of course the stability in Mozambique will mean that large numbers of students will come from these countries, I have no doubt about it and there is the question of language, language is a bit of a challenge but even in Mozambique and most of the people come to us can manage and if not we can provide the English language course and of course then as you mentioned earlier the other growth points are different other African countries – so Eritrea, Ethiopia, Burundi, Rwanda – those countries are suddenly looking at South Africa. Majority of our students, probably eighty percent of our international students are African both from SADC and from other African countries and the others are from Europe and particularly from Germany, Sweden, Finland and few countries like UK, like that.

Tšiu: What can you say is the role of institutional image or internal programme image that attracts these international students?

Dr. Kishun: The University of Natal promotes itself as the research institution, and that is very critical, because people need to feel that when they come here they get high level supervision et cetera. I think some of the staff, for example, your own Cultural and Media Studies, you probably find a lot of international students at the postgraduate level but in other programmes the University is probably number one. For example, HIV/AIDS is an issue and I am quite certain, you might have to

verify this with DVC (Research). We are probably a number one university in the country in terms of the research, at the Medical school there – there are sorts of programmes. There are sorts of other unique kind of programmes, so that is on the academic side. Culturally I think we are very diverse case, it sort of represents Africa in that sense as opposed to possibly Cape Town, which is very different, and Johannesburg, you know, that type of thing. And that is another contextual sort of thing, so we attract students.

And the way we promote our self is that the University of Natal has basic infrastructures like the International office, the International student support office, the executive supports it, we are putting in resources, there are services and then of course good quality programmes and good support programmes. So hopefully we'll continue to improve on these but our image is that we are good academically and very culturally diverse and many of the people particularly from the States (USA), from Europe, they are looking for diversity, because there is a problem in Europe, in Germany they are very homogenous and they are very concerned. And here we are sitting with cultural diversity and of course there are challenges as you walk around the campus you realise that people are sort of separate but that is something the University needs to address.

Tšiu: Basically, how do your office handle the communication with external students, and institutions and countries?

Dr. Kishun: We have, to start-of, we have large number of visitors who seek the University out and what we do is we obviously ensure that the visitors meet the right people, the right academics, they get to see the University and wherever possible they get to see the Vice-Chancellor. So those are who are coming in, so that is our job with Public Affairs, we ensure that they have a good feel in a sense. But secondly, we obviously produce literature, which I will give you copies of, you know. We attend international conferences, we attend international fairs, we have what we would call agents who work for the University of Natal, in other words, they promote the institution, they answer questions about the University, they provide basic information like application forms *et cetera*. There is a real

outreach programme and its limited in the sense, to go back to what I said, we are very particular to where we are going and so if you go into Kenya – we would project our image by ensuring that there's very good quality information and then after the meetings et cetera for us the important thing is the follow-up. We ensure that we answer the questions and people get to get the materials et cetera and there are people in this office who are designated to do various things.

Tšiu: One of the strategic areas is that the University has identified is that it is running short of top-calibre students. It wants to attract top calibre students. So how do you do it internationally?

Dr. Kishun: One of things and I think this is where we need to do a little bit more work. We don't provide like scholarships for top international students and I have always been saying to the University it is important that we do. So if you really want to attract, you know, attract top students, you say here is a scholarship, here is your tuition, your accommodation, you stay there and come to study, so that may be one strategy but generally, as you know, our initial requirements are pretty tough, so is not easy to get into the University. Particularly at the postgraduate level where you need to show the evidence of your background, your academic qualifications if you have done any research already, if you have been involved in other activities et cetera. So there is a very tough admission that in a sense is a way of saying that we are getting top students.

On the other hand we need to, you know, we need to be a little careful in terms of how we define the top students because in southern Africa the educational systems are very very stable and if you take Botswana for example the students go through five years of schooling and its very very good and they are probably better than our students in the sense that our students come from very very disadvantaged backgrounds where there are no laboratories et cetera in the schooling system. And I think that those students may not meet direct admissions requirements but we put them through, in some cases through, the UNITE programme or the science foundation programme and the idea there is to allow students with potential to come in, and our experience is that those students do very very well. I think you need to attract academically top students but you

also need to ensure that our admissions requirements and the matriculation board requirements doesn't exclude particularly African students. I think the context here is very simple, during the apartheid days the matriculation board, what was the joint matriculation board then, the idea was to keep the black students out, particularly the southern Africa students. Before 1990 most of our international students were actually white southern African from Mozambique, some from Angola, some from Zimbabwe, Rhodesia at that time. We are trying to change that, we are saying that we shouldn't make it difficult because right now for example if you're on government study here from Botswana you need to spend one year at the University of Botswana, which we think is ridiculous because those students are doing well and they are admitted all over the world right after school and we are saying to them look… So it's a question of balance, but I think we haven't had an in-depth study, but I would think that from the little information we have, our international students are very successful academically, they are doing very well.

Tšiu: You talk about South African higher education going for funding which is sort of a mixed mode where government pay FTEs and the University should provide the rest. How do university go about getting extra funding from non-governmental sources to run its own programmes?

Dr. Kishun: Are talking of international students?

Tšiu: Basically, the infrastructure is the same and all those things but even though the international students may pay fees as such but most of the programmes are paid for either by government or through other means, and this is one of the things that may make a difference in quality of the institution – attracting funding from outside.

Dr. Kishun: Let's talk about the fees because the government wants us to treat SADC students as local students which means they are subsidised, SADC students, so in terms of the government policy which they are still trying to finalise, SADC students will be local and will still be subsidised. Then all postgraduate students will continue to be subsidised, so it doesn't matter where you come from. Now,

undergraduate students from outside SADC, we charge on dollar fees. We charge four hundred US dollars, that is tuition, so clearly there is some income there and anybody who come from outside of Africa at the undergraduate level pay six hundred US dollars per module. So if it is three module, it will be three times six. Then we charge a levy of six hundred rands per semester to all students and that levy, say if we send a package of material like this to a student say in Zimbabwe it probably cost you hundred rand/hundred and fifty rand postage.

So what we are saying, its not good for local students, in a sense to additionally subsidise international students, so we try to generate income but there is no other income as such but the thing is international students are not eligible to a large extend for loans, they do not necessarily get bursaries, they are full paying students, so in that sense majority of our students, as you know, get some type of financial aid or a scholarship or they take a loan – its not easy for them to find the money but that certainly is a challenge and the University of course is saying to us you have certainly set-up all structures, you have staff, you have office space and who is paying for it. So that certainly is one way of generating some income but I think in historic context South Africa always has an obligation in southern Africa, there is no doubt about it. I mean, you know the previous government destroyed thousands of schools et cetera, you know the history, so we have to do something to put something back.

Tšiu: Having talked about international students, there's this concept of globalisation which is a real factor in education, how do you think it is affecting the University of Natal in particular?

Dr. Kishun: I think it is affecting the University of Natal in very significant ways. And I think, I will make a couple of comments here. Globalisation, depending on how you define it, you and I will accept that it is a controversial term. Globalisation is something that is inevitable in a sense it gonna happen, in other words the value of the rand is gonna be impacted when something happens in Argentina or in Zimbabwe or the president says something and these are factors over which we have zero control. So what we are saying and I think what my message to the

University of Natal is, you must be able to internationalise in the global context, in other worlds, internationalisation is something, I think I mention that in my paper to some extend, is that its something over which you may have a bit of control, in other words the University will say we got to get students from SADC, we gonna recruit students from here, these are the numbers we gonna take, you know, postgraduate students, there is some sort of control. As opposed to globalisation over which we may not have too much of control but on the other hand our students need what you might call global competence, so we need to know how the world works, how the economy of the world works, how trade takes place, how we are being exploited, in a different context, if your students are not globally competent, that's number one. Number two would be, to be globally competent you also need to be globally cultural sensitive. If we train an engineer at the University of Natal and fine, he's got a certificate, the question is can that person operate in Japan. So there is a question of cultural stuff which will include something like languages, so, I don't think we are doing sufficiently, even though we may be producing some very good graduate fitting to the UK, Canada but then they are leaving the country and that's another question which is another side of global competence, do we train people to deal with the real issue in something other than our backyard. We have the backyard, you see poverty, or do we train people to such an extend that they fit in so easily in the UK, you know, as medical doctors. I think, let me say something else. That, at the moment South Africa does not have what we call international or a national policy for internationalisation. I think we need that and I will tell you why we need that, because this whole thing, you talk about the market and all, we need to project an image in the world but we can't do it as the University of Natal, its too big.

The British have British Council, which goes and sells their educational system, what we are expected to do it on our own go to the world, with zero support from government, zero support from the Department of Education, Trade and Industry, or Foreign Affairs or Home Affairs or Health. So we are proposing, and I am not sure if you are aware of the International Education Association of South Africa and that's an organisation that's where all members are, so we are

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proposing to South African universities, Vice-Chancellors' association and others and I gonna meet them soon, is that, we must come up like with a White Paper on development of a national policy for internationalisation and that will then, we could then work as a tertiary education sector to market our products, to create an image, to do the advertising if you want to attract students from different parts of the world. And we also need, I don't know how useful this would be, but to large extend the Department of Education, for example is involved in all sorts of agreements like they are signing bilateral agreements, it has been signed with Algeria. And we have a bilateral commission with USA, with Germany, with India and Algeria and a couple of other countries which I'm not fully aware of, and now, we the tertiary education sector needs to be part of that, they do not talk to us, they don't communicate with us and they just say here's a binational commission and we have agreed to provide places for students from this country to come and study in South Africa. We need to be part of that.

Tšiu: Which means that as institutions you could sort of fit in niche areas like maybe Natal in sugar industries or similar areas?

Dr. Kishun: Absolutely, because we are not like looking for thousands of international students. People must figure that, like somebody came from China and said they want to send two hundred students. We said no no we don't do that, its too traumatic and we don't have the expertise, we don't know the qualifications, there are other issues like accommodation, exactly what you said, we have a niche market, so we say we have excellent engineering faculty, instead, bring ten or twelve students and you know, we will provide you with good support services and good academic work. And it has to be managed nationally as opposed to people just going to universities and we have had some bad experiences where, you know, hundreds of students have landed in some institutions and will be sleeping in the streets.

Tšiu: Finally, on the globalisation, if you have an idea about the internal market, is as if the top category of rich people which are white South Africans are moving abroad

for studies, to institutions abroad other than considering institutions in South Africa?

Dr. Kishun: I think it's happening in a much obviously wider scale than not just whites who are leaving to study. Many of them would go and study because it may be historical because of their grandfathers, somebody et cetera studied there. And I think that, in the international context we talk about brain exchange as opposed to brain drain, and I say that, you see, when you could talk about brain exchange, what we need to do is as much as people are leaving South Africa, there are lots of people in the world, really competent people who want to come, but our immigration laws are not friendly even when we have a new immigration law and it's much better than it was in the past, we can attract people because we have a lovely country, we have a good climate et cetera, et cetera, that are huge assets but we haven't exploited that. So we also say students come here and also as long as they are not displacing a local student in terms of …um, the university itself but let's say, if you need a job, you know, you are not taking a job from locals, one country gives it to them because, you see, all these people who are leaving we can replace them, so I am personally not particularly worried except that we need to manage it. We need to get skilled people and of course the whole question of how they then give opportunities to other people in terms of training, that type of thing.

Let me, one are that may be you need to look at is World Trade Organisation and GATS. I think you might want to do some homework there because in GATS, yeah, education, is one of the twelve service categories. And GATS will have some impact for example, the Australian university, Monash has a campus now, as you know. So GATS is something, for example if we have a national policy on internationalisation may be we have a reaction to GATS nationally because as an institution we cannot react to GATS, it is Foreign Affairs business. So I am particularly worried about that because if they define education as a service and then they impose things on us, you know, the whole private sort of private sector here is already … So that's an area that I think may be particularly be useful it seems to me and there is a whole lot of literature on that.

Tšiu: Thank you so very much, Dr. Kishun.

Appendix 3.5

INTERVIEW WITH ANN DRUCE EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
OCTARINE COMMUNICATIONS AT MUSGRAVE MALL 24 OCTOBER 2002

(Due to the tight schedule of the interviewee during the time when the interview was scheduled, we had to settle for an hour in between her meetings. Notes were used instead of tape recording due to nature of the place).

Tšiu: What was your brief for the Phase 2 NU media campaign?

Druce: We were basically continuing on the corporate branding of the University but this time to position it as a platform of excellence. We wanted to keep a single-minded message, that is, no matter where your talents and interests lie, the University of Natal will help secure your future. Despite the pressure to 'sell' specific courses, we felt we had to continue on brand image, which conveys the message that educational excellence remains unchanged. We had to keep consistency of message. The slight exceptions were the opportunity to advertise specific areas of the University, the Pietermaritzburg campus and the Howard College School but even here we had to build a consistent image of the University, although creative executions may differ. We were also aware of creative wear out. Although formal research has not been conducted, there is consensus that the cinema commercial and radio ads have not been over-exposed, and should be continued. The print ads are viewed as having worn out and a new concept is required.

Tšiu: What types of media are used and why?

Druce: Over the past three years, a mix of radio and print has been used. Outdoor, using the Adopt A Light medium was introduced in late 2000 and cinema was added to the mix in July 2001. Also introduced in 2001 was a direct campaign to students. It was a pilot campaign comprised of a series of personal communications to a selected group of top school learners. Radio has been used to create awareness to the specific benefits of the University of Natal. The existing campaign has been well accepted among the learners and research is currently underway to ensure

acceptance by parents. Originally we had one message for both groups but felt that the needs of these audiences differ. We are targeting students specifically as they are the decision-makers when it comes to choosing a university. Parents only act as 'gatekeepers', they may say I cannot afford to send you there. We still have an opportunity for brief interviews of staff and senior students at East Coast Radio. This will provide an opportunity to highlight successes or opportunities with the various faculties. We are using 5FM for limited national coverage especially the 'Fanta World Chart Show', which is a weekly programme with a significant listernership in terms of both numbers and loyalty.

We are continuing with cinema advertising even though it is a bit elite and urban but it is most popular with our target market. We hope to include cinema advertising in Gauteng area, as well as increasing its frequency in KZN. This campaign will work in tandem with the Pietermaritzburg campaign, building the image of the University as a whole. The successes of the Law School are indicative of excellence, which the University wishes to communicate. The campaign is focusing on excellence rather than present a 'product offering'.

We are using the press on a tightly targeted basis using specific issues and features. While demographic profiles on newspapers indicate a strong readership of newspapers by the target market, qualitative research indicates that readership is of poor quality. Student read those sections of the paper that appeals to them. We have tried using school magazines but advertising in school magazines is difficult to evaluate. There is limited wastage and a relatively high retention level. This, together with the development of the direct campaign, supports the use of school magazines.

Tšiu: What were the target groups and the campaign objectives?

Druce: The campaign originally targeted both school leavers and their parents, but we have found out that learners normally make decision in two or three years before leaving school. The target has been the KZN but has been broadened geographically in 2002 to include Gauteng and the Eastern Cape. The University of Natal should be seen as a national institution competitive with major universities in other regions. There has been an increasing focus on 'top students'

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as it is felt that an increase in simple numbers of applications is insufficient. Our demographics are males and females, 'black', 'Indian' and 'white' in Grades 11 and 12 as well as parents.

Many of these students know little about the differentiating factors between the universities, but will form an opinion over the last two or three years of their school career. A range of factors will guide their choice of institution, but the lure of a top quality education is significant. Their perception of the ability of the University of Natal to deliver against this need is therefore critical. They know they want to study at university, and although many are still uncertain of what to study, they are confident that their results will allow them to achieve this. Our objective was to position the University as an institution, which these students could choose.

Tšiu: Let's discuss the budget.

Druce: We are working on very tight budget as the figures indicate. We had to cut down on press space. The market has become increasing competitive, with universities such UCT, Wits and RAU all increasing their marketing spend and including TV in their mix. We had one million in phase one and now it is R1410000.