Critical Marketing:

A Systematic Literature Review

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Abstract

This research undertakes a systematic review of critical marketing literature in order to generate meaningful conclusions on the state of the existing body of critical marketing scholarship. The aim of the research is present a comprehensive synthesis of the current literature, revealing any systemic biases and limitations in the way critical marketing scholarship is produced. The PRISMA structure acted as a guiding framework to ensure a transparent and methodical process was followed.

After all necessary exclusions were made, the sample revealed 54 eligible articles for the present study. Relevant data from each eligible article was extracted by the researcher after examination of the full-text article. Data regarding the year of publication, authorship characteristics, geographical location, paradigmatic stance, research method, and research topic was put into a centralised file for analysis. The aggregation of the data mined from each individual article revealed trends in the literature.

The findings showed a general increase in the existence of critical marketing publication-articles accepted into the study spanned from the year 1994 to 2015. In contrast to the suggestion of previous literature, 44% of articles were produced by an individual author and thus co-authorship and collaboration are not an overwhelming characteristic of the literature studied. Similarly, only 13% of articles were identified as exhibiting evidence of international collaboration between authors. A total of 102 authors contributed to the articles in the study, 63% of these identifying as male and 37% as female. A further breakdown revealed that of the articles produced by a single author, 84% were male and 15% female. Over half of the articles were authored by academics working in the United Kingdom, and marketing theory was found to the most common topic of focus of the articles.

The theoretical contribution of the study includes a heightened transparency of the characteristics behind the production of critical marketing literature, and the biases which exist. In terms of managerial implications, the study provides universities and peer-review journals alike with the impetus to improve equity amongst the opportunities of academic staff.
## Table of Contents

Acknowledgements ............................................................................................................. II  
Abstract ............................................................................................................................ III  
List of Tables ................................................................................................................... VII  
List of Figures ................................................................................................................ VII  
1 Introductory Chapter ........................................................................................................ 1  
   1.1 Introduction .................................................................................................................. 1  
   1.2 Research Background ............................................................................................... 1  
   1.3 Research Objectives ................................................................................................... 2  
   1.4 Research Methodology ............................................................................................. 3  
   1.5 Research Contributions ............................................................................................ 3  
      1.5.1 Theoretical Implications ....................................................................................... 3  
      1.5.2 Managerial Implications .................................................................................... 4  
   1.6 Thesis Outline ............................................................................................................ 4  
2 Literature Review ............................................................................................................ 6  
   2.1 What is (Traditional) Marketing? ............................................................................... 6  
   2.2 What is Critical (Social) Theory? ............................................................................... 11  
   2.3 What is Critical Marketing? ..................................................................................... 14  
      2.3.1 What is Not Critical Marketing? .......................................................................... 17  
      2.3.2 Macro Views of Consumption ............................................................................. 18  
      2.3.3 Critical Marketing as an Emancipatory Social Science ..................................... 18  
      2.3.4 Operational Reality of Business vs Long-Term Societal Vision ....................... 19  
      2.3.5 Schools of Thought Within Critical Marketing ................................................. 20  
   2.4 The Interdisciplinary Nature of Critical Marketing .................................................. 21  
   2.5 Dominant Social Paradigm ....................................................................................... 22  
   2.6 Ideology of Consumption and its other Pseudonyms .............................................. 24  
   2.7 Needs Manipulation ................................................................................................. 26  
   2.8 What Can Be Considered ‘Critical’ ........................................................................... 27  
      2.8.1 Critical as a Prefix ............................................................................................... 27  
      2.8.2 Is Social Marketing Inherently Critical? ............................................................... 28  
      2.8.3 Is Macromarketing Critical? ............................................................................... 31  
      2.8.4 Is Postmodern Marketing Critical? ..................................................................... 34  
      2.8.5 Consumer Culture Theory as Critical Scholarship ....................................... 35  

IV
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.8.6</td>
<td>The Politics of Knowledge Production</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>Chapter Summary</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Guiding Framework- PRISMA</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Database</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>Search Terms</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>Document Identification</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.1</td>
<td>Year of Publication</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.2</td>
<td>Journal articles</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>Document Eligibility Decisions and Exclusions</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>Classification Framework</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>Data Collection</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7.1</td>
<td>Characteristics of Citation</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7.2</td>
<td>Gender of Authors</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7.3</td>
<td>Industry of the Journal</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7.4</td>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7.5</td>
<td>Journal Rankings</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7.6</td>
<td>Paradigmatic Stance</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7.7</td>
<td>Research Method</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7.8</td>
<td>Research Topic</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>Chapter Summary</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Results and Discussion</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Results and Discussion</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.1</td>
<td>Year of Articles</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.2</td>
<td>Authorship characteristics</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.3</td>
<td>International Collaboration</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.4</td>
<td>Gender of Authors</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.5</td>
<td>Journal Outlets</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.6</td>
<td>Quality Assessments: SCImago Journal Rank</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.7</td>
<td>Quality Assessments: Academic Journal Guide 2015</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.8</td>
<td>University Affiliations</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.9</td>
<td>Research Approach</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1.10</td>
<td>Research Methods</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.1.11 Research Topic ........................................................................................................71
4.2 Summary of Research ....................................................................................................73
4.3 Research Implications ....................................................................................................74
  4.3.1 Theoretical Implications and Contributions ..............................................................74
  4.3.2 Managerial Implications ............................................................................................75
4.4 Research Limitations ......................................................................................................77
4.5 Directions for Future Research .......................................................................................78
Bibliography .........................................................................................................................80
Appendices ............................................................................................................................104
List of Tables

Table 2.2: Dholakia’s (2012) “summarisation based on Dholakia (1982), Perkins (2009), Tadajewski (Tadajewski, 2010a)” ................................................................. 41
Table 3.3: Literature review classification framework adapted from Burgess, Singh & Koroglu (2006)............................................................................. 48
Table 4.3: Collaboration Between Countries.................................................................................................................. 61
Table 4.4: Collaboration Between Universities............................................................................................................. 61
Table 4.7: Comparison of Gender Breakdown Between Journal Outlets................................................................. 63
Table 4.8: Journals Featuring Critical Marketing Literature.................................................................................. 64
Table 4.9: Classification of Disciplines of Journals................................................................................................. 65
Table 4.10: SCImago SJR Indicator Quartile............................................................................................................ 66
Table 4.11 AJG 2015 Journal Rank......................................................................................................................... 67
Table 4.12: Location of University Affiliation of Authors................................................................................... 68
Table 4.13: Paradigmatic Stance............................................................................................................................ 69
Table 4.14: Research Methods................................................................................................................................. 70
Table 4.15: Research topics........................................................................................................................................ 72

List of Figures

Figure 2.1: Arndt’s (1985) representation of the paradigms in marketing research........
Figure 3.1: PRISMA flow diagram informing the process of the present study (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, & Altman, 2009) ........................................................................................................... 41
Figure 3.2: PRISMA Framework Amended to Fit the Methodology Used in Current Study................................................................................................................................. 46
Figure 4.1: Articles Published...................................................................................................................................... 57
Figure 4.2: Number of Authors per Article............................................................................................................... 59
Figure 4.5: Gender of Authors of Critical Marketing Literature............................................................................ 62
Figure 4.6: Gender of Authors of Critical Marketing Literature Characterised by Sole Authorship................................................................................................................................. 63
1 Introductory Chapter

The focus of the present study is to undertake a systematic review of critical marketing literature, in order to generate meaningful conclusions on the state of the existing body of critical marketing (CM) scholarship. The study focusses on describing the characteristics of critical marketing journal articles.

1.1 Introduction

Marketing is an ever-present force in the world today. The inevitable sale of goods and services, the proliferation of consumerism by way of advertising and mass-marketing, the sustained enrolment of students in marketing-based qualifications, and the eventual dissemination of marketing discourse throughout greater society as a result of the above examples, secures marketing as a powerful economic, political and social presence (Hackley, 2003; Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008). Considering the enormity of the direct and indirect consequences of marketing’s collective activities, scholarship critiquing the manifestation of marketing thought is not prominent in the academic arena (Tadajewski, 2010c). Marketing publications and academics have “lagged... behind other management disciplines” in welcoming critical analysis (Saren, 2007, p. 13). The face of mainstream marketing literature exhibits a distinct North American ‘lean’, with voices and theories originating from the continent dominating the rhetoric (Dholakia, 2012). Historically, mainstream marketing academia and praxis has shunned critical approaches (Dholakia, 2012).

In light of this, it seems appropriate to put the studies of conventional marketing and critical marketing under a microscope, and to scrutinise the assumptions that pervade the disciplines. Limited research exists on the characterisation of critical marketing research. The present study lends itself to providing an original, and overdue, overview of critical marketing studies. The results provide impetus for theoretical and managerial analysis, and

1.2 Research Background

Critical marketing is far from a unified movement (Bradshaw & Firat, 2012). It is a conceptual cluster, including works that employ reflexive critique of ‘mainstream’ marketing theory and its practical implications (Burton, 2001; Gordon, 2011). Critical marketing has its
foundations in critical theory - a social theory that is heavily informed by Marxist analysis and deconstruction theory (Horkheimer, Adorno, & Noer, 2002). Alongside critical theory, critical marketing is also afforded influential contributions from fields such as philosophical ethics, sustainability, ethics, postmodernism, poststructuralism, sustainability and feminism (Brownlie, 2006; Catterall, Maclaran & Stevens, 2005). Critical marketing employs a macro-level unit of analysis aimed at describing micro-level human and consumer behaviour, and specifically the power dynamics which historically and iteratively caused this (Hackley, 2003; Healy, 2001). Much quantitative and qualitative research has been undertaken to determine the responses of consumers to various marketing questions, though arguably not enough attention has been afforded to exploring the extent to which these choices are conditioned by cultural climate and societal structures (Tadajewski & Firat, 2009).

The study of critical marketing highlights the influence that worldviews have on the production of research, in particular the entrenched axiology (set of values), ontology (assumptions about the nature of being), epistemology (the nature and scope of knowledge), and view of human nature (Tadajewski, 2014). These assumptions inherently colour the way we interpret our existence, and it must be openly acknowledged that it will also influence any academic endeavours. The general conclusion determined by the works of critical marketing scholars is that mainstream or current discourse should be transparent in that the ‘knowledge’ presented is contingent on cultural, geographic and historical context (Dholakia, Firat & Bagozzi, 1980; Horkheimer & Adorno, 1946). Thus, it would be unwise to uncritically subscribe to it. The ultimate aim of critique is to fuel positive social transformation, and this research looks to examine critical marketing’s contribution to constructive change (Leiss, 1978; Ozanne & Murray, 1995).

1.3 Research Objectives

Given the preceding contextualisation, this research document looks to meet the following research objective:

- Present a comprehensive synthesis of existing critical marketing journal articles

Further sub-objectives include:
- Generate insight on the self-reflexivity of critical marketing knowledge production (i.e. journals, CM publications and CM authors)
- Identify macro-level limitations and biases in the field of critical marketing and its published research
- Identify potential areas of further investigation and research

1.4 Research Methodology

The PRISMA structure is the guiding framework consulted through the process of the review, in order to encourage a systematic and transparent methodological process, free from bias. The framework provides trusted structure around the identification, screening, eligibility and inclusion of published research in the review (Moher et al., 2009). The search engine Scopus is used to generate search results of published journal articles on the subject of critical marketing; related search terms are used to ensure all relevant literature is captured.

After all necessary exclusions were made, the sample revealed 54 eligible articles for the present study. Relevant data from each eligible article was extracted by the researcher after examination of the full-text article. Data regarding the year of publication, authorship characteristics, geographical location, paradigmatic stance, research method, and research topic was put into a centralised file for later analysis. The aggregation of the data mined from each individual article provides a picture of the state of critical marketing literature and reveals trends and generalisations that can be made.

1.5 Research Contributions

It is anticipated that this research will have both theoretical and practical implications. The insights produced will offer further understanding of the production of critical marketing research and ways in which it can be improved upon.

1.5.1 Theoretical Implications

The theoretical contribution of the present study lies in the comprehensive and original overview of current critical marketing scholarship. It provides insight on the strength of the discipline’s own ability to exercise reflexivity, a concept close to critical marketing’s core.
The present study has provided the field with a heightened level of transparency in the characteristics behind the production of critical marketing literature.

This research has highlighted an area of study not previously examined by other scholars. It provides a base for developing future studies, examining in-depth the concepts that have been touched on and the trends that have been revealed as worthy of further attention. It is the hope of the researcher that the current study will lay the groundwork for an increase in reflexivity towards issues surrounding the process of knowledge production, in both mainstream and critical marketing circles.

1.5.2 Managerial Implications

This research provides critical marketing scholars and universities with further understanding of the subjectivities, and constructive processes, permeating the discipline. This provides opportunity for action towards rectifying any systemic biases. In terms of managerial implications, the study provides universities and peer-review journals alike with the impetus to improve equity amongst the opportunities of academic staff. The practical suggestions detailed later in the document include proactive approaches toward equitable representation of peer-review teams, meaningful forms of support for women in academia, and a review of career progression frameworks within universities.

1.6 Thesis Outline

This document consists of four chapters. The current chapter has introduced the research by familiarising the reader with any central themes, providing justification for the elected subject area, and highlighted the significance of the potential contributions to marketing scholarship.

Chapter Two, Literature Review, offers conceptualisations of ‘mainstream’ marketing, critical social theory, critical marketing. Relevant peripheral concerns such as the Dominant Social Paradigm (DSP, the significance of interdisciplinary research in this field, and politics of knowledge production are explored. The chapter provides a general overview of existing literature pertinent to the focus of the systematic review.
Chapter Three, Methodology, outlines the methods adopted for the systematic review. The PRISMA framework and procedures feature as a guiding principle in undertaking the review. The methodology is described in detail and in a transparent fashion, in conjunction with any roadblocks encountered by the researcher.

Lastly Chapter Four, Results and Discussion, offers findings of the research, generating conclusions and trends that the systematic review has revealed. Comparison of the findings with existing literature is deliberated. The discussion concludes with the presentation of research limitations, implications and contributions, and suggestions for future research are also provided.
2 Literature Review

This review of literature explores the many shapes that authors from various fields believe critical marketing to take. This section also examines the legitimacy of the claims of some sub-fields in their suggestion that a critical approach to marketing practice and theory is inherent in their field. This section does not draw any conclusions per se but rather presents the points at which various authors both converge and deviate from each other, and from established critical marketing thought.

2.1 What is (Traditional) Marketing?

“There is only one valid definition of business purpose: to create a customer...”

(Drucker, 1954, p. 7)

It is argued that the concept most fundamental to the moral foundation of the marketing concept is that of satisfying customer needs (Crane & Desmond, 2002; Kotler & Levy, 1969). In very broad terms, marketing refers to the activities carried out by an organisation that pertain to the exchange of value with customers. Where the line can (and cannot) be drawn is arguably arbitrary, but it can certainly be argued that the matter of value exchange is far reaching, and thus ‘marketing’ is a term that is all-encompassing. Silk (2006) said it best when simply stating that the practice of marketing requires an understanding of competitors and collaborators, with attention to capitalising on the firm’s innate capabilities to satisfy customers profitably. However, whilst the focal issue of marketing practice is the connection between goods and services and customers’ satisfaction, it could be argued that explorations of this assumption ought to also be a crucial element in academic research and marketing theory (Alvesson, 1994).

The American Marketing Association (AMA) exists as a professional organisation for marketing professionals, that describes itself as “leading the discussion on marketing excellence” (American Marketing Association, 2016a). The Association looks to provide relevant instruction to commercial marketers (through initiatives such as Best Versus Next Practices™), though also have influence in the academic sphere of marketing as they own and publish the Journal of Marketing, Journal of Marketing Research and the Journal of
Public Policy and Marketing (American Marketing Association, 2016a). The first official definition of marketing applied by the AMA was in 1935, and was untouched for fifty years until a revision was issued in 1985, with subsequent revisions again in 2004 and 2007. The evolution of the definitions, taken from Keefe’s article (2004) published in AMA’s Marketing News and from the current-day website, are as follows:

[1935] “(Marketing is) the performance of business activities that direct the flow of goods and services from producers to consumers.” (Keefe, 2004, p. 17)

[1985] “(Marketing is) the process of planning and executing the conception, pricing, promotion, and distribution of ideas, goods and services to create exchanges that satisfy individual and organizational objectives” (Keefe, 2004, p. 17)

[2004] “Marketing is an organizational function and a set of processes for creating, communicating and delivering value to customers and for managing customer relationships that benefit the organization and its stakeholders” (Keefe, 2004, p. 17)

[2007] “Marketing is the activity, set of institutions and processes for creating, communicating, delivering and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners and society at large” (American Marketing Association, 2016b, p. 1).

In 2007 AMA included an additional and separate definition of ‘marketing research’ and its function in influencing marketing activity:

“Marketing research is the function that links the consumer, customer, and public to the marketer through information--information used to identify and define marketing opportunities and problems; generate, refine, and evaluate marketing actions; monitor marketing performance; and improve understanding of marketing as a process. Marketing research specifies the information required to address these issues, designs the method for collecting information, manages and implements the data collection process, analyzes the results, and communicates the findings and their implications (American Marketing Association, 2016b, p. 1)

Of course, the AMA’s definition is not the authority on marketing practices, nor does its North American focus suggest that it is representative of all marketing activities. However, it is nonetheless an organisation with a considerable degree of influence, that provides
definitions that aim to describe the contemporary issues of concern to academics and professionals (Wilkie & Moore, 2006). It must be noted that whilst the definition can function as a ‘snapshot’ of the topical marketing issues of the time, it must not be viewed as insurance against unethical and uncritical behaviour. It has been suggested that the greater macro emphasis was a result of criticism in issues of the *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing*, and that the intention of the inclusion was largely symbolic in nature (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008).

Moorman (1987, p. 194) writes that marketing is “preoccupied” with outcomes in that it is results-oriented and uncritical in the application of marketing tools. With this fixation on outcomes, less attention is afforded to ethical conduct during the implementation process, and Moorman (1987) suggested that the move to the 1985 AMA definition was a step toward describing a system that would likely allow amoral techniques if yielding positive results to customers and organisations. The 2004 definition was more inclusive in describing the value chain that is encompassed by marketing activities, though not inclusive of the unintended consequences of these actions on the wider community or environment. The latest definition is the only revision that, implicitly or explicitly, references interest groups (i.e. society as a whole) outside the consumer-organisation bubble as relevant. It however does not make mention of the environment, other wildlife species, flora and fauna, nor of any other interest groups of which can be affected. Whilst professionals may be unlikely to be convinced of the significance of ‘official’ definitions and semantics (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008), there is meaningful debate in the academic sphere of marketing’s performative stance on theory.

Since the turn of the millennium, the academic sphere of marketing has become increasingly concerned with the gap between practice and theory, more specifically the weakening value and relevance of theories, frameworks and concepts (Mason, Kjellberg, & Hagberg, 2015). The ever increasing changes in technology, communication and social exchange present a challenge of unprecedented scale to existing literature, highlighting the static nature of much mainstream academic theory (Matthews & Thakkar, 2012). This has turned the attention of theorists who are now questioning the relationship between theory and practice in marketing. One of the conclusions of much debate has been that the current performative stance of theory contributes to the adaptation and implementation of
mainstream theory to real-world situation. It is suggested that well known and maintained concepts, when implemented in the commercial setting, restructure and reorganise the concept that it purports to describe (Nilsson & Helgesson, 2015). This also further suggests that it is not necessarily the validity or accuracy of a touted concept that results in its widespread reputation, but rather other factors that influence its dissemination and popularity. This phenomenon potentially testifies to a relatively loose link between theory and practice.

Traditionally, it has been understood that mainstream marketing theory is heavily influenced by the philosophical movement of logical empiricism (Arndt, 1985). This movement claims to have a scientific base by only viewing statements demonstrable by logic, empirical data or observation as cognitively meaningful (Saren, 2011). A focal element of empiricism is the belief that only objective, detached statements are worthy of subjective certification (Arndt, 1985). The earlier stages of the 20th century heralded in the popularity and prestige of the scientific method in marketing; its claim of being apolitical was seen as favourable by scholars. The AMA, for example, was touted as an organisation “dedicated to the use of science in marketing” (Coutant, 1936, p. 227). Similarly, the *Journal of Marketing* was heralded as the “unquestioned leading publication in scientific marketing” (Coutant, 1936, p. 227). Currently, the *Journal of Marketing*, in addition to the other peer-reviewed journals published by the AMA, are all awarded a SJR figure in the upper most quartile of all marketing journals included in the metric (SCImago Journal & Country Rank, 2016). Promoting the image of marketing as scientific, in this context, was a deliberate move to improve the status of marketing as a legitimate field of study (Tadajewski, 2014). Arndt’s (1985) work is an early example of a framework that attempts to define alternative philosophical, research orientations in mainstream marketing. He identifies four paradigms characterised by differing assumptions about the nature of marketing as a discipline and the study of marketing activities, as seen in Figure 2.1.

Arndt’s (1985) analysis argues that mainstream marketing limits itself to one orientation (logical empiricism), and that the result of that is an examination that is one-dimensional in nature. The philosophical and procedural limitations of traditional marketing research produces partial Justifications of behaviour, and by default neglects underlying socio-economic devices, relationships and structures (Saren, 2011). Authors have expressed that
an exclusive subscription to logical empiricism (sometimes called logical positivism) results in a “warped” conception of world dynamics (Tadajewski, 2010c, p. 786). They suggest that this paradigm progresses the performativity of marketing activities, and therefore encourages non-proximate environmental and societal concerns to the periphery (Dawson, 1980; Tadajewski, 2010c; Wilkie & Moore, 2006). In regards to earlier debate on the status of marketing as ‘scientific’, it has also been argued that the devotion to one paradigm, and the subsequent lack of critique, potentially makes marketing actually less scientific (Benton, 1985).

Paradigms and Metaphors in Marketing

![Figure 2.1: Arndt’s (1985) Representation of the Paradigms and Metaphors in Marketing Research.](image)

However, there has also been intellectual debate that is not dismissive of the paradigm of empiricism itself, and that believes it to be but one of the important tools in the metaphorical tool belt of academic analysis (Hartmann & Honneth, 2006; Tadajewski, 2010a, 2010c). Generally speaking, critical observers espouse the idea that all methods are inherently political; logical empiricism’s claim to objectivity is where the tension lies.
However, Tadajewski (2010a) disagrees with some prominent critical scholars (e.g. Arndt, 1985; Burton, 2001; Saren et al., 2007), in writing that logical empiricism still plays a role in critical marketing studies. Tadajewski (2010a) argues that the early works of logical empiricist scholars (largely the work of the Vienna Circle) were political, and that the dissemination of the general concept also was politically motivated, and that it was in fact the interpretation and adoption of it in the USA in the 50s and 60s where it began to be widely branded as apolitical. Tadajewski reflects that on examining the original intentions and orientations of logical empiricist movement, it is not necessarily in contrast with critical marketing.

2.2 What is Critical (Social) Theory?

It cannot be said that critical theory is a single, united theory (Bradshaw & Firat, 2012). The origins of critical social theory are informed by many streams of thought; the approach arguably stems from the works of early Marxian and neo-Marxist theorists associated with the Frankfurt School of Philosophy (Burton, 2001; Horkheimer et al., 2002). The establishment of critical social theory as a legitimate contribution to the sphere of sociology and political philosophy is largely credited to five Frankfurt theorists: Theodor Adorno, Herbert Marcuse, Max Horkheimer, Erich Fromm, and Walter Benjamin (Bradshaw & Firat, 2011; Tadajewski, 2010c; Tadajewski & Firat, 2009). These theoreticians were largely influenced by the works of Sigmund Freud and Karl Marx, though their works have also critiqued traditional Marxist analysis and resulted in a more refined variant of his work by incorporating other sociological and philosophical traditions- notably Deconstruction theory (Gordon, 2011). Habermas later proved influential by further analysing the study of power, knowledge and values within a communication context (Brooke, 2002; Gordon, 2011). The pioneering work of these men has resulted in a propensity for, even the academic sphere, to conflate ‘critical theory’ with the Frankfurt School of Critical Theory (Catterall, Maclaran & Stevens, 2002). However, it must be acknowledged that critical studies, and more particularly critical marketing studies as the focus of this work, is not limited to this paradigm (Burton, 2009; Catterall et al., 2002; Saren et al., 2007).

Fields of study that utilise and debate critical theory include, but are not limited to- socio-legal studies (Salter & Shaw, 1994), medicine (Waitzkin, 1989), policy research (Ozanne &
Murray, 1995), religious studies (Reed, 1995), sociology (Scambler, 1996), and history, politics and anthropology (Bronner, 1989). Furthermore, critical theory has contributed to a various range of theoretical perspectives, some of which include Consumer Culture Theory (CCT) (Thompson, Arnould, & Giesler, 2013), feminist studies (Catterall, Maclaran, & Stevens, 2005), humanist perspectives (Hirschman, 1986), postmodern thought (Firat & Dholakia, 2006), postmodern-communist thought (Cova, Maclaran, & Bradshaw, 2013), postcolonial contributions (Jack & Westwood, 2009), whiteness theory (Burton, 2009), and critical marketing studies (Tadajewski, 2010a). There is debate within the field between the significance of the variance of ‘critical’ and ‘radical’ self-classifications of scholarship; Dholakia (2009) claims a more comprehensive level of intellectual investigation from the latter whilst Tadajewski (2010c) believes the dispute over the two terms to be a disagreement purely at the level of semantics.

The unifying concern of critical theorists is that human freedom is controlled by hegemonic structures of power. Throughout the several schools of thought, the agreement is that to be critical means to foster a sense of reflection and questioning (Ardley, 2011). The critical element of theory comprises three inter-related themes:

- interpreting the ideological basis of social interactions
- interrogating positivist methodology in regards to the nature of knowledge, ‘truth’ and explanation, and
- the importance of self-reflexivity of the researcher and the linguistic basis of discourse (Burton, 2001).

Critical theory rejects positivist scientific attitudes to human nature and instead favours interpretive approaches to behaviour as contextualised in time and space (Burton, 2001).

Taking a neo-Marxist viewpoint (Agger, 1976), broadly speaking critical theory posits that social reality is organised by cultural, socio-economic, and biological influences, alongside power dynamics (Fromm, 1942; Horkheimer et al., 2002). Critical ideologies that describe the foundation of knowledge stress that knowledge is the function of the historical conditions under which it is constructed and that it is often articulated by current vested interests (Catterall et al., 2002). Critical thought accepts that social reality is socially
manufactured, but also acts under the assumption that singular consciousness is inevitably controlled by and submissive to conceptual superstructures (Tadajewski, 2010c). Critical thinkers work to query and expose these inequities in exchanges and to analyse the definitions of truth, science and objectivity (Horkheimer, 1993). The conclusive aim of critique, then and now, is to nurture positive social change (Marcuse, 1964).

In Horkheimer’s (1937) eyes, the purpose of critical theory is to examine existing reality, for example, to conclude that the method of industrial production and marketing does not benefit the majority but in fact a small proportion of individuals in positions of influence. This analysis (simplified for the purpose of this clarification) depicts the disparity of exchange relationships that form the ideological foundation of the capitalist world system. The value of this analysis is that it highlights that the system serves the profit interests of a minority, and that this continues to be reaffirmed by property relations (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008). Whilst Burton (2001) claims that the role of critical theory is to both critique contemporary society in addition to visualising new possibilities, this sentiment is not necessarily shared widely by other prominent authors (Catterall et al., 2002; Tadajewski, 2010c).

Calhoun (1995, p. 35) states that critical theory produces analysis in four distinct but related approaches:

1. a critical engagement with the theorist’s contemporary social world, recognising that the state of affairs does not exhaust all potential scenarios, and offering positive implications for social action;
2. a critical report of historical and cultural conditions (both social and personal) on which the theorist's own academic activity is constructed;
3. an iterative critical re-examination of the constructive categories and conceptual frameworks of the theorist's understanding, including the historical construction of those frameworks; and
4. a critical confrontation with other works of social explanation that recognises their strengths and weakness, but shows the understanding behind their blind spots and misunderstandings, and demonstrates the capacity to incorporate their insights on stronger foundations.
This framework provides a succinct summary for academics and students alike to query assumed truths, established conventions, and to recognise the relationships between knowledge and power (Catterall et al., 2002). This approach challenges objectivist ontological and epistemological assumptions with an interpretive slant. The notion that social reality and social relations are characterised by unanimity and unobstructed need fulfilment is confronted by philosophies that underscore and support revolt over power asymmetries (Alvesson, 1994). Theorists argue that social analysis should focus on breaking the hegemony of positivism and consensus oriented assumptions. It is imperative that alternative paradigms, along critical lines, be explored to ward against parochial thinking and the naturalisation of the current social reality (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). The overarching theme here is that to challenge the currently objectivistic role of science in simply ‘mirroring’ our reality, allows for the preparation of implications that adapt to social reality as opposed to actively and further constructing it (Alvesson, 1994).

2.3 What is Critical Marketing?

Critical marketing, just as critical theory, cannot be associated with one brand of critical thought. Today’s ‘critical marketing’ is to explicitly query hegemonic styles of thought, even if they originate from critical marketing scholars themselves (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008). It can be said that there is a general inclination for neo-Marxist and Marxian focussed perspectives, though a wide range of approaches alongside this are exhibited (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008). Historically, the dominant research praxis in North American, and accordingly mainstream, marketing thought has eschewed macro-level and critical approaches (Dholakia, 2012). Upon further examination it can be argued that we find that the innate reductionism in traditional marketing education can obscure underlying phenomena, not wholly observable when looking at partial sub-themes in marketing activities (Saren, 2011). Dholakia (2012, p. 2) aptly compares macro-level examinations to viewing the world from an orbiting satellite telescope, explaining that it is the only possible way to witness overarching “ideologies, obfuscations, manipulations, and mystifications playing out in the markets and consumptions contexts”.

Following in the footsteps of critical management studies, critical marketing research is characterised by methodological pluralism and theoretical pluralism, alongside a
commitment to ontological denaturalisation, epistemological reflexivity and a non-performative stance (Fournier & Grey, 2000; O’Shaughnessy & O’Shaughnessy, 2002; Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008). In brief, ontological denaturalisation in this context is concerned with ‘consumer society’ and the view that it is not a coincidental, nor inevitable, development, but rather an arrangement that can be reimagined (Fournier & Grey, 2000). Epistemological reflexivity supports an iterative process of recognising the foundations of knowledge and assumptions (Tadajewski, 2010a). Lastly, a non-performative stance describes the commitment to an expression of concepts that seeks to reduce any influence on the current state, or to avoid prescriptiveness (Tadajewski, 2010a). Table 2.2 provides a succinct, though not exhaustive, description of the domains of knowledge and wider aims of differing researchscapes.

### Philosophical Distinctions Across Researchscapes in Marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researchscape</th>
<th>Stream Characterisation</th>
<th>Domains (Types) of Knowledge</th>
<th>Philosophical Orientation</th>
<th>Wider Aims</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental-Technical</td>
<td>Very large mainstream</td>
<td>Reason, rationality, science</td>
<td>Positivist</td>
<td>Explanation, control, prediction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical-Interpretive</td>
<td>Smaller substream</td>
<td>Understanding, feelings, emotions</td>
<td>Hermeneutic</td>
<td>Interpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical-Radical</td>
<td>Still smaller off-stream or counterstream</td>
<td>Unmasking false beliefs (critique), creating alternatives (humanistic)</td>
<td>Open and eclectic</td>
<td>Emancipation, resistance, transformation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.2: Dholakia’s (2012) summarisation based on Dholakia (1982), Perkins (2009), Tadajewski (Tadajewski, 2010a)

Critical marketing can sometimes be equated to simply critiquing outcomes, when in fact the true expression of critical marketing involves a thorough analysis of all processes, often using ethnographic, historical, interpretivist, experiential, socio-political, semiotic methodologies and discourse analyses (Saren, 2011). Theoreticians and critical academics query a variety of issues relating to marketing, from its theoretical foundations to the practical implications and subsequent consequences. Saren (2011) provides an indication of the breadth of matters of interest to critical marketing scholars:

- Ideological premises and underlying assumptions of marketing theory and practice.
• Specific marketing activities and practices, for example- advertising, customer databases, product labelling, retail designscapes etc.
• Ethics, values, morality of marketing.
• Examining the relationship between theory and marketing practices- models and methods of analysis, role of academics, market research, consulting and marketers know-how
• Validity of marketing concepts and theories
• The effects of the marketing system: material and social waste, social inequity and exclusion, creation of false needs and ‘commodity fetishism’

On reviewing this list, one can see that the conventional sub-sections involved in marketing planning and practice (transport and logistics, consumer behaviour, market validation, B2B, services marketing, relationship marketing) do not necessarily encompass the dynamics and tension inherent in examples of power inequity, ethics, culture, and western consumerism for example. The critical marketing literature is axiologically grounded in the issue of power relations, with academics’ work largely revealing how real-world examples diverge from the way in which consumer sovereignty is discussed in theory (Adkins & Ozanne, 2005; Schwarzkopf, 2011; Tadajewski, 2010c). Other similar concepts that have been destabilised through critical marketing research include consumer choice (Schwarzkopf, 2010) and the marketing concept (Dixon, 1992). Critical theory and critical marketing studies have been influential in exposing inequalities in exchange relationships (Horkheimer, 1937), developing a critical theory of needs (Leiss, 1978), revealing the failure of conventional marketing to include humanist alternatives (Fromm, 1942), dissecting the role of advertising on collective social consciousness (Adorno, 1989), and generally offering critique of the scientific method and ‘truth’ (Habermas, 1990).

Critical marketing has been somewhat paralleled by the legitimisation also of the discipline of critical management studies, which garnered attention with Alvesson and Wilmott’s (1992), Critical Management Studies: An Introduction. The publication was seen by many in the field to have been the first to encourage a range of critical orientations under one label, and due to the subject field’s proximity to marketing it has been also influential in furthering the legitimacy of critical marketing (Fournier & Grey, 2000). Both critical management
studies and critical marketing has been influenced by varied streams of thought including philosophical ethics (Crane, 1997), feminism (Maclaran, Miller, Parsons, & Surman, 2009), postmodernism (Rolling, 2008), sustainability (Fuller, 1999) and discourse analysis (Brownlie & Saren, 1997).

Critical marketing questions the implied assumption of consumers’ free will underpinning the entire marketing concept—that of maximising consumers’ opportunities of more choice and acquisition as always favourable, of more is always “better” (Saren, 2011). Critical marketing views “better” forms of marketing theory and practice to refer to a more inclusive set of considerations, ultimately for the contribution of social good (Alvesson, 1994).

2.3.1 What is Not Critical Marketing?

The ‘reconstructionist’ movement of the 1960s sought to scrutinise marketing values in favour of social concerns and the general welfare of society (Arnold & Fisher, 1996). The study of modern critical marketing was seen to be ‘born’ with the consolidation of the reconstructionists as a somewhat homogeneous group of scholars, with the addition of further influence from the Frankfurt and Marxist scholars and their works. However, the reconstructionist movement alone did not advocate radical change in the relationship between marketing and society, and so is not awarded the ‘critical’ label by most commentators (Spratlen, 1972; Tadajewski, 2010c). Benton (1985) described an ‘ethical’ approach to marketing, as separate to the approaches defined as ‘traditional’ and ‘critical’. This ‘ethical’ approach subscribes to a macro-level of analysis, and also responds to criticism of humanistic approaches by recognising the rights of non-human members of the ecosystem. However, it inherently focusses on a future, sustainable brand of marketing and consumption, as opposed to the more distrustful view of marketing’s remedial value as critical marketing does (Tadajewski, 2010c). Thus, examples of critical marketing must not be confused with the relatively recent trends of sustainable marketing, ethical marketing, social marketing, corporate social responsibility or a triple bottom line approach. Aspects of these initiatives and explorations may be critical in nature, as discussed in a later stage of this literature review. However, they cannot be equated, prima facie.
2.3.2  Macro Views of Consumption

Marketing is arguably a ‘facilitator’ of consumerism (O’Shaughnessy & O’Shaughnessy, 2007), in that it has both conscious and indirect influence over the consumption choices of consumers. Historically, conventional marketing practices have largely focussed on micro exchanges between consumer and firm, with little work angled at marketing process at a societal level. Up until the 1980s, very little work existed that looked at the linkages between micro and macro concepts (Dholakia, Dholakia & Firat, 1983). An example of this is that marketing education is likely to speak of the effect of information load on decision-making behaviour, but not on the collective social processes that cause this information load. It is just as unlikely, for example, to find mainstream marketing practices that investigate power exchanges in a value chain in conjunction with larger political power relationships of which this may inevitably be a part of (Dholakia et al., 1983). Whilst the turn of the millennium brought more critical perspectives to light, the sentiment in mainstream marketing communication remains the same (Tadajewski, 2010a). Macro-level analyses of consumption (e.g. the use of consumption of private or public transportation, as explained by Firat (1977) aid in revealing how consumption patterns are influenced by interrelated choices made at the political level (e.g. lobbying from private industry interest groups), in terms of the level of production (i.e. choices on what to produce), distribution (i.e. where, and to whom, a product will be made available), information dissemination (i.e. which consumers are a priority), pricing (i.e. what level of profit is sought, amongst other factors) (Firat, 1977). Macro-analyses employ the investigation of social and cultural phenomena to establish determinants of individual psychology (Leiss, 1978), and thus are crucial to the school of critical theory in marketing.

2.3.3. Critical Marketing as an Emancipatory Social Science

Critical marketing has received criticism for being intellectualist and of little practical relevance in some spheres, whilst also being lauded as a very successful interdisciplinary social science in others (Alvesson, 1994). The possibility has been discussed of marketing becoming an independent behavioural science (Burton, 2001). It has been suggested that there is potential in this view, but that any progress towards establishing marketing as a legitimate social science has historically been hindered by the unattractiveness of marketing’s strong positivist methodological orientation to academics of other disciplines. In
the past, in a conference setting, it was noted that few marketing publications were being written from a sociological perspective (Tetreault, 1987). This is in distinction to consumer behaviours’ scholarly contribution, which has welcomed the incorporation of psychology theory since the 1970s due to the great congruity between psychologists and marketing academic in regards to research aims, purpose and philosophies of science (Mittelstaedt, 1990).

Wright (2006) outlined three defining tasks of an emancipatory social science. In brief, an emancipatory social science is a discipline that: (1) recognises the importance of systematic scientific knowledge, (2) as emancipatory identifies its central moral purpose as the creation of a condition conducive to a state of thriving social exchanges, and (3) implies that emancipation depends upon social transformation, as opposed to individual revolution. Wright (2006) sees the first task of an emancipatory social science as expanding a systematic critique of the current world system. The second is to envision feasible and sustainable alternatives, and the third is to always be aware of the impediments and dilemmas that transformation can face. According to Dholakia (2012), critical marketing will not achieve these tasks without moving beyond the disciplinary limits of marketing and conventional consumer research.

2.3.4 Operational Reality of Business vs Long-Term Societal Vision

One of the key limitations of mainstream marketing, as seen by critical theory, is the disconnect between operational firm goals and larger societal benefit. Organisational actors are “rarely faced directly with the consequences of their actions” (Desmond, 1998, p. 179). Ethical and sustainable marketing has been fervent in producing guidelines and normative frameworks for adaptation by private firms, but the discipline has also been noted that often pragmatic, company level objectives will be incongruent with any larger scale ethical guidelines (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008). The consideration of ethics may not necessarily be disregarded; it is the structure of human capital in private corporations (i.e. defined job responsibilities, lines of reporting, quotas and expected results) that inevitably directs outcome evaluations towards micro-level performances (Lacznia & Murphy, 2006). It is this prioritisation of techno-managerial interests that supports the prevailing structure of consumption. Marketing scholarship focussed on consumer behaviour solely when the
individual becomes a potential ‘buyer’ in an economic exchange serves to ignore larger socio-political factors at play, alongside uncritically reifying concepts such as ‘needs’, consumer sovereignty and choice (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008). Micro-level analyses are valuable in their own right, but it is clear that the current state of marketing practice would benefit from widening the scope to beyond the proximate concerns of the firm.

2.3.5 Schools of Thought Within Critical Marketing

As the study of marketing developed, two schools of thought outside the conventional model established themselves as genuine perspectives on the role of marketing and the potential to enhance welfare (Tadajewski, 2012b).

Developmental School

The assumption driving the development school model is that marketing systems in fact are sources of benefit in terms of economic development and societal well-being. The development school centres its efforts around questions of quality of life (QOL), specifically challenging the oft-used (in both the arena of international relations and at the domestic political level) measures of gross domestic product (GDP) and gross national product (GNP), supported by the neoliberal economic model of the West (Lee & Sirgy, 2004; Shultz, 2007).

Critical School

In contrast, the critical school of thought asserts that markets are inherently unable to promote sustainability, and that whilst some gains in terms of social wellbeing and welfare may result, these are in fact cursory. The dominant social paradigm parallels the markets and systems in which it exists, the principles of which do not produce an environment conducive to sustainable consumption (Mittelstaedt, Shultz, Kilbourne & Peterson, 2014). The Frankfurt School of thought finds its home within the critical school, the communal focus being on critiquing capitalism through the lens of anti-positivist sociology. Theoreticians associated with this school argued that seemingly apparent assumptions about society and its characteristics are shaped in fact by historical and social contexts and are not universal ‘truths’ (Ardley, 2011; Horkheimer & Adorno, 1946). This was a striking departure from classical economic theory which presumed the universality of its conceptual and theoretical deductions, as well as a strongly individualistic understanding of human behaviour (Tadajewski, 2014). The Frankfurt School of Philosophy, of which this study’s
definition of critical marketing is founded in, is motivated by emancipation. Emancipation in this sense, is understood to mean the liberation of individuals from social forces that dominate self-understanding and relationships with other societal concerns (Alvesson, 1994). Critical marketing has not been alone in its concern with emancipation, with other disciplinary areas including media, sociology and education studies (Garnham, 2000; Giddens, 1971; Misgeld, 1975). In saying this, there is a pessimism also attributed to the Frankfurt School in regards to the eventuation of said emancipation from a world so competitive and dominated by capitalism (Fromm, 1942; Tadajewski, 2010c). Adorno (1989) however is perhaps the exception of the Frankfurt scholars, exhibiting a more positive outlook on the status of modern human agency in his published research (Tadajewski, 2010c).

2.4 The Interdisciplinary Nature of Critical Marketing

It is well established that critical theory informs, and is informed by, many academic disciplines, movements, orientations, and paradigms (Bradshaw & Firat, 2012; Firat, 2009). The theory is that varied approaches to a singular issue will, by nature, be more critical than unquestioningly subscribing to one approach. In order to foster critical reflexivity, alternative perspectives such as post-structuralism, post-colonialism, post-modernism, feminism, humanistic perspectives, sustainability theory, amongst others, have been employed to supplement the quality of critique (Burton, 2001; Saren et al., 2007). The need for interdisciplinary research encourages collaboration between authors, both within the same and between different fields of study. Whilst natural sciences have long been associated closest with co-authorship (Cronin, 2001), a similar increase in instances of co-authorship of scholarly articles over the past century has been seen in management (Acedo, Barroso, Casanueva, & Galán, 2006), marketing (Brown, Chan & Lai, 2006), and other social sciences (Moody, 2004). Marketing literature between the years 1991-2000 in fact is characterised by co-authorship, with 76% of articles featuring more than one individual author (Brown et al., 2006).

The interdisciplinary nature of the discipline has exposed the importance of historical and social context, for the situation under analysis, the status of the inquirer, as well as the respective discipline they associate with. As a short example, the relationship between
feminism and marketing has seen many fluctuations in the last century. Second wave feminism was on the whole critical of marketing and consumption influence over the empowerment of women, and viewed the marketplace as a patriarchal system that overshadowed its redeeming qualities (Maclaran, 2012). Third wave feminism however celebrated the marketplace, and explored ways in which women could use the capitalist system to their own individual advantage, alongside also further welcoming interdisciplinary views itself (Maclaran, 2012). Second wave feminism criticised the soap operas targeted at housewives in the 1930s as being patronising and perpetuating the images of ‘female domesticity’. In contrast, third wave feminism’s approach has been to acknowledge such criticisms whilst also recognising that the soap operas provided much needed entertainment and fulfilment to housewives of the era, and that this should not be discounted (Lavin, 1995). The difference in judgement seen here provides an indication that consensus on consumption choices may not be achieved. The nature of the paradigm adopted, combined with the historical period examined, alongside the social and cultural context in which the inquirer is placed, will likely result in different conclusions (Parker, 1999). Critical theorists, particularly, should be aware of the importance of examining the roots of intersections and divergences, both between disciplines as well as within disciplines.

The advocates of interdisciplinary research in general and within the marketing discipline are plenty (Bradshaw & Firat, 2012; Burton, 2001; Firat, 1997; Saren, 2011; Saren et al., 2007), however it must also be noted that interdisciplinary research alone cannot categorically assure a more significant contribution to debates (Knights & Willmott, 1997). Whilst exploration across disciplinary borders has merit, there should be logic behind the marriage of disciplines or paradigms (Watson, 1997). However, there is undeniable agreement that some of the more “interesting” developments in marketing have been, and are to be, found at the borders with other disciplines rather than in the middle of an already saturated disciplinary sphere (Burton, 2001, p. 730; Zaltman, 1998).

2.5 Dominant Social Paradigm

The dominant social paradigm is a concept inherently at the core of critical marketing literature, as the term unifies the fragmented aspects of the culture that critical marketing actively critiques (Kilbourne, Beckmann, & Thelen, 2002). The term “dominant social
paradigm” (DSP) was coined by Pirages and Erlich (1974) although they did not provide a thorough conceptualisation of the construct. Milbrath (1984, p. 7) offers a definition, describing the DSP as “the values, metaphysical beliefs, institutions, habits, etc. that collectively provide social lenses through which individuals and groups interpret their social world”. Cotgrove’s (1982) interpretation suggests that a paradigm becomes dominant, not purely because it is upheld by the majority of the members of a society, but because it is supported by dominant interest groups who use it to validate and justify prevailing attitudes and institutions. It becomes the driving reasoning of such attitudes and has been compared to functioning as an ideology does (Tadajewski, 2014). Smith (1998) describes this manifestation as the hegemony of production.

Kilbourne has greatly contributed to discourse around marketing and its relationship to the DSP, in his work considers the DSP as the dominant form of interpretation engendered during the Enlightenment, informing both social and scientific analysis of the time (Kilbourne, 1987, 2004; Kilbourne et al., 2002). Kilbourne et al. (2002) propose that the DSP contains three dimensions- the policial, economic and technological. These form the socio-economic dimension of the DSP relevant to this enquiry. The technological dimension speaks to the idea that the problems that humans as a whole face are technological in nature, and that their resolutions therefore are also technological in nature (Rifkin, 1980). The economic dimension of the current dominant social paradigm is characterised by free markets, individualism and self-interest, all currently framed by neoliberal economics (Stiglitz, 2003). Similarly, the political dimension of the DSP centres on the rights of individuals and takes inspiration from the ‘father’ of classic liberalism, John Locke (Kilbourne et al., 2002).

In examining the core tenets of the marketing concept, we see that the basic principles of profitability, integrated business activities and customer satisfaction can each be derived from the components of the DSP as described (Kilbourne & Carlson, 2008). The described dimensions therefore outline a potential realm of conventional and possible answers to the problem of sustainable consumption. The literature of the critical school suggests that solutions that are outside of the dominant social paradigm will fail, although the dominant social paradigm itself does change (Tadajewski, 2014). The difference between the approaches of the two schools is exemplified in the approach that the development school
sees the solution of sustainability to achieved through gradual changes to the current market system, whilst contrastingly the critical school seeks to overthrow the dominant social paradigm and to solve the problem of sustainability through radical changes (Tadajewski, 2014). Whilst other approaches do exist from other disciplines (e.g. Hall, 2013a; Shove, 2010), it is these two approaches that are most relevant to the study of critical marketing (Tadajewski, 2010a).

When specifically referring to the dominant culture found amongst general social circles the DSP simply refers to society’s belief structure, the manner in which people perceive and interpret the functioning of the world in which they find themselves (Kilbourne, McDonagh, & Prothero, 1997). Central to the DSP in modern Western markets is the notion of an ‘ideology of consumption’- a faith in technology to prevent environmental catastrophe, support for liberal democracy, laissez-faire markets, defence of private property and minimal government intervention in economic matters (Kilbourne et al., 2002).

2.6 Ideology of Consumption and its other Pseudonyms

‘Ideology of consumption’ has been used further to refer to the phenomena where individuals base their evaluation of their quality of life on their ability to consume ever greater quantities of goods (Kilbourne et al., 1997). It refers to a culture that is consumerist in orientation. Related phenomena have been theorised and referred to as ‘consciousness industry’ (Kline & Leiss, 1978), ‘distraction factories’ (Kracauer, 1989), ‘culture industries’ (Horkheimer et al., 2002), ‘commodity fetishism’ (Marx & Engels, 1970) and ‘promotional culture’ (Lazarsfeld, 1941). The idea of ‘conspicuous consumption’ was coined first in the 19th century by Thomas Veblen (1899), where the term largely described the consumption decisions of the nouveau riche and their propensity to purchase goods and services as a symbol of their social position. Economists have also observed that in a developed society much consumption behaviour is influenced by the individual’s perceptions of positioning in society (Hirsch, 1977). Thus, as well as satisfying basic needs, consumption is also a system of differentiating oneself from others in terms of palate, status, and power (Alvesson, 1994). The related concept of mimetic rivalry partly explains the psychological drive behind satisfaction and relative consumption. Mimetic rivalry describes the effect that observing other people’s possessions has on an individual’s assessment of value. Asplund (as cited in
Alvesson, 1994) observed that individuals look to their ‘neighbours’ to influence their preferences and ‘needs’, and thus look to imitate to some degree. Certain goods accumulate their value from the fact of who owns them and that other people then want them.

An ideology of consumption is understood by Alvesson (1994) to be a result of:

- The positional character behind the consumption of an increasingly high fraction of goods and services
- The superficial character of an increasing proportion of consumption
- The bias and effect that marketing has on society as a whole i.e. the concept of consumption as a significant source of satisfaction becoming a reality through propagation, both explicitly and implicitly
- Advertising’s tendency to highlight people’s ‘imperfections’ in its discourse, leading to narcissistic anxieties

Alvesson sees an ideology of consumption as leading to larger scale social apathy. Lazarsfeld’s (1941, p.11) unique commentary drives home this point by directing the reader to a hypothetical situation inspired by reality:

“a large brewery [which] advertises its beer by showing a man disgustedly throwing aside a newspaper full of European war horrors while the caption says that, “In times like these the only place to find peace, strength, and courage is at your own fireside drinking beer”. What will be the result if symbols referring to such basic human wants as that for peace become falsified into expressions of private comfort and are rendered habitual to millions of magazine readers as merchandising slogans? Why should people settle their social problems by action and sacrifice if they can serve the same ends by drinking a new brand of beer? To the casual observer the advertisement is nothing but a more or less clever sales trick. From the aspect of a more critical analysis, it becomes a dangerous sign of what a promotional culture might end up with.”
Critical theory views excessive forms of consumption as playing an active role in ‘distorting’ collective consciousness, as counteracting radical and free thinking (Alvesson, 1994). It is this view that we see influence the existing critical marketing scholarship (Tadajewski, 2012b).

2.7 Needs Manipulation

A significant proportion of critical marketing literature has been dedicated to debating whether marketing concepts are accurately reflective of commercial reality (Tadajewski, 2010c), or whether they serve to confuse the masses and public policy attention away from managerial agendas and the marketing of pseudo-individuality (Benton, 1987). The literature looks at the relationship between consumer need and choice, and suggests there is embedded choicelessness in the marketplace. Further on from this, it is suggested that consumers are manipulated into wanting and spending money on consumer goods through surreptitious marketing devices and discourse (Tadajewski, 2010c). Kilbourne (1987) was influential in the discussion around ‘real’ and ‘false’ needs. Some scholars have since commented that it is too simplistic to suggest that the consumer is so easily manipulated by marketers (Tadajewski, 2010c). However, it has been noted that such saturated marketplace makes it challenging for consumers to assess which products truly meet their requirements (Tadajewski, 2010c), a concept also known as information overload (Eppler & Mengis, 2004).

Prior to the 1980s, much consumer behaviour research began with the assumption that consumers have a prior desire for the product used in the experiment/case study (e.g. a microwave), before proceeding to investigate brand selection decision making (Firat, 1987). This flaw in the methodology bypasses any attempts at determining the social construction of consumption patterns; the research jumped to investigating which specific brand of microwave was popular, without assessing whether consumers want to purchase a microwave in the first place (Ozanne & Murray, 1995). It does not explore the psychological root of wants or needs, a matter which the French scholar L. Albert noted in 1991 (as cited in Alvesson, 1994). He uses an example using innate biological needs and comparing them to the problem solving consumption patterns of individuals of differing nationalities, to showcase the effect of social surroundings on consumption behaviour and its subsequent influence on satisfaction. Albert writes of a (hypothetical) American wanting food and
wishing for french fries, needing clothes and wishing for a fancy suit, wanting esteem and buying a Rolls Royce. In comparison, a person from Bali it is suggested may satisfy hunger with a tropical pineapple, the need for clothes with a simple cloth, and the need for esteem with a collar of shells. This example is not intended to be taken literally, but rather provides an example of marketing and its power in manipulating the needs of individuals. It has been established that needs, to an unknown degree admittedly, are socially influenced (Firat, 1987; Ozanne & Murray, 1995).

This begs the question, what is marketing’s function in society (O’Shaughnessy & O’Shaughnessy, 2007, 2002)? Is it a marketer’s job to simply respond to (existing) consumer demands? Ideological position aside, is this how we currently see marketing functioning? How should marketing function within a society? These are questions that critical marketing seeks to provide at least partial answer to.

2.8 What Can Be Considered ‘Critical’

2.8.1 Critical as a Prefix

Increasingly, there has been a growth of both marketing and management scholars attaching the prefix critical to the sub-discipline they are active in, to denote a more critical analysis than is traditionally expected (Catterall et al., 2002). Examples include critical consumer research (Adkins & Ozanne, 2005; Belk, 1995), critical macromarketing (Firat, 1977), critical management studies (Alvesson & Willmott, 1992), critical social marketing (Dann, 2010) and critical public relations (l’Etang & Pieczka, 1996). Furthermore, there are critical analyses of marketing stemming from other disciplines, sociology and anthropology for example (Alvesson, 1994; Burton, 2001). In this case, the use of the prefix critical indicates that the author subscribes to a radical philosophy or theory that seeks to question the ideological assumptions typically associated with the discipline (Catterall et al., 2002). In its most general sense, the prefix refers to the evaluation of a body of rhetoric with the intention of finding points worthy of challenge (Tadajewski & Firat, 2009). For this reason, it must be understood that what is critical is bound to change with historical and institutional context, and so what is critical now may not forever stay critical in the eyes of current critical scholars. To further investigate this definitional transformation, a historical reading of past paradigms would be required, examination of the context surrounding how it initially
came to be ‘critically’ confronted, and how some of the, once critical, approaches gained prominence as the new and accepted paradigm (Tadajewski & Firat, 2009). The ‘new’ paradigm, of course, becomes the paradigm that becomes the target of critique now. It should be noted here that this view is referred to as a Kuhnian view (influenced by Thomas Kuhn) and has received significant criticism particularly from a social science perspective (Billig, 2003).

2.8.2 Is Social Marketing Inherently Critical?

The latter half of the 20th century brought ecological, societal and social concerns to the attention of marketing academia (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008). Kotler and Levy’s (1969) work focussing on broadening the consideration of marketing, beyond simply the traditional relationship of consumer and producer, became a seminal article in kick-starting a more comprehensive approach to marketing operations and academia. This ‘broadening’ of the marketing concept heralded the way for social marketing, as public awareness began to tilt towards acknowledging the detrimental effects of marketing activities on the environment and greater society (Andreasen, 1994; Kotler, 2005).

Social marketing has largely been portrayed in a positive light, both in mainstream media and historically in peer-reviewed publications (Dholakia & Dholakia, 2001). It has previously also been seen as a crucial part of many a critical marketing initiative (e.g. Hastings & Saren, 2003). Issues where social marketing have been commonly used to promote behaviour change include smoking (MacAskill, Stead, MacKintosh, & Hastings, 2002), nutrition (Nader et al., 1999), sustainability (McKenzie-Mohr, 2000), physical activity (Huhman et al., 2005), alcohol habits and abuse (Perry et al., 1996), and problem gambling (Powell & Tapp, 2009). However, it is not a field of study that should be allowed uncritical valorisation.

Social marketing has been defined as being concerned with the application of marketing techniques and knowledge to enhance social ends in addition to economic ends. It’s second focus is to analyse the social consequence of such marketing policies, events and results (Lazer & Kelley, 1973). The first, and most frequently cited, definition (Ross Gordon, 2011) is provided by Kotler and Zaltman (1971, p. 5) in their seminal contribution: “...social marketing includes the design, implementation and control of programmes calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning,
 pricing, communications, distribution and market research”. This definition has since been met with some critique; it has been suggested that the definition confuses ‘social marketing’ with ‘socially responsible marketing’ which looks to regulate commercial marketing practices to prevent negative externalities (Andreasen, 1994). In simpler terms, the end aim of a social marketing campaign is to encourage behavioural change (Hastings & Saren, 2003).

Earlier distinctions between marketing thought were categorised in to three strands (Arnold & Fisher, 1996):

- The apologists- these scholars favoured a narrow scope of concern for firms and marketers, viewing marketing as a positive influence on the economy and thus society (Arnold & Fisher, 1996; Luck, 1969).
- The social marketers- who believe that marketing should be applied to society as a whole and its use should be used to support social good and address social deficiencies (Arnold & Fisher, 1996; Hastings, 2007; Kotler & Zaltman, 1971).
- The reconstructionists (sometimes called deconstructionists (Dawson, 1969)) who are critical of marketing concepts and processes equally as they are critical of outcomes (Arnold & Fisher, 1996).

Whilst modern critical marketing has matured since the reconstructionists first emerged, it can be said that critical social marketers are somewhere in between the social marketers and critical marketers, with any overlap between the two fields otherwise being limited (Arnold & Fisher, 1996; Gordon 2011). However, in the periods during which the two sub-disciplines were still nascent the terms ‘social marketing’ and ‘critical marketing’ were often used interchangeably (Gordon, Hastings, McDermott & Siquier, 2012).

An important work critiquing social marketing’s practical implications comes in the form of Pfeiffer’s (2004) work, “Condom Social Marketing, Pentecostalism, and Structural Adjustment in Mozambique: A Clash of AIDS Prevention Messages”. The study describes the interrelationships between marketing campaigns undertaken by non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and structural adjustment programmes implemented by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF). His claims are that the majority of campaigns
are not driven to improve social welfare through behaviour change, but rather by economic efficiency. It has been a wide concern of academics that social marketing campaigns are seldom independently evaluated (Pfeiffer, 2004). In the specific case of condom social marketing for the purpose of AIDs prevention in Mozambique, Pfeiffer posits that the embrace of social marketing by NGOs can be traced to the promotion of laissez-faire economics and privatisation. The support of these economic policies has resulted in government’s rolling back spending on public services, leaving social marketing campaigns to fill the vacuum left behind (Pfeiffer, 2004). The popularity of such neoliberal ‘themed’ social marketing practices in the region of sub-Saharan Africa specifically is worthy of investigation through a post-colonialist and post-structuralist lens. Scholars have questioned whether social marketing can be simply seen as a neutral tool to support behaviour change when it has such ties to austere economic policies, with widespread debate prevalent in the field on this topic (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008). In contrast however, academics in support of social marketers assign culpability to the implementers of such programmes as opposed to accusing the theory itself of being immoral. Those in support of social marketing campaigns are of the view that the tools themselves can be used to aid communication for the benefit of the individual, or can also proliferate social abuse when misused (Lusch, Laczniak, & Murphy, 1980).

On review of the discussion around the strength of social critique inherent in social marketing, it would be expected of social marketers to exhibit a degree of self-reflexivity in relation to the assumptions and limitations of the sub-discipline (Brownlie, 2006). In addition to the debate, there is support for the notion that a large part of social marketing is to critically investigate the effects commercial marketing on the welfare of society (Ross Gordon et al., 2012), as supported by the philosophy of critical social theory. Whilst research to the contrary has recently emerged (Truong & Hall, 2013), the more common view is that social marketing is not critical in its absence of wider critique aimed at the dominant social paradigm (Kilbourne et al., 1997). Social marketing is seen to not be critical in its assertion that (social) marketing practices are part of the answer to the social problems seen throughout the world (Ross Gordon, 2011). This stance is in contention with the radical and revolutionary nature of the majority of critical marketing research (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008).
The answer to the critique of traditional social marketing’s lack of critical edge has come in the form of the development and legitimisation of the sub-discipline of critical social marketing. The introduction of a critical dimension, in terms of being transparent of the benefits and disadvantages social marketing can bring to its participants, has resulted in a fusion of the two sub-disciplines (Hastings & Saren, 2003). Dann (2010) proposed the definition of critical social marketing to be critical marketing research focussing on the impact that commercial marketing has upon society. This definition is extended to include involvement in aiding upstream efforts for change, in addition to informing the development of downstream social marketing interventions.

2.8.3 Is Macromarketing Critical?

Some macromarketing research is critical nature, but it cannot be categorically concluded that all macromarketing research is critical (Tadajewski, 2010c). The study of macromarketing examines the function of marketing systems and significant, corresponding social issues. The subject field is interested in investigating how marketing impacts on society and, in turn, how society affects the manifestation of marketing practices (Hunt, 1981). Two features characterise macromarketing (Wilkie & Moore, 2006); firstly, the scale of analysis differs to traditional marketing. Customarily, the individual consumer or firm is the central focus of both academic marketing theory and of the practical application of it, but the discipline of macromarketing uses the aggregate marketing system as the unit of analysis. The second identifier is concerned with the way in which marketing systems interact with society. This contrasts with traditional marketing thought, in which marketing is viewed through the lens of competitiveness between value chains. In summary, macromarketing is less concerned with the decisions of individual units and more involved in analysing the systemic effects of the aggregation of individuals and firms, each acting out of self-interest (Bartels & Jenkins, 1977).

Fisk’s (1967, p. 48) characterisation of markets as the “provisioning system of society” can be interpreted as a descriptive statement rather than a normative one, especially in light of Mittelstaedt, Kilbourne and Mittelstaedt’s (2006) argument that maximising benefits for some actors (consumer, firm, industry or other) can result in penalties for others. It is at this point that macromarketing begins to prioritise sustainability. Macromarketing asks the
question whether markets can achieve satisfactory provisioning outcomes for society without generating unsustainable consequences for others, including the marginalised and the environment.

**Macromarketing Theory**

Mittelstaedt, Kilbourne and Mittelstaedt (2006) provided a synthesis of current macromarketing research at the time of their review, ultimately establishing three key findings during this work. Their first, that markets are complex and composite systems. A second finding was that the heterogeneous nature of demand is inevitably reflected in the view of markets as a whole. Markets are independent of one another in terms of identifying characteristics. Lastly, that market actors produce externalities beyond their own boundaries, sometimes for better but often for worse. These collectively compose the general field of macromarketing, but are particularly significant to the understanding of sustainable consumption in aiding macro-level analysis.

**Markets as Complex Entities**

A system is the summation of intersecting units of analysis, whose interrelationships contribute to the function of the system as a whole (Hitchins, 1992). In regards to macromarketing, the actors of interest are markets and channels, specifically market structures trade flows. The members of the marketing systems within these trade flows can include, firms and their channel members, regulatory bodies, consumers and competitors. These members all in unique ways determine the failure or success of product offerings, and thus the health of a product is inevitably systemic, more so than the consequence of any individual consumer of firm.

To negotiate the problem of sustainability, the solutions must be understood in a systemic context. Many authors have asserted that any solution must be systemic in its approach, as opposed to simply viewing the market as an aggregation of individual actions, or it will certainly fail (Mittelstaedt & Kilbourne, 2008).

**Heterogeneity of Demand**

Following on from the impression of markets as complex systems, is the awareness that needs and wants differ between all units of analysis in the marketplace. In traditional and
micromarketing, heterogeneity offers a chance for profitability (through product differentiation) and also represents a problem to be managed (through segmentation) (J. D. Mittelstaedt & Kilbourne, 2008). Macromarketing however, is concerned with the reason for heterogeneity’s existence and the origin and reason for its proliferation. It is suggested that the precursors to heterogeneity are technological, geographic, political and cultural influences. Macromarketers use these factors to understand why consumption without regard for externalities exists at all. Macromarketers investigate whether it is the failure of political structures to enforce the real cost of products in their prices, whether it is the accessibility to cut-rate, one-use products, or whether cultural predilections for garish consumption are the reasons for unsustainable behaviour (Mittelstaedt & Kilbourne, 2008).

Externalities of Market Actors’ Activities

Externalities of production and consumption are a well-established concept in economic theory, and it is generally accepted that inevitably there are unintended consequences of actions taken (Cadeaux, 2000). Macromarketing however brings further richness to this existing notion by acknowledging that these effects can be felt in both aggregate and individual sense. It seems logical that markets, understood to be a network of political, economic and social relationships, will result in externalities felt by both actors and non-actors in an exchange. By definition, due to the fact that costs and benefits are excluded from the prices of goods and services, markets lean towards providing too many goods that result in negative externalities, and not enough of the goods that provide positive externalities. Macromarketing is an important part of this picture, as the centrality of its aim is to recognise, quantify and provide solutions to (negative) externalities (Klein, 1977). However, the realisation that interventions with the purpose of alleviating externalities can also yield their own set of externalities, must be considered when formulating said interventions. From a macromarketing perspective therefore, the solutions to our current unsustainable dominant social paradigm can only be considered at the systemic level.

Concluding Thoughts

The preceding review of published macromarketing research provides us with a summary of how macromarketing contributes to the study of critical marketing. Recent commentary suggests that macromarketing academics are more inclined to take a managerial
perspective than critical marketers, seeking to better business practice, or at least maximise it in the face of social criticism and trepidation over legal consequences (Böhm & Brei, 2008). Generally, macromarketers accept the capitalist and neoliberal system as contributing to the improvement of the standard of living of consumers (Kilbourne, 2004). This lack of critique aimed at the dominant social paradigm is not seen in critical marketing literature, and leads to an unequivocal contrast between critical marketing and macromarketing (Tadajewski & Firat, 2009).

Undoubtedly, elements of macromarketing are critical in nature (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008; Witkowski, 2005). A macro level perspective lends itself well to recognising systemic failures of a marketplace. However, macromarketing by definition seeks to describe the two-way interaction between marketing and society as opposed to necessarily critiquing or providing alternative solutions for future practitioners and academics (Hunt, 1981). It can be concluded that macromarketing is largely descriptive in the nature of its contribution. In contrast, critical marketing is seen to be more normative and revolutionary in critiquing the marketing place and any future alternatives (Tadajewski & Brownlie, 2008).

2.8.4 Is Postmodern Marketing Critical?

Postmodern marketing approaches have historically had difficulty coalescing due to their fragmented nature, in addition to the lack of coherency in terms of authors self-locating their work as *postmodern* (Brown, 1995). Postmodern research and critical marketing studies share a close intellectual lineage as some early critical marketing academic have later gone on to become influential figures in supporting postmodern interpretations of marketing (Tadajewski, 2010c). However, the two sub-fields do not always parallel each other. Nevertheless, postmodern perspectives in marketing have been influential to the study of critical marketing particularly in recognising the problematic nature of the dominance of logical empiricism in mainstream marketing literature (Morgan, 2003). Postmodern marketing has also been noted for its effective portrayal of satire, irony and parody in highlighting inequity (Maclaran et al., 2009). Early postmodern work (notably produced by Dholakia (1982) and Firat (1977)) has been lauded by critical marketing scholars for having a distinctly critical edge- the works largely discuss the market’s power in
structuring social relations and acknowledge that the market does not necessarily lead to
the emancipation of consumers (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995; Tadajewski, 2010c).

Tadajewski (2010c) criticises postmodern marketing’s approach in claiming that the
discipline itself should be exposed as the conservative cultural arm of capitalism and
globalisation. As a result, he suggests, postmodernist marketing scholarship incorrectly
assumes its global validity. The current work has been centred on relatively affluent,
industrialised countries and the postmodern critique does not adequately acknowledge that
postmodernisation between countries is highly uneven in space and over time (Therborn,
2007). Others have noted that postmodern work avoids sustained engagement with the
evolving manifestations of capitalism (Morgan, 2003), and the potential effect of this on
minorities (Migone, 2007). Furthermore, the arrival of Consumer Culture Theory (CCT) has
been perceived as ‘absorbing’ postmodern marketing in response to the limits of
postmodern marketing (Cova et al., 2013).

2.8.5 Consumer Culture Theory as Critical Scholarship

Arnould and Thompson (2005) introduced Consumer Culture Theory as an alternative to
postmodernist approaches to interpretive consumer research, in addition to addressing the
perceived shortcomings of humanist, relativist and post-positivist orientations. CCT, it is
argued, contributes to consumer research through highlighting the cultural dimensions of
consumption in a more unified approach. It refers to itself as a “family” of theoretical
perspectives with the aim of investigating the heterogeneous distribution of cultural
meanings, within the wider sociohistoric surrounding of globalisation and free-market
capitalism (Arnould & Thompson, 2005, p. 868).

However, critical marketers see CCT’s critical edge as weak, especially in considering the
works that preceded and influenced its formation (Ozanne & Murray, 1995; Tadajewski &
Firat, 2009). One of the key critiques is that CCT uncritically adheres to the view that
consumers subscribe to a path to success best achieved through following an ‘achievement
ideology’ (Tadajewski & Firat, 2009). This achievement ideology has links to the neoliberal
worldview on social policy as it holds that membership to reference groups (i.e. class,
gender) can be transcended to employ the use of consumption as a way of expressing
individuality. CCT holds consumer sovereignty as central to its approach, with little
consideration to the influence psychological manipulation from outside influences can have on a consumer’s ‘free will’ (Tadajewski & Firat, 2009).

2.8.6 The Politics of Knowledge Production

“As a human enterprise, peer review is inherently ideological” (Souder, 2011, p. 68)

The pressure on marketing academics to conform to mainstream marketing approaches is strong (Alvesson, 1994; Burton, 2001; Tadajewski, 2010c). An unfavourable view on the politics of article publishing came in the form of Ehrensal’s (1999), “Critical Management Studies and American Business School Culture: Or, How NOT to Get Tenure in One Easy Publication”, in which he suggests that publicly showing support for critical discourse amounts to “career suicide” (Burton, 2001, p. 725). The pressing obligation and hopes of academics looking to progress in their career directly relates to the suitability and status of research outputs, as perceived by the university at which the academic is employed. Academics are also motivated to further monitor their publication output as studies have shown academics’ salaries to be increasingly ties to the quality and quantity of research outputs they produce (Miller, Taylor, & Bedeian, 2011; Mittal, Feick, & Murshed, 2008). A related issue is the lower acceptance rate of critical marketing papers in popular marketing journals (Burton, 2001). It is argued that the further the research differs from conventional norms in marketing literature, the less likely it is to pass the peer-review for acceptance for publication (Burton, 2001). It was not until the 1980s that the Journal of Macromarketing appeared, providing critically inclined academics further opportunities by offering a journal dedicated to locating marketing theory in a greater historical and social context (Brownlie, Saren, Wensley, & Whittington, 1994). Consumption, Markets and Culture appeared in 1997, designed to be an interdisciplinary setting for academics from many disciplines to critique consumption culture (Tadajewski, 2010c). With two US-based journals now featuring in the marketing arena, Marketing Theory followed in 2000 to offer a UK-based outlet dedicated to the development of alternative perspectives on marketing theory (Burton, 2001). The conception of these publications suggests that critical discourse has become more widely accepted in the recent past. However, perhaps more importantly, it is the perceived status of these journals that directly impacts their contribution to a change in culture in marketing academia (Burton, 2001).
The narrow scope of mainstream marketing can be traced to past inadequacies of marketing education, with investigation of programmes providing little evidence of complete analysis of the marketing value chain. There is a distinct lack of a presence of wider social, political and moral issues in a standard marketing curriculum (Cadwallader, Atwong, & Lebard, 2013; Turnquist, Bialaszewski, & Franklin, 1991). An additional survey of marketing doctoral students undertaken in the 1990s exposed low levels of knowledge in these areas (Wilkie & Moore-Shay, 1997). It has also been noted that whilst discussion of marketing ethics in the curriculum presently is included by many educators, the coverage tends to focus on issues of individual morality and personal responsibility, as opposed to macro-level analysis of the strategic decisions of firms (Catterall et al., 2002). Breaches of ethical standards are represented as the “lapses of deviant individuals” (Catterall et al., 2002, p. 185). Ethical issues are not often framed within a broader institutional context (Freeman & Gilbert, 1992). It has been suggested that one reason hindering the support for a critical style of thinking in education in the latter part of the 20th century was the proliferation of the Ford and Carnegie reports (Gordon & Howell, 1959; Pierson, 1959) and the subsequent endorsement of logical empiricism by the Ford Foundation (Tadajewski, 2010a, 2010c).

Marketing has been plagued by bias towards research methods, with the evidence of fewer marketing history articles appearing in high ranked marketing journals due to the descriptive methods used, which are seen to be of a lower status compared to other more rigidly designed methods (Holden & Holden, 1998). Marketing’s aversion to phenomenological, ethnographic, humanistic or other qualitative perspectives (Lee, Saunders & Goulding, 2005) has resulted in a dominant paradigm within the discipline that “routinely ignores the human side of marketing activity” (Ardley, 2011, p. 628). Theory is not an objective technology but is reproduced by human agents (Ardley, 2011), by where research outputs are inevitably refracted through personal characteristics and self-interest (Kavanagh, 2014).

Issues have arisen with the peer-review system prevalent in the publication of journal articles, with claims that critique aimed at those with a particular vested interest in supporting the current DSP is only accepted to journal publications after its critical edge has been ‘blunted’, and radical views more or less discarded (Firat, 2012). In addition, both in critical and mainstream marketing scholarship, much of the attention is given to English-
speaking authors based in the UK and the US, with the voices coming from other countries unfortunately only gaining corresponding attention when published in ‘Western’ journals and conference proceedings in the English language (Skalen, Fougere, & Felleson, 2008). The boundaries on research publication, set either by established authorities or by accepted norms, has resulted in issues of under-representation of perspectives and backgrounds in academia (Tadajewski, 2014).

We have seen academics bring light to the topic of gender imbalance to a sub-discipline that prides itself on its egalitarian foundations. It has been claimed that the performance of masculine norms in critical marketing is accepted as the norm, just as in traditional marketing culture (Grey & Sinclair, 2006; Maclaran et al., 2009). The way in which papers are written, presented at conferences, and reviewed in screening for publishing, embodies a display of theoretical debate that resembles the primal “cockfighting” mentality (Knights, 2006, p. 712). The authoritative air of the performance, indicated through discourse that is associated with the male voice, can be used to devalue other theoretical voices (Grey & Sinclair, 2006; Søndergaard, 2005). Assessments of the way in which critical marketers on the whole conduct their work suggests that they are driven to critique other, more alternative views within the sub-discipline, but exhibit “an unwillingness to critically examine their own constructs” (Scott, 2012, p. 11). This only leads to the further submersing of radical opinion, and to further prop up the esteemed voices already at the front of the field. This trend is ironic of a sub-discipline with the general aim of subverting established norms and traditional recognition of authority, both de facto and de jure.

2.8 Conclusion

The literature presented in the preceding sections delivers an overview on the concepts that have contributed to the formation of critical marketing as a legitimate sub-field in its own right. A historical account has been valuable in understanding the foundations of critical marketing, whilst the discussion of additional theoretical contributions over the years stands to further clarify the scope of the sub-field. The existing literature establishes critical marketing’s espoused commitment to author collaboration, the benefits of interdisciplinary research, and egalitarian approach to representation in research. However, no research has been conducted on the actual state of critical marketing research in order to identify the
level of congruence with its espoused values. The current study seeks to produce meaningful conclusions in response to the literature gap on critical marketing’s approach to knowledge production.

2.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the defining features of critical marketing. The chapter first spoke on the constructs and concepts that make up the study of (mainstream) marketing theory. This was followed by an outline of critical marketing largest influence, that of critical social theory. The history of critical social theory was outlined and the major agreements and disagreements over the years within the theory were highlighted. These defining concepts were brought together to then discuss the sub-field of critical marketing, particularly its defining features and significance to marketing theory.

The second part of the chapter outlines other sub-fields of marketing, discussing individually the degree to which it is influenced by critical theory and thus the merit of including or excluding it from the current study. This was accompanied by discussion on other constructs relevant to the sub-field, notably the concepts of the dominant social paradigm, needs manipulation, and the ideology of consumption.
3 Methodology

The power of systematic literature reviews in providing statistically reliable conclusions has long been acknowledged in the field of medicine, where the use of systematic reviews are a requirement to prove the approach of evidence-based health care (Russell, Gold, Siegel, Daniels, & Weinstein, 1996). The accepted norms have been facilitated and developed by Cochrane (formerly known as the Cochrane Collaboration), an international, independent, non-profit organisation committed to organising medical research information (Booth, 2001; Sheldon & Chalmers, 1994). Some of the features of the Cochrane approach have been adopted in the social sciences, education, and commerce fields (Hemsley-Brown & Sharp, 2003). The approach has been closely considered to determine its suitability in the business and management fields. Research suggests that systematic reviews are useful in all arenas of academia, that they help develop a sound knowledge base by consolidating knowledge from a range of studies to reach meaningful conclusions (Tranfield, Denyer, & Smart, 2003).

A systematic review of research must be bias-free and transparent in its methodology. The general principles that should underpin all systematic reviews are as follows (EPPI - Centre, 2001):

1) **Systematic literature reviews are transparent about their conclusions and how they are arrived at.** This avoids misrepresentation of the body of literature as each piece of research is evaluated and its relevance and quality is made clear.

2) **A framework explains how the systematic review is to be conducted, at the start of the process.** This reduces bias as the procedure can then not be influenced by the characteristics of the literature.

3) **An exhaustive search will find all of the possible relevant research.** This further reduces bias as conclusions are not influenced simply by the research that is easiest to access.

4) **The findings of the research are synthesised.** This results in succinct and accessible conclusions on the good-quality research that is available on a topic. This is achieved by evaluating individual articles and amalgamating their results so that trends and conclusions about the direction of the research as a whole can be extrapolated.
3.1 Guiding Framework- PRISMA

Frameworks have been developed to suit certain characteristics of bodies of literature; a well-known example is the PICO framework, the acronym representing the four stages of identifying the problem, intervention, comparison and then outcome (Huang, Lin, & Demner-Fushman, 2006; Schardt, Adams, Owens, Keitz, & Fontelo, 2007).

The PRISMA 2009 Flow Diagram

Figure 3.1: PRISMA Flow Diagram Informing the Process of the Present Study (Moher et al., 2009).
The PICO framework is however best suited to studies of the efficacy of interventions, and in the context of examining existing critical marketing literature it is not appropriate to use this framework as the prevalence of theoretical and humanistic inspired research outweighs the presence of empirical studies of interventions. For this reason, the PRISMA framework has instead been chosen as the guiding standard of this systematic review. The development of the PRISMA framework began when in 1999, to address the fragmented approaches to the reporting of meta-analyses, a group of international collaborators developed a guiding report titled the Quality of Reporting of Meta-analyses (QUOROM) Statement. The QUOROM statement largely addressed the reporting of meta-analyses of randomised controlled trials (Moher et al., 1999). In 2009, the guideline was reorganised to include several other conceptual and practical improvements in the procedure of systematic reviews, and was renamed PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items of Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) (Moher et al., 1999). Figure 3.1 provides a simple run-through of the article inclusion process, from preliminary identification of relevant studies through to the final selection of applicable articles.

3.2 Database

The database used for the purpose of this assignment is Scopus, which claims to be the largest abstract and citation database of peer-reviewed literature i.e. scientific journals, books and conference proceedings (Scopus, n.d.). Article retrieval was undertaken via the search function on the Scopus website, employing appropriate search operators in order to ensure precise and relevant search results.

3.3 Search Terms

Selecting well-researched search terms was crucial as the input directly influences the quality of the search results that are returned. The search terms picked up peer-reviewed research within the database that featured the selected terms in the title, abstract or key words section. This was deemed appropriate as it was assumed that articles with critical marketing as an explicit influence in the analysis would likely feature the term in those sections that act as summaries of the document (i.e. title, abstract, key word). The term ‘critical marketing’ (without any operators) was initially searched in the Scopus database, returning 7518 search results published in the years running up to and including 2015. This
was deemed to be an impractical amount of documents to manually screen for relevance within the time constraints of this Masters project. A more efficient method of returning more relevant search results was to employ search operators, in this case quotation marks, to denote that only results containing the words “critical” and “marketing” in succession should be returned. The “critical marketing” term returned 102 documents, a much more feasible undertaking. However, in addition more search terms were added in order to capture all relevant literature.

Whilst conducting the narrative literature review for this document, the researcher took detailed notes of terms that may return relevant critical marketing literature when it came to the time of conducting the systematic literature review. The growing trend of using ‘critical’ as a prefix to the names of existing sub-fields of marketing has been recognised as a reliable way of signifying an approach that is influenced by critical theory, as opposed to the traditional approach otherwise associated with that sub-field (Adkins & Ozanne, 2005; Catterall et al., 2002; Dann, 2010; Firat, 1977). The existing literature suggests that other related sub-fields of marketing (e.g. social marketing, macromarketing, postmodern marketing) are not always critical in nature and thus they cannot be used synonymously with critical marketing (Brownlie, 2006; Migone, 2007; Morgan, 2003; Tadajewski, 2010c; Tadajewski & Firat, 2009). For this reason these terms were not used as search terms for this study. Only literature that is explicitly associated with, or that cites, critical theory as its guiding principle is included.

The search term included the terms critical marketing, critical social marketing, critical humanistic marketing, critical postmodern marketing, critical macromarketing, and critical political marketing. In addition, any articles containing “critical theory” and “marketing” in the relevant sections. This is ensure that any articles influenced by critical theory in their analysis of marketing thought or practice are captured in the results, but that have not self-labelled the literature as falling explicitly under the critical marketing umbrella.

The final search term input into Scopus’ search function was:
The choice of search terms was intended to ensure that all literature in the critical marketing field was identified, while focusing on the publications of greatest relevance to the initial research questions and to detect the ‘best evidence’ for the purposes of the review. This search term returned 159 document results at the time.

3.4 Document Identification

Of the 159 search results provided, further filters were applied to the documents in order to narrow down the sample to publications that would fit the focus of the current study. The filters applied were in reference to the date of publication and type of publication.

3.4.1 Year of Publication

The researcher intended the search results to return all existing critical marketing literature, and thus no ‘start’ date was applied to the results. However, to facilitate comparison in reporting it was decided that all articles published in 2016 were to be excluded. This meant that all articles published in the years preceding 2015, and including all those published in the year 2015, were included. As the final search was made early in 2016, it was decided to exclude the 3 articles published in the beginning of the current year. This provided us with complete and equal time periods (in the form of calendar years) to inform parts of the analysis.

3.4.2 Journal articles

The overarching research questions guiding this review prioritise scholarly journal papers reporting on critical marketing, and thus other types of publication were further excluded using the filtering option (i.e. book chapters, reviews, conference papers). The exclusion of ‘grey’ literature leaves a sample of journal articles that have all been subjected to an institutionally homogeneous method of peer-review. However, this is not to suggest that the review process of every journal or chosen reviewer would result in identical outcomes (Firat, 2012; Tadajewski, 2014). Studies have shown that less than half of studies presented
at conferences remain unpublished in peer-reviewed journals two years onwards, and that these studies differ systematically from the conference papers that proceed to be published in journals (Petticrew et al., 2008; Scherer, Langenberg, & von Elm, 2007). Specifically, conference studies not published are less likely to report statistically significant findings (Olson et al., 2002). This hinders the ability of a systematic review to provide complete syntheses of a body of evidence (Olson et al., 2002), and thus contributed to the researcher’s decision in eliminating non-journal publications from the present study.

There was further concern from the researcher on how inclusion of conference material may skew the results in terms of authorship and themes of study. A breakdown of the characteristics of authors of conference proceedings may over-represent academics that are able to secure funding to physically travel to conference destinations to present papers, on the assumption that applicants intend to verbally present if successful when writing a paper in application for a specific conference. For the mentioned reasons, the final decision was made to only include documents from the search term that had been published in a peer-reviewed journal. The final number of documents after applying the filters applying to year and type of publication was 91.

3.5 Document Eligibility Decisions and Exclusions

The next step in the systematic review process, as seen in Figure 3.2, was to manually screen articles by using the title, abstract and keywords as indication of the subject of the paper. Each article was scrutinised for its suitability to the focal concern of the review. A simple sentence was formulated to assist in the inclusion process, influenced by the research questions dictating the purpose of the study. The researcher screened each article of the 91 produced in the Scopus search and proceeded to include those that:

...employed aspects of critical theory in their analysis and/or discussion, aimed at marketing practice, theory, education or ethics.

Whilst strict adherence to the inclusion requirement was observed, in the instance that the title, abstract or key words were unclear of their intention, the researcher did not exclude the article at this preliminary stage of the process. The next step in the process would be to read the full text article, where the researcher would be able to identify the topic of the study with more confidence. During this initial eligibility screening, 32 articles were
excluded. Many of these articles were excluded as the topic of the study was not *critical marketing*, but rather the word *critical* was simply being used in its dictionary form as an adjective to describe marketing practices. An example of this was, “…market segmentation is a *critical marketing* activity of all companies”. This stage of the screening also eliminated three articles not written in the English language—two French articles and one German article. This exclusion criteria is an unfortunate unavoidability as the researcher is only fluent in the English language, and its significance is discussed in the limitations section further in the study. This stage of the process left the researcher with 59 articles to continue on with and further screen.

![Figure 3.2: PRISMA Framework Amended to Fit the Methodology Used in Current Study](image-url)
The last step in the screening process enlisted the researcher to read the full text of the studies to assess its relevance to the systematic review. Full reports for all titles that appeared to meet the inclusion criteria thus far in the investigation were obtained through the University of Canterbury’s institutional subscriptions to various databases and journals. Each research paper was subjected to a thorough review, resulting in 5 exclusions on the grounds of irrelevance. This was then followed by the use of a standard framework to extract key information about the article itself. Any confusion or uncertainty over eligibility was resolved through discussion with the researcher’s senior supervisor, with the intent of contacting the authors of articles if the confusion was to persist. This ensured that the decision over the inclusion of articles where the researcher felt tentative was safeguarded with the second opinion of the supervisor. The final number of articles included in the sample was 54. A full list of the in-text citations of the articles included in the sample is included in the appendices attached to this document, and the full citations included in the bibliography in the interest of transparency.

3.6 Classification Framework

The 11 dimensions along which the journal articles were assessed have been incorporated into a framework to classify them into larger groups and clarify the rationale behind their inclusion. Grouping 1 provides a descriptive analysis of the sample of articles sourced and is valuable in highlighting trends in the literature. Grouping 2 evaluates issues associated with research methodology and any preference in methods used. Grouping 3 seeks to provide insight into the topics that CM scholars have been lending their interest to. Classification systems can, and should, be challenged on the level of their comprehensiveness. This framework however, depicted in Table 3.3, aims to demonstrate the comprehensive approach undertaken by the study and to display the breadth of perspectives covered by the 11 dimensions. It provides a system of determining logical links to verify consistency (or lack thereof) amongst the research activities within critical marketing (Burgess et al., 2006).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grouping</th>
<th>Content covered</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Descriptive features of CM literature</td>
<td>Time distribution of publications</td>
<td>Describe characteristics of the sample of publications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Journal names</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Journal rankings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Journal special issues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Authorship characteristics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Level of collaboration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Industry classification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Geographical location of authors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Methodological issues</td>
<td>Paradigmatic stance</td>
<td>Determine the methodological assumptions present in current literature and the types of research methods prevalent in exploring CM literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Research methods</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Thematic trends</td>
<td>Research topic</td>
<td>Explore consistency or variation in topics of interest of CM scholars</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.3: Literature Review Classification Framework Adapted from Burgess, Singh & Koroglu (2006)

### 3.7 Data Collection

An excel spreadsheet was used to house a table where data from each article was input. To further clarify the content covered in the Table 3.3, the characteristics of the articles that were observed and recorded were year of publication, number of authors, breakdown of gender of authors, journal name, industry of journal, journal ranking (using SCImago Journal Rank and Chartered Association of Business Schools’ 2015 metrics), classification of journal as special issue, geographical location of author’s affiliation (country of university), presence of international collaboration, presence of intra-university collaboration, paradigmatic stance, research method (where applicable), and research topic. The criteria for some of the individual article characteristics recorded is now further clarified in the
interest of transparency and to demonstrate the systematic nature of the classification process.

3.7.1 Characteristics of Citation

The first page was useful in identifying any information needed for citation purposes, alongside any information taken for the purpose of the systematic review. These were largely straightforward and include year of publication, number of authors, journal, presence of a special issue, and the country of university affiliation of authors. These were recorded in the excel spreadsheet as they pertained to each individual article.

3.7.2 Gender of Authors

The gender of authors was classified by the gender usually associated with their given name. To encourage certainty, images of the author were sought to give further indication of the identity and presentation of gender. The researcher also took suggestion from the personal pronouns used in the biographical segment often found on the title page of articles, on university website profiles, and on websites showcasing the individual’s research interests (e.g. Researchgate). The researcher acknowledges this method is imperfect, as the most certain indicator of gender is to personally converse with the individual on the issue of the gender they self-identify with. However, for the purposes of the study the identification of the gender of authors was a relatively straightforward process.

3.7.3 Industry of the Journal

The journals in which the article was published were simply classified as either marketing based journals or non-marketing based journals. The researcher visited the website of each journal that featured in the present study, which was often housed within the website of the journal’s publisher. It was common for the journal to publish the vision and scope of the journal on the ‘About’ tab. If an explicit and key focus of the journal was the discussion of marketing theory, practice, education or ethics, the researcher classified the journal as a marketing based journal.

3.7.4 Collaboration

The articles were classified as either providing, or not providing, evidence of both international collaboration and also collaboration between universities. If an article was
authored by more than one scholar, and the scholars were affiliated with universities that
are housed in different countries, the journal was noted as exhibiting international
collaboration. A similar process was employed in regards to university collaboration—when a
co-authored article featured authors employed at separate universities, it was classified as
providing evidence of intra-university collaboration. All other instances were marked as not
exhibiting university or international collaboration.

3.7.5 Journal Rankings

3.7.5.1 SCImago Journal Rank Figure

Developed by Professor Félix de Moya, SCImago Journal Rank (SJR) is a prestige metric, with
the idea that ‘all citations are not created equal’ at its heart (Journal Metrics, 2007). The
formulation of the SJR metric reflects the SCImago’s philosophy that the quality, reputation
and subject field of a peer-reviewed journal inevitably effects the ‘value’ of a citation
(SCImago, 2007b). This method of computation represents the scientific impact of an article
as a function of not just the quantity of citations received, but rather that the quality of the
citation is just as inextricably linked (Guerrero-Bote & Moya-Anegón, 2012). SJR is an
indicator of scientific influence of academic journal articles that accounts for the number of
citations received by a journal, and the prestige of the journal from which these citations
are found. The calculation of the final prestige of a journal is an iterative process, in which
the status of a journal depends on the position of its related journals, by way of citations.
The figure is also adjusted for the differing average citation rates across disciplines
(Lundberg, 2007), with rates on average much lower in the areas of Social Sciences,
Humanities and Engineering (Lancho-Barrantes, Guerrero-Bote, & Moya-Anegón, 2010).

The formulation of the SJR figure is independent of the size of the journal, and was designed
for use with heterogeneous and complex citations networks such as Scopus (González-
Pereira, Guerrero-Bote, & Moya-Anegón, 2010). This systematic review exclusively employs
Scopus’ database for retrieving scholarly articles, and thus it has been deemed appropriate
that a metric be used that was developed in conjunction with the Scopus and Elsevier team.
The calculation of the SJR figure involves three stages (SCImago, 2007a):

1) Initial assignment of the SJ. In this preliminary stage a default prestige value is
assigned to every journal. The SJR is an iterative process, further developed on the values
assigned in the previous step, and this initial assignation tentatively begins the process. The methodology stresses that the initial value does not determine a final result, but may influence the number of iterations needed.

2) The iteration process of calculation. The computation is repeated to calculate the prestige of each journal based on the prestige ‘transferred’ by the other relevant journals. The process ends when the variation of the SJR between two iterations is less than a limit prefixed before the calculation process. The final result is the SJR of each journal, an indicator of the journal’s global prestige.

3) Computation of SJRQ. To obtain this figure, the SJR first must be divided by the number of articles published in the journal. The result is the prestige average per article, since logically the prestige obtained by a journal is the result of the prestige obtained by its articles. This figure allows for comparison between journals without having to account for other factors, e.g. frequency of journal publishing, imbalance in prestige between articles.

When the SJRs and SJRQs have all been finalised, the journals are ranked in the order of the ‘prestige’ figure ascribed to them. As the range of figures can be wide (e.g. the top ranked journals can be near the 7000 mark whilst the lower journals can be as low as 0.55), the variance of the figures can be somewhat misleading of the difference in quality when comparing journals. As a base of comparison, this review will use the quartiles of the journals’ ranks as an indicator for comparison. Those journals in the upper quartile of journals in its industry will be assigned ‘Q1’, those journals in the second quartile of journals in its industry will be assigned ‘Q2’, and so forth. The reader must be careful not to confuse Q1 of the SJR metric with the 4 or 4* star ranking of the AJG 2015. These are the highest ranking afforded in each respective metric system, however they somewhat confusingly run in opposite numerical values of ranking ascension.

In general it is accepted by the academic community that, whilst differing motivations certainly do occur and must be noted when discussing such matters (Brooks, 1985), citations signify recognition of previous academic work (Moed, 2006). The Impact Factor has been the prominent journal ranking metrics system for more than 40 years (Garfield, 2006), and was initially the first choice of metric for this review. However, the new research trend that has developed has been in favour of considering the influence of the institutions who issue
the citations, rather than simply using the raw number alone (Bergstrom, 2007; Ma, Guan, & Zhao, 2008). The advantage of SJR is that the raw data used in producing the figures that the quartiles are based on, adjusts for differences in the number of citations across subject areas. SJR was chosen over the more widely used impact factor metric of JCR for the purpose of this review. SJR also adjusts for the prestige of a journal however, which creates the opportunity for a self-perpetuating list of prestige journals that uphold their status alone by citing each other heavily.

3.7.5.2 Chartered Associations of Business Schools’ (CABS) Academic Journal Guide 2015

The Academic Journal Guide 2015 (AJG) was produced with the intention to serve the needs of the business and management research community (Chartered Association of Business Schools, 2015). The Guide classifies journals into four categories, with an additional ‘Journal of Distinction’ category which recognises the quality of those journals ranked as top class journal in “at least three out of five international listings consulted” (Chartered Association of Business Schools, 2015, p. 6).

The ratings are classified as follows (Chartered Association of Business Schools, 2015; adapted from Harvey, Kelly, Morris, & Rowlinson, 2010):

4* - Journals of Distinction. There is a limited number of grade 4 journals that are recognised world-wide as exemplars of excellence. Their high status is acknowledged by their inclusion in a number of well-regarded International Journal quality lists. The Guide usually rates a journal 4* if they are rated in the highest category by at least three out of the five non-university based listings- Financial Time, Dallas List, VHB, Australian Dean’s List, CNRS.

4- These journals publish the most original and best-executed research. These journals typically have high submission and low acceptance rates. Papers are heavily refereed. Top journals generally have the highest citation impact factors within their field.

3- These journals publish original and well executed research papers and are highly regarded in their discipline. These journals typically have good submission rates and are very selective in what they publish. Papers are heavily refereed. Highly regarded journals
generally have good to excellent journal metrics relative to others in their field, although at present not all journals in this category carry a citation Impact factor.

2- Journals in this category publish original research of an acceptable standard. Journals in this category are well regarded in their field. Papers are fully refereed according to accepted standards and conventions. Citation impact factors are somewhat more modest in certain cases. Many sound practitioner-related articles are published in 2-rated journals.

1- These journals, in general, publish research of a recognised but more modest standard in their field. Papers are in many instances refereed relatively lightly according to accepted conventions. Few journals in this category carry a citation impact factor.

Five sources of evidence are used to inform the rating provided in the Guide produced by the CABS (Chartered Association of Business Schools, 2015):

- Assessments of leading researchers in each main discipline and sub-discipline covered in the Guide
- The mean citation impact scores for the most recent five year period (if applicable)
- Evaluation by the Editors and Scientific Committee members of the quality standard, content, track records and processes of each journal included
- The number of times the journal was cited as a top journal in five lists take to be representative of the ‘world’ rating of business and management journals
- The length of time a journal has been established. Newly established journals, as well as previously established journals not covered in previous editions of the ABS Guide, enter the current Guide with a maximum rating of 3.

CABS has endeavoured to more widely involve subject field experts in producing the current Guide, in comparison to the AJG of 2010. This is a distinctive feature of CABS’ guide, as others rely purely on citation and performance metrics.

General Discussion

No journal guide can, or should, claim to be definitive. The claimed objectivity, and thus perceived superior validity, of purely metrics-based ratings has been balanced in this review by, in addition to the SJR, using a more subjective review method as featured in the AJG 2015. The combination of both ranking systems aims to provide a more inclusive
representation of the quality of journals included in this systematic review. The impact factors and ranking systems used are not faultless in their own right, and so a strong case can be made for the consultation of the two metrics concurrently when analysing the quality of a journal.

3.7.6 Paradigmatic Stance

The researcher initially categorised articles as exhibiting a paradigmatic stance of qualitative, quantitative or conceptual. This was relatively straightforward and often was explicitly stated in the abstract by the author. The methodology section of each article provided insight into the stance characterising the study. However, midway through the review it was found that many of the studies simply exhibited general discussion and critique of existing literature, as opposed to any structured or official qualitative method. Upon discussion with the researcher’s senior supervisor it was decided that a separate category should be made to accommodate articles focussed around narrative literature reviews of existing literature, authors, or media. Including these studies in the classification of qualitative research methods would have been deceptive when reviewing the data and would have led to misleading conclusions. No articles in the sample exhibited a mixed-method approach.

3.7.7 Research Method

The methodology employed in the studies included in the review was often explicitly stated in the methodology section of the article. A range of methods were displayed, including in-depth interviews, case studies, discourse analysis and factor analysis. Articles focussed on the review and critique of existing media and literature were classified under the general classification of ‘media review/critique’ and then further categorised under the sub-classifications of reviews of academic literature, film, journal article, or individual author.

3.7.8 Research Topic

In classification of the research topic the researcher exercised judgement over the key topic/s exhibited in the articles featured in the review. On review of the preliminary classifications, it was clear to the researcher that some of the general topics could be amalgamated under particular themes. For example, articles that were concerned with weight loss, nutrition, inequality of health resources, and alcohol consumption were later
grouped under the parent theme of ‘public health’. Similarly, environmental sustainability was broken into three sub-categories of general environmental sustainability, waste and consumption. For the purposes of analysis however, topics were still recorded and displayed in the results as separate ideas. Identification of the overarching theme was a tool to further generalise, and thus visualise in tables and graphs, the prevalent topics of concern to critical marketing scholars.

In cases where more than one topic was the subject of the article, all topics that the researcher deemed to be relevant were recorded and given equal weighting. It was not deemed necessary to assign only one topic to each article.

### 3.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter first focussed on outlining the general framework guiding the processes of the study, in the interest of transparency. An outline of the PRISMA framework was given, alongside an amended graphic to depict the numbers arrived at by the researcher at each stage in the study. The selection methodology for journal articles was described in detail. The classification framework and justification for the data being extracted was depicted in Table 3.3. The rest of the chapter went on to explain the data that would be extracted from each journal article, and detailed the standardised method of classification used by the researcher for each journal in the sample.
4 Results and Discussion

Results are presented in six main sections with respect to the articles included in the present study: year published, authorship characteristics, journal characteristics, research approach, research methods employed, and research topics.

4.1 Results and Discussion

The results and discussion of key findings in the following chapter look to fulfil the research objectives outlined in the introduction. The overarching aim is to present a comprehensive synthesis of existing critical marketing journal articles. The act of extracting data from each individual article alone does not fulfil this intention, but rather it is the aggregation and organisation of the structured data set that provides meaningful information for the observer.

The sub-objectives include generating insight on the self-reflexivity of existing CM publications and of CM authors, identifying macro-level limitations and biases of the field, and to highlight potential areas of further investigation. The present study achieves this through underlining trends found in the data and discussing the findings in relation to existing literature.

4.1.1 Year of Articles

The present study has shown a general increase in the publishing of critical marketing articles over the years. A total of 54 articles on the topic of critical marketing met the inclusion criteria for this study. The first article included in the study was published in 1994 (Alvesson), and was the only article included in the present study published in that year. We see that 2014 was the most popular year for critical marketing articles in peer-reviewed journals. Interestingly, this drops off in 2015. The linear trend line, as depicted in Figure 4.1, shows that in general there has been an increase in the amount of critical marketing articles published over time.
There are a number of reasons that may have contributed to the increase seen in critical marketing literature. The appearance and growth of journals that are more sympathetic to alternative marketing thought has offered academics real opportunities to publish on topics that otherwise would have been reserved for the side-line, so to speak. There is a suggestion that critical marketing papers experience lower acceptance rates in popular marketing journals (Burton, 2001), and thus in the past authors would have potentially experienced less institutional recognition for writing a paper in a so-called lower ranking journal, or possibly with fewer potential to attract citations. Whilst the *Journal of Macromarketing*’s first issue appeared in 1981 (Brownlie et al., 1994), growth in this data set can be attributed to the publication of *Consumption, Markets and Culture* from 1997 onwards (Tadajewski, 2010c) and then *Marketing Theory* from 2000 on as the first UK-based outlet dedicated to the development of alternative perspectives (Burton, 2001). It must be noted that the absence of any explicitly critical marketing literature published before 1994 is also meaningful, reminding us that the prevalence of critical marketing in peer-reviewed journals as relatively recent. It is, of course, entirely possible that some journal publications may have been insufficiently indexed to have appeared in protocols of this systematic review.

It is possible that the presence alone of these publishing outlets also impacted academics’ research interests in ‘alternative marketing’ approaches, prompting them towards examining the topic and the associated philosophical concerns. The indirect pressure to
conform to mainstream approaches is well established, as low levels of publications can hinder career progression (Alvesson, 1994; Ehresnal, 1999; Hall, 2004, 2010, 2011; Tadajewski, 2010c). Journals avowedly interested in publishing alternative viewpoints provide academics with an empathetic avenue in which to publish papers. If they are also recognised by institutions and institutional research exercises, e.g. journal rankings or impact scores, this potentially allows more freedom towards personal research topics given the intrinsic support to explore critical approaches provided by such publishing venues. In some cases the support may even become extrinsic through the support for special issues or through invitations for commentaries and responses by editors.

One possible contributor to the increase in the frequency of critical marketing articles is the general increase of interest in sustainable practices and the critique of standard business practices in the media and in academia (Banerjee, 1999; Karna, Juslin, Ahonen, & Hansen, 2001). For example Hall, Gossling and Scott (2015) showed that employment of the terms “sustainable development” or “sustainability” in publications titles, abstracts and keywords recorded in the Scopus bibliometric database increased from 369 in 1990, to 7,465 in 2000 and 63,982 in 2010, and with over 100,000 such publications in 2013. Usage of the term critical marketing has therefore potentially increased, as it becomes more ‘in vogue’ in the marketing domain. The rise of sustainable marketing, and the less noble practice of greenwashing, have therefore likely contributed to the visibility of the issue and brought the debate to mainstream concern.

A limitation of the study is that the search and selection process is only able to capture articles that have been self-labelled by the author as critical. It was not feasible for the researcher to manually review all marketing literature and classify articles as critical or non-critical. It is possible, and likely, that articles exist that are critical in nature but that do not cite critical theory as an inspiration, nor apply the term critical to their study. However, the more that the term is used by other authors, it is possible that it introduces and encourages other authors to explore the concept and approach. This is a further possible explanation for the increase in literature seen in the present study.

The total number of articles included in the study (54) is comparatively small, when considering the amount of journals that exist and the amount of individual papers that are
published on a regular basis. For comparison, a Scopus search returned 123,573 articles containing the term “marketing” in the title, abstract or keyword section, 5,844 of those in the year 2105 alone. For further, more direct comparison, other themes in the marketing literature return Scopus search results indicative of the degree of attention provided by scholars: international marketing (1308 total journal articles published), consumer behaviour (9135 total journal articles published), and strategic marketing (958 total journal articles published). At a mere 0.0004% of published marketing journal articles, it can be concluded that the critical marketing literature at the centre of the present study forms a small component of the marketing literature that is accepted for publishing.

4.1.2 Authorship characteristics

Critical marketing articles were most commonly written by a sole author, with 44% of the articles written by an individual. The second most common result was two authors teaming up to co-author an article, as seen in 35% of the articles.

![Number of Authors per Article](image)

Figure 4.2: Number of Authors per Article

This result also represents the amount of collaboration prevalent in the production of critical marketing papers. Interdisciplinary research, of which critical marketing in theory encourages (Firat, 1977), requires the interaction of specialists from various fields, and thus tends to produce collaborative research (Hudson, 1996). The literature suggests that collaboration between disciplines, and between researchers, produces a higher quality of critique through the meeting of varied approaches (Burton, 2001; Firat, 1997; Saren et al.,
A steady increase of co-authorship over the past century has been observed in the natural sciences (Cronin, 2001), management literature (Acedo et al., 2006) and in other social sciences (Moody, 2004). It was observed that 76% of marketing literature published between 1991-2000 exhibited more than one author (Brown et al., 2006).

For these reasons, in addition to critical marketing’s association with interdisciplinary research approaches, it can be expected of critical marketing literature to also exhibit a high rate of collaboration between academics. However, we instead see almost half (44%) of articles written by sole authors. A considerable proportion of articles (56%) do feature collaboration between authors, though it is not an overwhelming majority. Bandodkar and Grover (2016) identify themes behind motives for collaboration as co-authorship for information processing, for accessing social resources and for convenience. Other studies in the fields of management and tourism have suggested that the key reason behind collaboration is largely for accessing expertise and for working efficiently (Acedo et al., 2006; Zehrer & Pechlaner, 2010). It has been observed in the preliminary preparations for the present study that critical marketing makes up only a small portion of the marketing literature published, and thus one reason behind the comparative lower instances of collaboration may be that CM academics simply have less CM colleagues to collaborate with. With less CM scholars to align interests with, academics may have to go ‘further afield’ to connect with other CM scholars, and thus collaboration for convenience may not be as applicable to the authors in the present study as it is to other marketers. The outcome of the present study (54% co-authorship) is in contrast to the cited figure of 76% in general marketing articles (Brown et al., 2006), and signals a marked divergence from authorship characteristics of critical marketing literature. The findings do not reflect a strong support for collaboration in practice in the sub-field, as is seen in the approach to critical marketing theory.

4.1.3 International Collaboration

The present study showed only seven (13%) of articles were identified as exhibiting international collaboration between authors. This statistic is in contrast with critical marketing’s claim of an environment of collaboration, both between authors, disciplines, and backgrounds (Alvesson, 1994). Whilst geographic location of the university affiliated
with each author is an imperfect method of establishing the ideological influences, it can speak to the culture in which the author must physically write their work (Carnoy & Rhoten, 2002).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Instances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International Collaboration</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No International Collaboration</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3: Collaboration Between Countries

A reason for low international collaboration may include language barriers, distance in time and space, and differences in communication strategies and channels (Baruch, 2001). However, this does not seem likely of the sample in the present study, as many of the countries included are predominantly English-speaking, Western and in the northern hemisphere. It must also be noted that geographic location of employment may become less and less of an influence in knowledge production in the face of increasing globalisation and ease of cultural exchange (Carnoy & Rhoten, 2002).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Instances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University Collaboration</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No University Collaboration</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4: Collaboration Between Universities

Whilst international collaboration on articles is relatively low, higher incidences of collaboration between academics affiliated with separate universities is seen. However, the majority of articles still feature no collaboration between universities. It is interesting to note that academics seek out collaboration with scholars beyond the community of employees they are simply physically surrounded with. This speaks to the fact that academics collaborate with scholars that they see it beneficial to partner with. This collaboration may be a result of scholars simply seeking out voices that agree with their own, which would result in a homogeneous approach to the research topic. It is not possible to draw a conclusion that collaboration equates to diversity from current information, richer data is needed to do that. However, it does suggest considerable networking within national scholarly communities, which may in turn be connected to the accessibility of conferences and to the opportunities for meetings.
4.1.4 Gender of Authors

A total of 102 authors contributed to the 54 critical marketing articles included in the present study. Of this number, 64 were male (63%) and 38 were female (37%).

![Gender of Authors of Critical Marketing Literature](image)

Figure 4.5: Gender of Authors of Critical Marketing Literature

Whilst the gender imbalance is not exceedingly large, this result does not paint a picture of equality. This result supports the existing, albeit limited, literature on the topic. Mehta and Bumpass’s (2008) study of the articles published in the *Journal of Business Strategies* between 1984-2008 showed a male to female ratio of approximately 4:1 (81% male authors), in support of an earlier study with a ratio of the same result (Mehta, Maniam, & Leipnik, 1999). However, whilst *The Journal of Business Strategies* hosts marketing articles, it does identify as largely a management-based journal and thus does not offer complete material for comparison. A previous study (Maclaran et al., 2009) has called attention to the incongruence observed when comparing critical marketing’s egalitarian viewpoint and the incorporation of diverse reference groups in the production of its own scholarship. It has been claimed that the performance of critical marketing academics on the whole fails to embody the social equality they espouse (Maclaran et al., 2009). Grey and Sinclair (2006) claim the cut throat culture of ‘one-upmanship’ in terms of intellectual debate within critical marketing is more hospitable to male voices, and that the toughness of the performance inevitably demands more respect. The researcher cannot make causative conclusions behind the disparity observed in the present study, but a gender imbalance has been confirmed, as already suggested by previous studies reviewed.
In looking at the portion of the articles (44%) in the sample written by a sole author, 84% of those articles were authored by a single male and 16% by a single female. Comparing statistics between sole and co-authorship, it can be seen that women are more often authors of articles when collaborating with other authors than they are the sole authors of critical marketing papers. This results in a limited amount of papers that are written solely from the backgrounds and experiences of women, subsequently resulting in less unfiltered representation of women in academia.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Total Authors</th>
<th>Male Authors</th>
<th>Female Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Marketing Management</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Macromarketing</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Social Marketing</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Historical Research in Marketing</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7: Comparison of Gender Breakdown Between Journal Outlets

For further comparison, Figure 4.7 displays the breakdown of gender between the four journal outlets most featured in the present study. The *Journal of Macromarketing* was the only journal featured here to subvert the overall trend of male authors outnumbering...
female authors, whilst all others displayed a lean towards male authors as the more dominant demographic.

4.1.5 Journal Outlets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journals Featuring Critical Marketing Literature</th>
<th>Instances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Marketing Management</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Macromarketing</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Social Marketing</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Historical Research in Marketing</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Theory</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Business Research</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Perspectives in Social Theory</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumption Markets and Culture</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Place Management and Development</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Public Health</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Public Policy and Marketing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Studies</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Strategic Marketing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Marketing Education</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Leisure Research</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annals of Tourism Research</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Consumer Psychology</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scandinavian Journal of Management</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet Research</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistive Technology</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Men's Health</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8: Journals Featuring Critical Marketing Literature

The journal most commonly publishing critical marketing in the present study was the *Journal of Marketing Management*. The *Journal of Macromarketing*, the *Journal of Social Marketing*, the *Journal of Historical Research in Marketing* and *Marketing Theory* follow
as being the next most popular journals to publish critical marketing literature. The results show a concentration of the articles in the present sample published in those top five journals, containing 69% of articles. It can be suggested that these journals, their editors and editorial board, and their review methods, are more welcoming to articles of an ‘alternative’ nature. The *Journal of Macromarketing* and the *Journal of Social Marketing* are both journals dedicated to sub-disciplines that are, or in the recent past were, seen as alternative approaches to the managerial orientation of traditional marketing theory (Tadajewski, 2014). For this reason, it is not surprising that they feature as some of the journals with higher instances of critical marketing literature. The *Journal of Marketing Management* however has the most amount of papers published in the present study, and is a journal that explicitly focusses on marketing research, from its philosophy, concepts, and theories to its methods, techniques, and applications (Journal of Marketing Management, n.d.).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Instances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Journals</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Marketing Journals</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.9: Classification of Disciplines of Journals

Of the 54 journals showcased in the present study, 43 (80%) of them self-identified as marketing journals, or journals that are concerned with the academic development of marketing theory. It is interesting to note that 20% of the articles included in the study were published in journals outside of marketing. Some of the areas of study with which these journals are associated include cognate fields such as sociology, public policy, technology, tourism and health. Whilst some of the articles published within marketing journals were indeed influenced by other disciplines, the articles published in non-marketing journals indicate the inter-disciplinary aspects of critical marketing and critiques of marketing.
4.1.6 Quality Assessments: SCImago Journal Rank

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCImago SJR Indicator Quartile</th>
<th>Instances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.10: SCImago SJR Indicator Quartile

Although quality assessments and journal rankings are an area that is highly contested and fraught with difficulties of differing perceptions of validity, an examination of ‘journal quality’ may nevertheless possibly provide some further insights. Using the SJR figure as an indicator, Table 4.10 shows that nine articles (17%) of the study were published in journals in the upper quartile in terms of quality. Almost half (44%) of the articles examined however, fell into the category of the second quartile of SCImago Journal Rank. Whilst seven journals were not measured by the SJR metric, of the journals that had assigned rankings, 72% were found with ranking in Q1 or Q2. This is a significant statistic for critical marketing scholars, as it shows that the majority of critical marketing literature is published in journals identified in the top half of journals in the discipline in regards to quality. This somewhat contrasts with claims that critical marketing literature is disseminated through lesser known and respected channels (Tadajewski, 2012c).


The UK-based AJG rankings however diverge from the conclusions made when reviewing the SJR figures for the articles in the present study. The rankings show that all of the articles ascribed a AJG ranking were given a figure either at the midpoint (3) or below the midpoint (2) of figures denoting value. This metric suggests that from the perspective of the panel that formulated the AJG rankings critical marketing literature is in fact published in journals of mid to low quality. However, due to the focus of the ranking and of the author (Chartered Association of Business Schools), many of the journals (22) that fell outside the discipline of marketing were not included in the Academic Journal Guide 2015. This metric, in contrast to
that of the SJR figure, supports literature and stances which suggest that critical marketing literature is

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic</th>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Guide</th>
<th>2015-</th>
<th>Chartered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.11 AJG 2015 Journal Rank

The results of the AJG rankings arguably reinforce Tadajewski’s (2012c) perspectives on the relatively low position of critical marketing within the marketing journals and institutions, at least from a UK perspective, and also begins to raise questions about how different interests and stakeholders within business and marketing education frame critical marketing.

4.1.8 University Affiliations

The geographical locations of the university affiliations of authors were recorded, to provide a snapshot of the international scope of critical marketing. Europe proved to be the region hosting the most critical marketing scholars and published articles and the United Kingdom was the most common affiliation of critical marketing scholars. The USA proved to be the next most popular destination from where academics affiliated. Little literature was seen from the Asia-Pacific region, an observation not congruent with the size of its population and its many research centres and universities.

Baruch’s (2001) study showed a systemic bias against authors not affiliated with Western countries, with his study however focussing more specifically on North America and management literature. A similar trend is seen in the result shown in Table 4.12, with a significant UK and US dominance over literature from South America and the Asia-Pacific region. A possible reason for the popularity of the United Kingdom as a source of critical marketing literature is that the *Journal of Marketing Management* is based in the UK. The
results possibly reflect an academic response to the institutional structures surrounding marketing in the UK, and particularly the orientation of business schools as indicated in the AJG 2015 rankings. It must be noted that on the whole the countries that have produced critical marketing literature are Western, developed countries. This may be a consequence of availability of accessible research outlets, as well as the fact that whilst critical marketing literature may well be published plentifully in other regions of the world, it is the output of these Western cultures that becomes most ‘visible’ (Tadajewski, 2010a). It also potentially reflects the dominance of English as the language of international publishing, including major databases such as Scopus and Web of Science (Baruch, 2001; Hall, 2013b; Truong, Dang, Hall, & Dong, 2015).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location of University Affiliation</th>
<th>Instances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Europe</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>North America</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Asia-Pacific</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>South America</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.12: Location of University Affiliation of Authors
4.1.9 Research Approach

The overwhelming majority of studies employed an informal review of various media as the focus of the publication, either of single journal articles, of the works of an author, or of literature pertaining to the topic of the article. No structured qualitative or quantitative methods were employed, nor were they conceptual in nature, and thus it was decided to provide a separate category. The findings in Table 4.13 show the prevalence of theoretical debate as the key tool for scholarly advancement in the study of critical marketing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Instances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Review/critique of literature or media</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.13: Paradigmatic Stance

Traditionally, mainstream marketing theory has been greatly influenced by the paradigm of logical empiricism, and alongside this has failed to address the more ‘human’ side of marketing (Arndt, 1985). It is argued that traditional marketing research’s commitment to this paradigm has only partially provided explanations of marketing thought, with the largely quantitative studies by default neglecting underlying socio-economic structures (Saren, 2011). Critical marketing on the other hand has always been more attuned to ethnographic, humanist and interpretivist methods (Saren, 2011), and the prevalence of both review-styled articles and qualitative methods in the present study affirms the previous literature on the topic. The presence of informal discussion and qualitative methods in the sample signals a more unstructured approach in the CM literature, with potential for more academic freedom of interpretation in examining the rich data and in formulating meaningful conclusions.

The prevalence of review-based articles in the sample may be indicative of the academic competitiveness referred to earlier in the document (Grey & Sinclair, 2006; Søndergaard, 2005), more specifically how theoretical debate within the critical marketing domain has bred a hostile environment for some (minority) authors (Knights, 2006). The articles in the sample critiqued a wide range of authors, from authors associated with the critical school of
thought to those authors more associated with mainstream marketing theory. The findings of the present study question Scott’s (2012, p. 11) assertion that critical marketers display an “unwillingness to critically examine their own constructs”. The findings beg the question as to whether critical authors expend their efforts critiquing other critical marketers or critiquing mainstream marketing scholarship, in their eyes the more nefarious manifestation of marketing theory, to a greater degree. The present study has highlighted the frequency of review-based CM articles, and reveals further questions on the implications this has on the critical marketing academic environment.

4.1.10 Research Methods

The most common method employed as the basis of an article was a review of existing literature. Many of the articles simply discussed and critiqued existing literature, adding original insight along the way. The outline was not structured or systematic, but narrative in nature. The second most common method was the use of case studies, specifically to clarify the application of existing theory to practical examples. By definition, the qualitative nature of the methods did not result in generalisable conclusions, but rather produced a depth of analysis that fosters the advancement of academic thought.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method Employed</th>
<th>Instances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Media review/critique</td>
<td>- academic literature 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- journal article 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- author 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- film 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse analysis</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-depth interviews</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical triangulation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor analysis</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.14: Research Methods

The literature on informal, narrative literature reviews as basis for publication documents is limited. The most popular formal qualitative method of research was the use of one or
multiple case studies, through displaying application to practical examples to aid theoretical discussion. It has been suggested that the research method of employing case studies is becoming looser in structure over time, with a recent substantial overlap with other methods, notably with ethnography (Daymon & Holloway, 2010). It can be concluded that the findings show the field of critical marketing favouring relatively unstructured approaches to research methods, and often exhibiting an absence of a formal research method. The findings support the literature in suggesting that critical marketing has an aversion to the positivist scientific method (Tadajewski, 2014).

4.1.11 Research Topic

The most common topic of authors’ attention was applied to the discussion of marketing theory. The second most common topic revolved largely around critique of the study of social marketing, as well as critiquing past campaigns. It’s prevalence in the present study signals the growth of critical social marketing as an influential sub-field in its own right. The prevalence of public health as the third most common research topic can be linked to the field of social marketing, as many of the social marketing campaigns discussed were undertaken for public health reasons and their success examined in regards to measurable improvements in the metrics of public health.

The reveal of marketing theory as the most commonly discussed topic in critical marketing literature further agrees with previous literature on the presence of a culture of theoretical debate (Grey & Sinclair, 2006; Knights, 2006; Scott, 2012; Søndergaard, 2005). It is this very culture that Grey and Sinclair (2006) have argued is not conducive to the proliferation of alternative or radical perspectives. This finding suggests that critical marketers within this study have focussed on critiquing other traditional and critical marketing authors and their theories, with less focus on marketing practice and unintended consequences. Whilst the theoretical contribution of this debate is inevitably influential in the advancement of scholarship and thought, this finding invites the observer to beg the question of critical marketing’s practical impact. In conjunction, if critical marketing’s end aim is that of emancipation, it must be explored as to whether an equal presence of theoretical and practical debate is ideal or if larger attention to one of these is more influential in terms of
real change. Regardless, in this study the researcher does not seek to make conclusions on the inherent value of theoretical debate versus critique of managerial actions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research topic</th>
<th>Instances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marketing theory</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social marketing</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public health</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- weight loss</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- nutrition</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- inequality</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- alcohol consumption</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender issues</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate ethics</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental sustainability</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- general</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- consumption</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- waste</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social inequality</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer culture</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural production and consumption</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racism</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-reflexivity</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political marketing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public policy</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postcolonialism</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge production</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public spaces</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumption atmosphere</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.15: Research topics
4.2 Summary of Research

A key finding of the study has been that of a low level of author and international collaboration. This stands in contrast to the suggestion of existing literature, in addition to contrasting with the values espoused explicitly by the field of critical marketing (Firat, 1977; Parker, 1999; Saren et al., 2007).

The study found a gender imbalance in the authors of the critical marketing research included in the study, and an even larger one when analysing sole authors of articles. This finding was in agreement with previous literature, where a similar ratio of men to women has been observed (Mehta & Bumpass, 2008; Mehta et al., 1999).

The aggregation of journal rankings of studies involved in the present study show a difference in judgement between the two metrics used (SJR and AJG 2015). On the whole, SJR rated the same journals higher than the AJG 2015 rankings did. However, the level of comparison is not equal as the Academic Journal Guide 2015 did not have a considerable amount of the journals used in their ranking system. The general findings however were that the journals which have published critical marketing literature in this study are ranked in the mid-range in terms of quality. This supports existing literature to some degree as it shows a lack of representation of critical perspectives in journals of a high reputation (Alvesson, 1994; Firat, 2012; Tadajewski, 2014).

More than half of articles featured an informal review of media, either of single journal articles, of the works of an author, or of literature pertaining to the topic of the article as the focus of the publication. Critical marketing has long been associated with ethnographic, humanist and interpretivist methods (Saren, 2011), and the prevalence of both review-styled articles and qualitative methods in the present study affirms the previous literature on the topic.

The reveal of marketing theory as the most commonly discussed theme in critical marketing literature further agrees with previous literature, claiming a culture of theoretical debate (Grey & Sinclair, 2006; Knights, 2006; Scott, 2012; Søndergaard, 2005). The implications of this finding is that it quells suggestion that critical marketing solely critiques the actions of
corporate organisations, and rather that theoretical discussion lays the foundation of existing literature.

In reference to the key research objective of this study, the findings have provided a widespread synthesis of the critical marketing research that exists to date. The descriptive statistics, trends, and biases the findings have uncovered, together provide a picture of the state of current critical marketing academia. The biases discussed in the preceding sections have called in to question the self-reflexivity of critical marketing knowledge production, and highlighted the incongruence between its own practice and theory. The macro-level limitations and predilections revealed in the findings have offered responses to the questions inherent in the main objectives of this study.

4.3 Research Implications

The findings of the present study provide varied theoretical and managerial contributions, which are respectively presented and discussed in the sections which follow.

4.3.1 Theoretical Implications and Contributions

The theoretical contribution of the present study lies in the comprehensive review and assessment of the descriptive characteristics and trends in the existing critical marketing literature. This original review provides insight on the strength of the discipline’s own ability to exercise reflexivity, a concept that guides critical marketing in itself.

The present study has provided the field with a heightened level of transparency in the characteristics behind the production of critical marketing literature. The biases found (in particular the gender imbalance) call in to question the legitimacy of the inclusiveness of the radical perspectives espoused, in the face of findings that suggest there is little representation of women in the field in question. This research contributes to the literature surrounding the incongruence observed between critical marketing’s theory and praxis. It has been suggested that whilst critical marketing proudly espouses an inclusive approach to both accepted norms and to the critique process in itself (Tadajewski, 2010c, 2014), this study contributes to the debate with findings in support of existing authors challenging this pretence (Maclaran et al., 2009).
Similarly, the findings on collaboration echo the theoretical implications of the findings on gender imbalance. Whilst the critical marketing literature advocates for interdisciplinary and collaborative research relationships (Burton, 2001; Firat, 1997; Tadajewski, 2014; Zaltman, 1998), the findings of this study suggest otherwise in regards to this being exemplified by the critical marketing field itself. This finding contributes to the theoretical debate on the power of collaboration in producing radical thought (Zaltman, 1998), and contributes to the literature suggesting that critical marketing lacks a collaborative edge (Tadajewski & Firat, 2009). The literature on this subject is however limited and this early study should act as a springboard for further corroboration or disagreement from other authors.

This research in itself has highlighted an area of study not previously examined by other scholars. It provides a base for developing future studies, examining in-depth the concepts that have been touched on and the trends that have been revealed as worthy of further attention. It is the hope of the researcher that the current study will lay the groundwork for an increase in reflexivity towards issues surrounding the process of knowledge production, in both mainstream and critical marketing circles.

4.3.2 Managerial Implications

This research provides critical marketing scholars and universities with further understanding of the shortcomings, and beneficial processes, permeating the discipline. This provides opportunity for action towards rectifying any systemic biases. In terms of managerial implications, the study provides universities and peer-review journals alike with the impetus to improve equity amongst the opportunities of academic staff.

The peer-review process has been well critiqued as an inherently political construct that claims to be objective in nature (Daymon & Holloway, 2010; Firat, 2012; Skalen et al., 2008). The findings suggest that the management teams of journal outlets would be wise to openly acknowledge the inherent ‘preferences’ manifested in the peer-review method, and implement strategies to overcome these biases. Examples of such strategies may include proactive approaches to improving equitable representation on the peer-review team, a ratified standard of quality on which articles are judged regardless of the degree to which the article exhibits radical thought, and that it is ensured there are no conflicts of interest.
between the reviewer and the articles they are assigned (e.g. critical of their personal research interest).

For a more upstream approach, the findings suggest that universities could do more to support women entering academia as a career choice. Universities should strive to encourage an inclusive approach to radical thought, both in their curriculum and in their human resource management style. There is a distinct lack of a presence of wider social, political and moral issues in a standard marketing curriculum (Turnquist et al., 1991), and when present they are largely focus on issues of individual morality (Catterall et al., 2002). This results in a culture inhospitable to macro-level critiques of the mostly operational level of analysis seen in practice and literature, for both men and women. Lecturers should be trained on classroom management (dependent on the size of the lecture theatre and tutorial size) and how to foster an inclusive environment to all voices. In addition, universities should provide added managerial support to female academics in producing research that critiques established concepts in a field. The findings show that there is a significant gender imbalance of sole authors, and thus perhaps additional mentorship opportunities and supplementary funding for sole research endeavours as potential schemes would be appropriate for universities to explore. However, it is likely that a localised approach to the encouragement of gender equality would produce best suited results, in order to encompass the nuances that come with the varied organisational and institutional cultures across universities worldwide.

Lastly, the findings suggest that it may be beneficial for universities to review their career progression framework. Publication in high ranked journals is directly linked to an improvement in the position and salaries of academics (Burton, 2001; Ehrensal, 1999; Miller et al., 2011; Mittal et al., 2008), and the findings in the present study suggest that critical marketing literature is not often published in high ranking journals. This does not necessarily indicate the legitimacy or quality of articles inspired by radical thought, as revealed in the discussion of the various personal and institutional reasons behind rejection by the peer-review board.
4.4 Research Limitations

As is the nature of research, this study was subject to a number of limitations. There are several that need to be considered when interpreting and citing the findings of the current study. These arose in the areas of data selection and data collection, amongst others.

It was evident in the early stages of the study that the limitation of this research, and of many systematic literature reviews, is that the study relies on the author proactively including the key words in the abstract, title or key words section of the publication. Whilst it is likely that articles explicitly inspired by critical theory were self-labelled accordingly, it is possible that marketing articles exist that were influenced to some degree by critical marketing that were not picked up by the search criteria used here. This limitation represents a restriction of the data selection method employed in most systematic literature reviews (Moher et al., 2009); the alternative of manually screening all marketing articles was deemed in this circumstance to be unfeasible within the time constraint.

The current study must be interpreted with the potential of language bias in mind, only English articles having been included in the systematic review. The reason behind this was due to the researcher only being fluent in the English language. Due to time and resource constraints, translation of texts was not sought out. This limitation leaves the key findings only relevant for making generalisations about academic literature published in the English language, as opposed to all critical marketing literature published in all regions of the world. The database chosen (Scopus) may also present an additional avenue for language bias, as its reputation both reflects and requires compliance with the domination of English as the language of international publishing (Baruch, 2001; Hall, 2013b; Truong et al., 2015). In undertaking the systematic literature review, the study gives even further attention to (critical) marketing authors published in the English language or in Western-based journals. The irony of this is not lost on the researcher, of doing so whilst critiquing such structures of under-representation (Skalen et al., 2008; Tadajewski, 2014).

The current study also is susceptible to a publication bias, in only including journal articles in the systematic review. The aim of the research however was to investigate the nuances specific to journal article production, and thus this provided the rationale for the exclusion of other ‘grey’ material and publication types that were not peer-reviewed journal articles.
However, this study further does further neglect conference papers, a publication type that historically has been given little attention and prestige in the academic world (Tadajewski, 2010c). Therefore, it is only appropriate to discuss the current findings in relation to critical marketing literature published in journal articles, as opposed to using the findings to generalise on all critical marketing literature in existence.

An alteration to the current study, in hindsight, would have been to include another journal ranking metric. If the researcher was to reproduce the study, in addition to the SJG and AJG metric, the Australian Association of Business Deans ranking figures would have been included. This ranking would have provided an appropriate Asia-Pacific based metric for comparison. This would have been resulted in a more complete analysis of journal reputation, especially in noting that the AJG rankings did not feature some of the journals included in the study.

4.5 Directions for Future Research

In looking at the findings presented in the current chapter, a number of directions have been identified for future research. The current study would benefit from the conducting of a meta-analysis on the available data. This would contribute to the literature through the use of statistical analyses to generate meaningful conclusions. In conjunction with a systematic literature review, the quantitative element of this style of interpretation would add further understanding backed up by robust statistical processes.

The findings have revealed a need for future exploratory research on the overwhelming presence in critical marketing of theoretical critique, and of other authors work. It would be interesting to note whether critical theorists are more involved in critiquing mainstream marketing theory, or whether other critical theorists are discussed to a higher degree. This could lead to further research questions on whether there is a link between the level of critique experienced from within one’s own sub-field and the validity of concepts associated with the sub-field.

Future research is needed to examine the reasons behind collaboration in critical marketing, and if there are any implications for the nature of the research involved. For example, early research on such topic has been done by the VOICE Group (2008) who reflect on the nature
of collaborative research process in interpretive consumer research, explicitly focussing on
the impact of the relationships between researchers on research perspectives and
processes. It would be worthwhile to explore which particular combinations of fields and
disciplines can bring the most welcome addition to the existing body of critical marketing
literature. Further research on how healthy and beneficial research relationships can be
fostered would be valuable for academics and the field alike.

Future further research could provide more detail on the dynamics of knowledge production
and the barriers to sole authorship for women. The findings show that women are present
in collaborative publication efforts, but their presence is missing from studies characterised
by sole authorship. In the interest of unfiltered representation, further understanding of the
barriers would contribute to the development of subsequent methods in overcoming them
and reaching gender equal representation.
Bibliography


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## Appendices

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