Comparing the Worldviews

of

Marketing and Sustainability

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Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Marketing

at the University of Canterbury

by

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Abstract

Sustainability has entered the vernacular of many disciplines and marketing seems to be no exception. However, the construct, both within and outside marketing, is still contested. Given the growing importance of sustainability, especially in providing a possible solution to current ecological, social, and economic issues, it is time for marketing to reflect on its role in perpetuating unsustainability and its role in establishing a sustainable society. More importantly, it is critically important that marketing academics reflect on how sustainability is, can, and should be integrated in theory and taught in marketing education.

This research goes beyond previous research which has proposed how the business school can further sustainability integration and instead focuses on the role of the individual as an inhibitor and challenger to institutional change. Reflecting on the literature and issues present in sustainability marketing scholarship and curriculum, two studies were conducted as part of this thesis. Study One, through eighteen qualitative semi-structured interviews with marketing academics interested in sustainability research and education, sought to gain an in-depth understanding of what it means to be sustainable within marketing (e.g. through theory, pedagogy) and why academics pursued their interest in sustainability marketing. In Study Two, the sustainability worldviews of students and faculty were measured through an international survey.

The findings of Study One found that participants sincerely cared about sustainability and sustainable education, which demonstrates that Education for Sustainability (EfS), as well as sustainability research, is heavily dependent on faculty themselves, their interpretation of sustainability, and their passion to incorporate sustainability. The formation of a sustainability worldview revealed various avenues by which academic participants gained a passion and appreciation for sustainability in their personal and professional lives. These avenues included,
upbringing, including parents and friends; education, including presentations, books and writing theses; and work. This passion and sustainability interpretation resulted in various ways marketing and sustainability were integrated in theory and in teaching sustainability marketing.

This research found that marketing departments are facing issues of inertia, with department and college colleagues adhering to the profit maximisation paradigm (the dominant social paradigm (DSP) or market logic), a lack of faculty who have the knowledge and skills to teach sustainability, a focus on research goals according to the countries system at the expense of sustainability teaching and research, and a lack of commitment in leadership towards sustainability. These barriers exemplify the difficulty and challenge of competing institutional demands and logics, and the prominence of the DSP in faculty and marketing department culture. Without sustainability being seen as important by the academy, its relevance to marketing remains elusive, as merely an add-on, as a separate course in the marketing curriculum, and a specialisation in marketing research. It is also not seen as ‘true’ sustainability. To examine the possible barrier the sustainability worldviews of marketing faculty and students provided, as reflected in the interviews as well as previous research, Study Two investigated the beliefs, values and attitudes of the marketing academic community.

Study Two contributes to academic knowledge by creating a typology of marketing faculty and students in relation to sustainability beliefs, which can provide unique insight into the worldviews of sustainability. Of the four faculty worldviews identified, Passionates were the most environmentally concerned and critical of the current social and economic issues of the world, as well as businesses and marketing’s role in these issues, and represented 25.40% of the sample. Just under 5% of marketing faculty were described as Sceptics, who were not aware of any social, environmental and economic issues in society, especially not environmentally concerned, and support the status quo of economic growth, and business and marketing practices.
Similar clusters of worldviews were found for marketing students. Believers represent 24.48% of the student sample and are consistently critical (concerned) about environmental, economic and social sustainability issues, however they are ambivalent about technologies ability to solve environmental problems. While Doubters, the most sceptical of sustainability issues, represented 12.39% of the student sample, and exhibited low ecological values and were mostly ambivalent to environmental, economic and social sustainability issues.

In sum, there were positive, supportive, holistic and broad conceptualisations of sustainability by marketing faculty and students which may indicate that a supportive environment exists for sustainability in marketing education and research. However, faculty and students were sometimes ambivalent to sustainability issues in the world. Considering broad conceptualisations of sustainability, positive attitudes, and that more than 60% of faculty (and students) were aware and concerned about environmental, social and economic sustainability issues, questions remain about why only limited research and teaching has been done on the intersection between marketing and sustainability.
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- Introduction
- Study Two Methodology
- Study Two Findings (page 231-235)

Please detail the nature and extent (%) of contribution by the candidate:

The PhD candidate conducted 100% of the analysis and wrote the article with feedback and editorial support provided by Paul Ballantine and C. Michael Hall.

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Name: Joya Kemper
Signature:
Date: 02.10.17
I would also like to thank the editors, reviewers, and conference participants for their feedback about my research which was presented at numerous conferences throughout my PhD journey. The full papers and extended abstracts that were submitted to these conferences, which were all peer-reviewed, helped aid my writing up of the thesis chapters.

**Referred Conference Proceedings**


**Presentations:**


During my PhD journey, I have also been fortunate enough to work on projects outside my immediate PhD research scope. As such, this research does not fit into the coherent body of my
thesis but provided inspiration and theoretical (i.e. institutional theory) insight for my thesis. As such, these works are provided in detail below to provide a complete the record of my accomplishments during my PhD.

**Refereed Journal Articles:**


**Refereed Conference Papers:**


This research is a reflection of the unexpected journey my life has taken. I dedicate and thank all those involved with my journey. This is not what I thought I would be doing seven years ago when I started my university career. I expected to graduate with my undergraduate degree and then subsequently my Honours degrees (because how else would I stand out from the 200+ marketing graduates!), and make a splash in the corporate world. My goal was to become rich; I wanted that luxury Audi, that $2+ million house (although in the last seven years this expectation might have to reflect a $10 million house instead - especially if I live in Auckland!), the fancy, exotic holidays and designer clothes. While I enjoyed marketing, especially consumer psychology, the degree was a means to an end, it was my ‘in’ into a corporate world filled with greed, want, and most importantly status. As you can tell by conducting my PhD, my journey took an unexpected turn.

This turn of events would not be possible without mentioning some key players in my story. Paul, I thank you for being the first one to encourage my thinking and learning in marketing, and my first insight into the possibility to doing a PhD. Ekant, I thank you for being my first introduction into the world of marketing, without knowing it, actually making me switch my major from Strategic Management (because that is what I assumed all CEO’s studied!) to Marketing. The second major turning point in my academic career came in Otago, when I was studying for my Honours degree. I thank all the honours students, you know who you are, for being there on, really, the first complicated hurdle in my life (there’s always a first for pulling all nighters!). Most importantly, I thank Ben, because without the insight into ourselves and the world I honestly would not be here typing this PhD. While my journey was aided by my wonderful family and world events (i.e. NSA leaks), it was the support and classes taught by Ben that opened my eyes to the world for the very first time. Once I had opened my eyes to seeing the world, rather than just seeing me, I could no longer shut them.
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“We can’t solve problems by using the same kind of thinking we used when we created them”.

— Albert Einstein
Chapter One

Introduction: A contention between worldviews?
Marketing and sustainability’s (in)compatibility?

“The problem that clearly emerges is that the ontological and epistemological assumptions that currently characterize management education undermine the kind of orientation that is necessary to engage with sustainability and ethics-related issues within management”

— Painter-Morland (2015, p. 69)
**1.0 Introduction**

Society is facing a series of interrelated social, economic and environment crises. Indeed, in the last 15 years alone we can identify major crises that have come in the form of war, social instability and increased natural disasters. Political action has been slow to respond to all of these issues and serious doubts about our current system as a whole (political, economic, social) is being increasingly challenged (e.g. Hedlund-de Witt, 2013; Jacques, 2006; Kumi, Arhin, & Yeboah, 2014; Kurucz, Colbert, & Marcus, 2014; Milbrath, 1994; Nash & Lewis, 2006; Schaefer & Crane, 2005; Springett, 2005). Sustainability or sustainable development provides a possible solution to these current ecological, social, and economic issues (Connelly, 2007; Davidson, 2014; Hopwood, Mellor, & O’Brien, 2005). Inclusive forms of sustainable development include ecological problems, issues of equality, human rights and poverty alleviation (Connelly, 2007; Davidson, 2014; Daniella Tilbury & Ryan, 2011). Consequently, many have called for the need to shift to a sustainable society, one which is stable, equal and fair, living within the ecological bounds of the planet and which recognises our unique and symbiotic relationship with nature (Allen, Cunliffe, & Easterby-Smith, 2017; Borland & Lindgreen, 2013; Hopwood et al., 2005; Moore, 2005; Springett, 2003).

However, the dominant industrial worldview, currently espoused by business schools, government, businesses and other institutions (Beddoe et al., 2009; Borland & Lindgreen, 2013; Kilbourne, 2004; Saunders, 2010), has simultaneously been said to promote continual economic growth and materialistic development as progress (Cotgrove, 1982; Hopwood et al., 2005; Kilbourne, Beckmann, Lewis, & van Dam, 2001; Mitchell & Saren, 2008; Springett, 2003), as well as being a key source of environmental and social problems (Chorev & Babb, 2009; Harvey, 2007; Layton, 2011; Martin & Schouten, 2014; Matutinović, 2007; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014; Peattie, 2001; Springett, 2005). The main argument of the current state of industry and sustainable development, is that the ‘green’ business discourse only contributes to ‘political
sustainability’ or weak sustainability (Levy, 1997; Springett, 2003). This idea perpetuates the current concept of sustainability integrating with the current dominant industrial paradigm, not business integrating with sustainability. The position and role of business education and research has not been downplayed and many see that change in business principles, especially marketing, must occur if we want to transition to a sustainable society (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014; Springett, 2005, 2010). Moreover, it has been argued “that only an alternative grand narrative envisioning a different world order can lead us out of one scripted for domination, injustice and environmental destruction” (Springett, 2003, p. 18). This view of capitalism, business and marketing, provides a strong need to examine the sustainability views of marketing academics and students which previous research has not yet examined in-depth.

Sustainability has entered the vernacular of many disciplines and marketing seems to be no exception. However, the construct, both within and outside marketing, is still contested (Connelly, 2007; Davidson, 2014; Hopwood et al., 2005; Lim, 2016; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). With the growing importance of sustainability, marketing should reflect on its role in perpetuating unsustainability and its role in establishing a sustainable society (Varey, 2010), especially since marketing has control of production development and consumption; two key issues in sustainability (Brundtland, 1987). As such, questions remain about how marketing can integrate sustainability in research and teaching, and what barriers and opportunities exist for its integration within universities and the academy.

Sustainability, ethical and critical marketing scholars have argued that sustainability issues cannot be addressed in the marketing discipline, especially education, without a change in the dominant industrial worldview in business schools (Kilbourne, 2004; Kilbourne & Carlson, 2008; Varey, 2011, 2012). However, no study has empirically investigated the sustainability worldviews of marketing faculty or students, which is disconcerting as both research and education interest in sustainability marketing has increased over the years (Chabowski, Mena, & Gonzalez-Padron,
2011; Kumar, Rahman, & Kazmi, 2013; Leonidou & Leonidou, 2011; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014; Purani, Sahadev, & Kumar, 2014). Consequently, examining this industrial worldview in marketing academics and students presents an interesting study on the current values and beliefs, and overall interest, in sustainability, which influences the overall integration of sustainability within marketing academia.

This research explores the why and how marketing academics integrate sustainability within their marketing teaching and research, and examines what barriers and opportunities exist towards the integration of sustainability within marketing academia. Faculty are considered key change agents in institutions, especially for education for sustainability (EfS). Understanding why current advocates of sustainability marketing integrate sustainability and marketing provide means to examine the personal and professional identities of sustainability marketing academics, which is lacking in sustainability research (Wood, Cornforth, Beals, Taylor, & Tallon, 2016).

While research has explored how higher education can engage with sustainability, especially in education (e.g. Christie, Miller, Cooke, & White, 2015; Cotton et al., 2009; Down, 2006; Springett, 2005), there remains a lack of research on the role of the individual (Wood et al., 2016). Even in institutional research, the role of the individual is largely absent in how institutional change is brought about (Bévort & Suddaby, 2016; Suddaby, 2010), which is why a new avenue of institutional research focuses on the role of institutional entrepreneurs. Thus, research is ripe in the area of the psychological motivations of sustainability leaders, in corporate or university settings, and how this effects their ability to lead transformational change in organisations (Brown, 2012; Schein, 2015; Visser & Crane, 2010). Moreover, understanding the “how” of integrating sustainability and marketing provides avenues for interested academics to address sustainability in their own marketing courses, publications and institutions. Subsequently, addressing practices of integration can also identify institutional barriers in both education and research suggesting areas where institutional change is needed.
Secondly, this research examines the values, beliefs and attitudes related to sustainability and marketing to assess how favourable these are to sustainability’s integration within marketing (i.e. limits to growth, consumer sovereignty and marketing responsibility). Consequently, the findings will provide evidence about how accepting the marketing academy is of sustainability, whether they hold favourable values, beliefs and attitudes needed for sustainability’s integration in marketing academia, and whether there is a divergence in worldviews between and within faculty and/or students. Faculty perceptions are important as this affects the integration of sustainability within their teaching and research (Reid & Petocz, 2006). Subsequently, student perceptions are important to understand as this will affect the demand for sustainability education (McNamara, 2010).

The chapter aims to provide an overview of the thesis, providing background research to examine the research gap, and discusses the research problem, research objectives, and research approach.

1.1 A sustainability worldview

In 1987, the Brundtland Commission defined sustainable development “as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987, p. 43). Sustainable development is normally portrayed to include three dimensions: economic, social and environmental. The economic dimension of sustainable development relates to the ability for enterprises and activities to be sustained long term. The social dimension seeks an equal distribution of benefits and a reduction in poverty. The Brundtland report (1987) linked unsustainability to overconsumption by affluent industrialised countries and thus brings into question equity and the distribution of resources. Lastly, the environmental dimension focuses on the conservation of natural resources and includes climate change. This study adopts the
definition of sustainability from Moore (2005, p. 327), where sustainability “speaks about the reconciliation of social justice, ecological integrity and the well-being of all living systems on the planet. The goal is to create an ecologically and socially just world within the means of nature without compromising future generations”. Sustainability in this study is defined as the process or strategy towards a sustainable future or the implementation of sustainable development (Moore, 2005; Sidiropoulos, 2014).

While the triad of sustainability is usually acknowledged, much more debate surrounds the causes and solutions to these social, environmental and economic issues (Connelly, 2007; Hopwood et al., 2005). Consequently, sustainability worldviews and frameworks have been created to identify the differing sustainability values, beliefs and attitudes. Common frameworks include weak and strong (economic) sustainability, ecocentric and anthropocentric views/epistemology, the educational framework of Sterling (2011) and Hopwood et al.’s (2005) mapping approach. The different discourses of sustainability highlight that there are differences in understanding and opinion about what it means to be sustainable. This difference can be understood through the lens of differing worldviews.

A worldview is how we make sense of the world and includes fundamental realities of the world around us, assumptions about life, objectives, (un)desirable behaviours and relationships, acceptable goals and overall “provide the epistemic and ontological foundations for other beliefs within a belief system” (Koltko-Rivera, 2004, p. 4). Everyone can hold their own worldview, but societies also tend to have a dominant worldview (van Egmond & de Vries, 2011). The dominant worldview, which is also termed the dominant social paradigm (DSP), is the industrial worldview (Borland & Lindgreen, 2013; Kilbourne, 2004; van Egmond & de Vries, 2011). The current DSP believes in economic growth, laissez-faire economics, humans rule or domination over nature, individual property rights and technological solutions to environmental problems (Cotgrove, 1982; Dunlap, 2008; Kilbourne, 2004). This dominant worldview is said to
perpetuate the current environment, social and economic issues (Beddoo et al., 2009; Borland & Lindgreen, 2013; Matutinović, 2007), and is largely espoused by business schools (Beusch, 2014; Petocz & Dixon, 2011; Springett, 2010; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008). In contrast, the New Environmental Paradigm (NEP) is the competing worldview (Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, & Jones, 2000).

The NEP, as a survey instrument and concept, has been used to measure both environmental concern and a new social paradigm. Pirages and Ehrlich (1974) first suggested that the DSP was being questioned, as “these beliefs are no longer useful in successfully interpreting social reality” (p. 44). Those who do not hold a strong DSP view are usually seen to relate to the NEP, valuing and being concerned about nature. The DSP and NEP differ on their “beliefs about humanity’s ability to upset the balance of nature, the existence of limits to growth for human societies, and humanity’s right to rule over the rest of nature” (Dunlap et al., 2000, p. 427). Scholars are calling for a change in business schools’ worldview towards a more environmental and socially aware paradigm, as without this paradigm shift many suggest that engagement with topics such as ethics and sustainability will be fruitless (Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Gladwin, Kennelly, & Krause, 1995; McGregor, 2004; Painter-Morland, 2015; Springett, 2010). However, existing power structures and a preference for the status quo stand in the way for such as transition (Matutinović, 2007; Naeem & Neal, 2012; Stephen Sterling, 2007; Van Dijk, 1989), which is why there is also a need to investigate the institutional barriers that exist towards sustainability in business and marketing studies.

1.2 The sustainability worldview in marketing academia

Given a growing interest in the ontological and epistemological assumptions in marketing and its relationship to sustainability (e.g. Borland & Lindgreen, 2013; Varey, 2011), there is an urgent need to investigate how faculty and students view the interactions between marketing and
sustainability. Previous sustainability marketing research has tried to conceptualise the concept of ‘sustainability marketing’, ‘sustainable marketing’ and ‘green marketing’ (e.g. Belz, 2005; Belz & Peattie, 2010; Gordon, Carrigan, & Hastings, 2011). Several conceptual articles argue for a more virtuous and socially aware marketing and management discipline (Painter-Morland, 2015; Varey, 2010, 2011, 2012). However, definitions still remain fuzzy about what it really means to be sustainable within marketing, ranging from managerial perspectives to more macro perspectives, with the former dominating (Kilbourne & Beckmann, 1998; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). Therefore, research which addresses the sustainability marketing conceptualisations used by experienced and specialised sustainability marketing academics provides a new means to address this knowledge gap.

Previous research in sustainability marketing education has tried to address this knowledge gap through the authors own experiences (e.g. Borin & Metcalf, 2010; Rountree & Koernig, 2015; Wilhelm, 2008) and suggestions for integration (e.g. Bridges & Wilhelm, 2008). However, the focus is usually on the content of a particular marketing course (e.g. Borin & Metcalf, 2010; Rountree & Koernig, 2015) or on the ‘state-of-play’ of sustainability’s integration within marketing curriculum (e.g. Nicholls, Hair, Ragland, & Schimmel, 2013; Weber, 2013). There is a need to provide an overview of how theoretically, but also pedagogically, sustainability has been addressed in marketing education by scholars in the field. Consequently, such investigation can provide various suggestions for how marketing educators can successfully address sustainability in their own courses.

Furthermore, the future and further integration of sustainability within both marketing education and research requires a closer look at what theoretical, institutional and philosophical/ideological tensions, barriers and more positively, opportunities exist in the integration of sustainability within the marketing discipline. Understanding these power structures and the ways in which these institutions can be redesigned (Toubiana, 2014) is critical.
to the adoption of a more sustainable focus and awareness within the marketing discipline (Eylon & Giacalone, 2000; Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Painter-Morland, 2015; Springett, 2010; Toubiana, 2014). Most importantly, the mindsets of students and faculty has also been identified as a key barrier to EfS success (Doh & Tashman, 2014; Wilson & von der Heidt, 2013), especially in regards to the culture present in the business school (Doherty, Meehan, & Richards, 2015; Toubiana, 2014), which is why an investigation into the worldviews of these members is warranted.

1.2.1 The sustainability worldview of faculty and students

It is important to understand how academics perceive sustainability as these perceptions likely influence how, and how much, sustainability is included in their teachings and publications. As stated by Reid and Petocz (2006, p. 107), we must understand how those teaching sustainability perceive it, “especially in areas that do not traditionally focus on sustainability”. Academic perceptions can be a major inhibitor to the integration of sustainability within curriculum (Christie et al., 2015). Furthermore, the belief that EfS is not applicable to one’s own disciplines is the primary reason for not engaging in EfS (Christie et al., 2015; Velazquez, Munguia, & Sanchez, 2005), suggesting the need to investigate the relevance and interpretation of sustainability in non-traditional sustainability subjects, such as marketing (Reid & Petocz, 2006; Wood et al., 2016). Thus, this research follows on from studies which have investigated the barriers towards sustainability education integration within tourism (e.g. Boyle, 2015; Wilson & von der Heidt, 2013), a subject which too struggles with the meaning of sustainability within the context of a discipline which heavily impacts the environment (Hall, 2010).

Moreover, faculty and students remain uncertain “about the meaning, scope, boundaries, application and limitations of the term sustainability” (Beusch, 2014, p. 529). Addressing academic and student conceptualisations of key concepts is vital to understanding underlying
taken-for-granted assumptions and potential discursive struggles. Academic research can be used for decision making in companies and public policy, consequently academic discourse has important meaning beyond the university walls (Sandberg & Polsa, 2015). In addition, students demand education about which they are passionate and deem as important, and are also leading agents for institutional change in universities (McNamara, 2010; Wright & Horst, 2013). Previous research on sustainability discourses, show that there are diverging values and beliefs (worldviews) about what sustainability means to faculty and students, and how it should be taught (Christie et al., 2015; Cotton, Warren, Maiboroda, & Bailey, 2007; Kagawa, 2007). However, no study has empirically investigated this possible diverging worldview in marketing students and faculty members specifically.

While a few studies have investigated faculty and student views about sustainability in the business curricula (e.g. Beusch, 2014; Doh & Tashman, 2014; Reid, Petocz, & Taylor, 2009), only one study has focused specifically on marketing academics and three studies on marketing students. Delong and McDermott (2013) found that marketing deans considered sustainability content quite important in the marketing curriculum, more so than the importance of sustainability in the business curriculum as a whole. In a study comparing male and female marketing students, Weaven et al. (2013) found that female students had more favourable views on the perceived role of ethics and corporate social responsibility (CSR) in business, business education’s role in addressing CSR, and were more environmentally concerned, but rated themselves to have lower sustainability knowledge than males.

In a more recent study, Pantelic, Sakal, and Zehetner (2016) find that marketing students in Austria, Portugal and Serbia believe marketing has the ability to encourage change in sustainable consumer behaviour, and the ability to influence business towards more sustainable practices. Perera and Hewege (2016) found that the majority of students in an international marketing course had self-rated themselves to have a reasonable level of awareness of
sustainability issues, with just over half being motivated to learn about sustainability to become a part of a sustainable society (52%), more so than being able to work in a sustainable organisation in the future (20%). Since all four studies focused on limited views on sustainability, especially regarding fundamental values, beliefs and attitudes relevant to sustainability such as business purpose, consumption levels and marketing’s role in sustainability, much more research is warranted in this area.

Kilbourne and his colleagues (Kilbourne et al., 2001; Kilbourne & Polonsky, 2005) have in part tried to address this research gap by using the DSP scale on business undergraduate students. Their research across numerous countries show somewhat an acceptance of the DSP, more so in certain countries (i.e. the USA) than others (i.e. Australia). However, the scale has fluctuating internal reliability and the limited number of items used do not provide a comprehensive view of student beliefs in some fundamental areas which are of interest when examining sustainability beliefs in the marketing domain, such as business purpose, consumption levels and marketing’s role in sustainability.

To sum up, past research has only focused on the statistics on sustainability topics integration in the marketing curriculum (Delong & McDermott, 2013; Nicholls et al., 2013; Weber, 2013) and attitudes of programme administrators regarding the importance of sustainability within marketing programmes (Delong & McDermott, 2013). However, no research has yet empirically investigated marketing academics views about sustainability and related consumption, marketing and business issues, and only limited research has been conducted on marketing students. Although more research has been conducted with business and marketing students, there remains a lack of studies which cover comprehensively sustainability values, beliefs and attitudes.

Without insight into the views of marketing academics and students, the discipline cannot begin to understand how the sustainability agenda is perceived in the marketing
discipline, and what the barriers and opportunities are to sustainability’s integration. More importantly, answering the question, what does it mean to be sustainable in marketing, from the perspectives of a variety of marketing academics and students, sheds light on the still contested and ‘fuzzy’ concept of sustainability marketing.

Overall, this research explores the formation of sustainability interests in academics; seeks to understand how sustainability is addressed within marketing theory and curriculum; examines what barriers and opportunities exist towards the integration of sustainability within marketing academia; and explores the values, beliefs, and attitudes of marketing academics and students which may impact sustainability’s integration within marketing academia.

1.3 Research aims and objectives

As there is a lack of research of the subject, this exploratory research seeks to understand why and how sustainability is addressed in marketing studies, what barriers prevent sustainability’s integration in marketing academia, and examines the common sustainability values and beliefs held by marketing faculty and students. As such, the overall aim of this thesis is to:

Investigate the opportunities and barriers towards the integration of sustainability within marketing academia

In exploring this aim within the chosen context of marketing academia, this research will address the following objectives:

1. To understand why and how sustainability is addressed within marketing academia by sustainability interested marketing academics
2. To investigate the institutional, theoretical and philosophical barriers and opportunities towards the integration of sustainability within marketing academia
3. To examine the values, beliefs and attitudes of sustainability in marketing academics and students
Since Objectives One and Two lend themselves towards a sample population of experienced and interested academics in sustainability marketing, while Objective Three involves a large population of marketing students and faculty, it was necessary to implement a two-study design to address these three objectives. Furthermore, Objectives One and Two require a qualitative approach to allow vivid descriptions of experiences and opinions to emerge, while Objective Three, due to the implied generalisability of the findings, leads naturally to a quantitative methodology.

1.3.1 Objective One: To understand why and how sustainability is addressed within marketing academia by sustainability interested marketing academics

This research objective explores why and how marketing academics integrate sustainability within their marketing teaching and research. Faculty are considered key change agents in institutions, especially for EfS. Such a “bottom-up” approach to change has been suggested as a fruitful avenue for research, curriculum and institutional change in universities (Thomas, 2004; Verhulst & Lambrechts, 2015; Wood et al., 2016). Past research on how universities integrated sustainability show a large involvement from change agents, which are usually academics themselves; these champions are usually at the forefront of new ideas for EfS (Lorenzoni, Nicholson-Cole, & Whitmarsh, 2007; Wood et al., 2016). Faculty members were catalysts for the change process in more than half of the institutions who were interested in or engaged in the implementation of sustainability initiatives (McNamara, 2010). However, few studies have examined and discussed the identities, experiences and roles of change agents (Wood et al., 2016). Consequently, understanding why current advocates of sustainability marketing integrate sustainability and marketing provide means to examine the personal and professional identities of sustainability marketing academics (Wood et al., 2016). In addition, understanding the “how” of integrating sustainability and marketing provides avenues for interested academics to address sustainability in their own marketing courses and research.
Only a few scholars have addressed how to integrate sustainability within marketing theory (e.g. Belz, 2005; Gordon et al., 2011; van Dam & Apeldoorn, 1996) and curriculum (e.g. Bridges & Wilhelm, 2008; Pomering, Noble, & Johnson, 2008). However, integrating such a contested topic as sustainability suggests multiple ways in which sustainability can be addressed in both marketing theory and education, especially when considering that there are numerous interpretations of sustainability within marketing academic research (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). Consequently, we need to examine what sustainability marketing means (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014) and explore “more deeply” the implementation of sustainability within the curriculum (Cotton et al., 2007); especially about the “roles, beliefs and experiences of sustainability academics in implementing effective sustainability pedagogical approaches and concepts” (Wood et al., 2016, p. 343), and in research (i.e. theory integration and publication experience).

However, no research has examined the interpretations of sustainability within marketing from numerous faculty perspectives. Therefore, Study One, through qualitative semi-structured interviews, seeks to understand why and how (e.g. through theory, research materials and pedagogy) sustainability is addressed in a ‘sustainability marketing’ course or integrated within existing marketing courses, and in their own research, providing the avenues through which sustainability is integrated in marketing academia.

1.3.2 Objective Two: To investigate the institutional, theoretical and philosophical barriers and opportunities towards the integration of sustainability within marketing academia

Understanding what it means to teach and research sustainability within marketing brings forth constraints and opportunities that marketing academics face when integrating these two topics. Through the understanding of current constraints in place which prevent the further and future
integration of sustainability within marketing academia, the discipline can begin to remove these barriers. Additionally, opportunities identified by marketing academics to integrate sustainability within marketing academia can serve as inspiration and as specific tools to help other marketing faculty interested in integrating sustainability within their own institution and research work.

Study One specifically examines the institutional, theoretical and philosophical issues (opportunities and constraints) towards the integration of sustainability within marketing academia. Studies have addressed the institutional (non)pressures related to accreditation bodies (e.g. Doherty et al., 2015; Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Swanson, 2005) and the ‘publish or perish’ mentality (e.g. Doherty et al., 2015; Springett & Kearins, 2001). However, studies have failed to empirically examine the possible theoretical and philosophical constraints on the integration of sustainability within marketing, such as on curriculum innovation and marketing theory, that several scholars have alluded to (e.g. Borland & Lindgreen, 2013; Kilbourne, McDonagh, & Prothero, 2013; Varey, 2010, 2011).

1.3.3 Objective Three: To examine the interpretation and prevalence of a sustainability worldview in marketing academics and students

Study Two involves a marketing faculty and student survey to provide a profile of the sustainability worldviews held by these members. The survey examines the philosophical and theoretical beliefs related to sustainability and marketing to assess the prevalence of values, beliefs, and attitudes which are favourable to sustainability’s integration within marketing. Furthermore, Study Two shines a light on the fundamental marketing and consumption assumptions academics and students hold, which allows a reflection of the disciplines’ theoretical and philosophical beliefs to be examined in relation to sustainability (i.e. limits to growth, consumer sovereignty and marketing responsibility).
The understandings and beliefs of marketing faculty and students are critical to curriculum development and teaching strategies. Students’ demand for certain topics, such as CSR and digital marketing, drive the integration and course creation of new topic areas. As such, a future where sustainability is integrated into the marketing academy must not only be advanced or advocated by faculty but also demanded by students. Assessing current sustainability knowledge, values, beliefs and attitudes in marketing students is warranted (Wilhelm, 2008), as well as sustainability values, beliefs and attitudes amongst faculty, providing evidence about how many marketing academics are qualified to teach (Nicholls et al., 2013), research or take a personal interest in sustainability.

1.4 Research approach

1.4.1 Scope of study

Addressing the research aim can yield several research directions and approaches. Marketing academia (education and research) was chosen as the context of this study and thus marketing academics and students became the natural research subjects.

The interview sample population was chosen as sustainability focused marketing academics to gain an in-depth understanding of sustainability within marketing academia. Due to the exploratory nature of the study, interviewing experts in the field allowed the meaning of sustainability within marketing to form, and issues and opportunities related to this integration to emerge. Following the interviews, the sample population was expanded to include all marketing faculty and students to further understand the opinions of those who were not necessarily focused or interested in sustainability. This sample population expansion allowed diverse voices to be heard, and specifically to understand sustainability related views and what it means to integrate sustainability within marketing from possibly different viewpoints.
The research was a study of breadth, conducting research on a global scale. A local approach could have been conducted (i.e. Australasia), however since a global approach would allow a comparison of regional viewpoints, this was preferred. In addition, if a local perspective was undertaken, depending on the classification of a sustainability focused marketing academic, there may have been an insufficient regional population size.

1.4.2 Methodology

Methodology is focused on the ways researchers can understand the world (Creswell, 2014). The three approaches to methodology or ‘strategies of inquiry’ are quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods (Creswell, 2014). Quantitative methodology is based on empiricism and is focused on facts and figures. A quantitative approach is useful for studying large samples, to test and validate theory, and determine cause-and-effect relationships (Creswell, 2014). Conversely, qualitative methodology originates from sociology and anthropology, and is concerned about the meaning people attach to objects, and how people think and act (Taylor, Bogdan, & DeVault, 2016). In this sense, qualitative researchers want to view the world as individuals or actors see it. The mixed method approach is a combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods, believing in the value of triangulation.

In this research, qualitative methodology lends itself well to this research seeking to interpret individuals’ experiences of social reality. Particularly prudent is that inductive reasoning which is involved with qualitative research is “sensitive to unstated assumptions and unarticulated meanings” (Taylor et al., 2016, p. 9), which is a key reason behind this research; making unarticulated meanings of sustainability and sustainability marketing known and finding the unstated assumptions of sustainability in students and faculty. However, although quantitative methodology, particularly the survey method, is usually associated with positivism, believing in a measurable and objective world, it can also be used in conjunction with
interprevistism (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). The survey instrument is designed, collected and analysed by people (researchers and participants), and as such, each step is subjective. Furthermore, the sought outcome and reason for utilising surveys is to uncover meaning from data, focusing on collecting data on differing worldviews.

Previous studies investigating faculty perceptions of social issues in business education have used qualitative methods (e.g. Green, 2015; Toubiana, 2014), and studies which have investigated faculty and student environmental concern, understanding of sustainability and integration of sustainability within subjects and curriculum, have used quantitative methods (e.g. Doh & Tashman, 2014; Oelfke, 2014). Other studies which have investigated sustainability within higher education have also used a mixed method approach (e.g. Butt, More, & Avery, 2013). This research took a two-study approach to collecting data. It is believed that both quantitative and qualitative research were important and useful in addressing the research objectives. Specifically, Objectives One and Two should be addressed through qualitative research as these were considered exploratory objectives, whereas Objective Three required more generalisable findings which is suited to quantitative research. The research design can be seen in Figure 1.1 Research on sustainability in higher education has been criticised for relying heavily on case studies (Corcoran, Walker, & Wals, 2004). Consequently, this study utilises both qualitative and quantitative methodologies and takes an international perspective.

To understand how individuals “see the world”, I wanted to gain both an in-depth understanding of a small amount of individuals views and experiences on sustainability in marketing academia, and a larger, more generalisable understanding of sustainability from the point of view of both academics and students, especially related to the marketing and business context. Firstly, the qualitative research was conducted to provide an exploratory, in-depth understanding of sustainability in the marketing discipline. Secondly, quantitative research was conducted, aided in part by some of the qualitative research findings, to provide an overview of
the sustainability worldviews present in the marketing academy. While qualitative and quantitative research followed in a sequential order, both studies had been planned from the start of the research.

1.4.3 Method

The aims of the semi-structured interviews were to understand the complex concept of sustainability in marketing and why such a concept is important, and examine the opportunities and constraints to its integration in marketing academia. Interviews were used to allow a greater focus on narrative data, which is critical to understanding personal perceptions of the interview participants (Butt et al., 2013). This study follows Toubiana’s (2014) suggestion that ‘personal is
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political’, suggesting that personal stories, and personal reflections and experiences, are usually linked to larger social constructs. Furthermore, interviews allow for an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon and can provide the basis or grounding for survey questions. Purposive sampling was employed to enable the selection of appropriate interview participants from marketing departments around the world; these were considered experts in the field of marketing sustainability. This sampling technique allows a researcher to select cases for study that are ‘information-rich’ (Suri, 2011). Interviews were carried out both in person, via the Internet (Skype), and over the phone to enable an international sample. The interviews were analysed through thematic analysis, specifically template analysis, which is a theoretically bounded procedure seeking patterns in the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The aim of the survey was to provide an impression of as large a number of marketing academics’ and students’ sustainability views as possible. The questionnaire was conducted via the Internet, using Qualtrics, with a URL link provided in emails and forum postings. To recruit participants, public postings were made on several Listservs and a Facebook group. Secondly, personal emails were sent to email addresses publicly listed in the proceedings of two conferences held in 2015 and one in 2016 (the latter included only presenters). Thirdly, most UK, Canadian, Australian and New Zealand marketing departments, and a major selection of European and a minor selection of US marketing department websites were consulted to obtain faculty email addresses. To recruit student participants, email contact was made with the personal connections my supervisors and I had, and with a few relevant faculty members who had listed interests in sustainability (identified when obtaining email addresses from individual marketing departments). Subsequently, faculty distributed the student survey through email or Blackboard postings. The statistical software SPSS Statistics 23.0 was used to analyse the data using a variety of statistical techniques such as cluster and factor analysis, ANOVA and independent sample t-tests.
1.5 Contribution to knowledge

This research explores why and how marketing academics integrate sustainability within their marketing research and teaching (i.e. theory and pedagogy); examines what barriers and opportunities exist towards the integration of sustainability within marketing academia; and the interpretation of sustainability and prevalence of a sustainability worldview (i.e. values, beliefs and attitudes) in marketing academics and students.

There is a growing demand for sustainability to be embedded in all parts of society, including the university. The findings will contribute to the growing body of literature examining sustainability in the marketing context and marketing education (i.e. Belz, 2005; Bridges & Wilhelm, 2008; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). At this point in time, there are numerous interpretations of sustainability in the literature, and thus a clearer understanding of what sustainability means for and in marketing studies is needed (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). Further, this study adds to the literature about a possible paradigm change towards sustainability in business and marketing academia (Eylon & Giacalone, 2000; Springett, 2010), specifically the barriers which need to be overcome for such a paradigm to be implemented.

Additionally, while studies have been conducted in the business discipline about sustainability education, there is a lack of studies on academic and student values, beliefs and attitudes, its integration within research (rather than just education) (Huge, Block, Waas, Wright, & Dahdouh-Guebas, 2016; Waas, Verbruggen, & Wright, 2010) and a lack of focus on the marketing discipline itself. It is particularly important to examine the views held in specific disciplines as each has its own assumption, background and theories (Christie, Miller, Cooke, & White, 2013; Christie et al., 2015; von der Heidt & Lamberton, 2014); “to ignore an academic’s worldview would embed EfS as an interesting, but irrelevant, practice” (Christie et al., 2015, p. 678). Indeed, an academic discipline and its established culture may play an important role in the
uptake of EfS and sustainability research (von der Heidt & Lamberton, 2014). Presumably this is why similar research has been conducted in tourism about how to integrate sustainability within education (Boyle, 2015; Wilson & von der Heidt, 2013) and theory (Hall, 2010). Consequently, Study Two seeks to understand the economic, social and environmental as well as marketing and consumption beliefs of marketing academics and students.

Research surrounding sustainability in business and marketing is still establishing itself, with even less known about marketing faculty and students’ perceptions of sustainability. Consequently, this research will provide the first in-depth information about faculty members’ and students’ views of sustainability. This study is also the first to provide an empirical overview of how sustainability is taught in the marketing curriculum and integrated into marketing theory, and academic perceptions of constraints and opportunities for the integration of sustainability in marketing academia.

This research answers the calls by researchers to investigate several interrelated issues. In response to Nicholls, Hair, Ragland, and Schimmel’s (2013) suggestions, this research examines whether enough qualified faculty are available to teach sustainability topics and how sustainability interpretations may differ among faculty. In addition, marketing students sustainability beliefs, attitudes, values and literacy will be examined which has been suggested as a needed area of research (Wilhelm, 2008). This study also responds to Toubiana’s (2014) request to further research business faculty concerns about institutional barriers and profit-driven ideology in regards to social justice, and specifically addresses institutional barriers and opportunities moving beyond “issues of pedagogical development to questions of institutional redesign” (p. 97). Consequently, this research questions both the role of the individual and the institution in promoting research and curriculum innovation. Specifically, this research considers what role faculty can play in furthering the sustainability agenda in marketing departments, seeking to further research on academics as change agents or institutional entrepreneurs as this is a recently
emerging area of study (Barber, Wilson, Venkatachalam, Cleaves, & Garnham, 2014; Wood et al., 2016). Lastly, Pereira Heath and Chatzidakis (2012) suggested future research should examine who marketers attribute responsibility to for current (unsustainable) consumption levels, which is specifically examined through marketing and consumption survey items.

Overall, to understand what needs to change in education and research, and the capacity and willingness to change, we must first investigate the current mind-set of marketing faculty and students. The implications of this study provide means to assess the current capacity of marketing education and research to adapt to changing conditions in society.

1.6 Thesis outline

A literature review chapter follows this chapter introducing the background literature and displaying research gaps relevant to both research studies. Figure 1.2 displays the thesis chapter outline. Chapter Three outlines the methodology for Study One outlining the method, sample selection, data collection and analysis of the 18 interviews with sustainability focused marketing academics. Chapter Four discusses the first empirical investigation and analyses results from the 18 interviews with marketing faculty. Chapter Five extends the Chapter Two literature review to include more relevant research for Study Two including background research on sustainability perceptions in the higher education context and worldview measures in quantitative research. Chapter Six outlines the methodology for Study Two discussing the issues of research method, data collection, the measuring instrument and data analysis of the student and academic survey. Chapter Seven reports on the quantitative findings of the survey of marketing faculty and students. Chapter Eight synthesises and discusses the findings from both studies, providing implications of the research. Lastly, Chapter Nine concludes this thesis with implications, future research suggestions and a wrap-up of the two studies.
Figure 1.2 Thesis chapter outline
Chapter Two

Literature Review

“Ecological awareness has been treated, like most virtues in the capitalist marketplace, as an individual taste rather than a social necessity”

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a review of the literature relevant to sustainability in marketing academia for both Study One and Two. To provide context and a conceptual framework for the exploration of sustainability and sustainability marketing, the theory of worldviews is discussed. This is followed by a review of education and research for sustainability, firstly discussing this in the broad business context and then in marketing academia. This is followed by an overview of the barriers to sustainability integration in higher education, focusing more specifically on business school research. In addition, institutional theory is discussed to provide a theoretical lens for institutional change, especially the role and ability of individuals to enact institutional change. The chapter concludes with a brief overview of the research and an outline of the research gaps.

2.1 Sustainability worldview

One of the major challenges facing society and business schools today is the complex and interrelated issues of climate change, land and water degradation, wealth and social disparities, weakening democratic institutions, war and religious conflict (Banuri, 2013; Fotopoulos, 2005; Klein, 2014). Many authors have identified that we are in, or currently on the very brink of, a crisis (e.g. Fotopoulos, 2005; Leaby, Bowden, & Threadgold, 2010; van Egmond & de Vries, 2011). Inclusive forms of sustainable development, or sustainability, encompasses ecological problems (e.g. climate change, ocean acidification, biodiversity loss), issues of equality (e.g. wealth, income, gender), human rights, and poverty alleviation (Connelly, 2007; Davidson, 2014; Daniella Tilbury & Ryan, 2011). However, the concept of sustainability raises several ideas about how to implement it. As such, support for policies of redistribution (e.g. wealth), conservation of natural resources, lifestyle and consumption changes, and new technologies differ greatly between interpretations of sustainability (Beddow et al., 2009; Davidson, 2014; Dunlap et al., 2000; Hopwood et al., 2005; Kurucz et al., 2014; Redding & Caro, 2011). Consequently,
sustainability worldviews and frameworks have been created, which include weak and strong sustainability, ecocentric and anthropocentric views/epistemology, the educational framework of Sterling (2011), Hopwood et al.’s (2005) mapping approach and Hedlund-de Witt (2013) research on sustainability worldviews based on her Integrative Worldview Framework. Figure 2.1 displays these sustainability frameworks.

O’Riordan and Cameron (1994) first discussed the weak and strong sustainability perspectives held by economists, which Neumayer (1999) expanded upon. Weak sustainability is seen as the substitutability paradigm wherein natural capital is “substitutable in the production of consumption of goods and as a direct provider of utility” (Neumayer, 1999, p. 1), therefore, it does not matter if natural resources are not available for future generations so long as other resources such as roads, ports and machinery “are built up in compensation” (p.1). This weak paradigm is based upon the work of two neo-classical economists Robert Solow (Citation) and John Hartwick (Neumayer, 1999). Strong sustainability is less clearly defined than weak sustainability, but there is a general belief that natural capital should be preserved for future generations and that natural capital is non-substitutable (Neumayer, 1999). The dimension of weak and strong sustainability is the most notable typology, however it has been criticised for its lack of diversity in the sustainability debate (Davidson, 2014). Another dichotomous approach to environmental views can be seen in the distinction between anthropocentric and ecocentric views.

The expression of environmental concern can also differ in terms of personal motives (Thompson & Barton, 1994). Anthropocentric and ecocentric views or epistemology, classify individuals according to why they value nature. An anthropocentric individual values nature because it maintains human life, while ecocentric individuals value nature because it has an intrinsic value and therefore deserves protection in its own right (Thompson & Barton, 1994). Expanding the concept further, Borland and Lindgreen (2013) define the anthropocentric
### Status Quo Approach
Sustainable development is possible within existing structures, strong support for free markets and some forms of government intervention are tolerated, and see natural capital as substitutable with human capital.

### Reform Approach
The root causes of unsustainability are the imbalance of information and knowledge, and view changes in economic and political structures as necessary but without fundamental transformation (i.e. market reform).

### Transformative Approach
The current relationships with people and the environment, and economic and power structures, are the root causes of unsustainability. The current capitalism model exploits nature and people, causes inequity and thus is a leading cause for environmental and social problems.

### Education about Sustainability
‘Doing things better’

### Education for Sustainability
‘Doing better things’, recognising that there are limits to the dominant paradigm and the existence of other paradigms and involves reflection and critical thinking, and building capability for action and change.

### Education as Sustainability
‘Seeing things differently’, challenges many beliefs and assumptions, thus leading to eventual paradigmatic change and gives primacy to the biosphere.

### Anthropocentric
Values nature because it maintains human life.

### Ecocentric
Values nature because it has an intrinsic value and therefore deserves protection in its own right.

### Weak Sustainability
Natural capital is seen as “substitutable in the production of consumption of goods”.

### Strong Sustainability
Natural capital should be preserved for future generations and that natural capital is non-substitutable.

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**‘Weaker’ sustainability view**

**‘Stronger’ sustainability view**

Figure 2.1 Sustainability frameworks (Hopwood et al., 2005; Neumayer, 1999; Sterling, 2011; Thompson and Barton, 1994)
epistemology as embracing human exemption from the constraints of nature and relating this view to the DSP. Conversely, the ecocentric epistemology, believes in the need for responsibility and stewardship towards nature and views the anthropocentric epistemology (or DSP) as the root cause of ecological problems. As such, the ecocentric epistemology is related to the NEP (Borland & Lindgreen, 2013; Dunlap, 2008). This critical reflection of the DSP is also examined in the sustainable education framework by Sterling (2011).

Sterling (2011) developed a theoretical framework for sustainability education based on Bateson’s (1972) three ‘levels of learning’. ‘Education about Sustainability’ adheres to Bateman’s (1972) Level 1 or first-order learning which concentrates on ‘doing things better’, a learning approach that occurs within the dominant paradigm (Sterling, 2011). ‘Education for Sustainability’, adheres to Bateson’s second-order change, which is also about ‘doing better things’ but recognises that there are limits to the dominant paradigm and the existence of other paradigms (Sterling, 2011). ‘Education for Sustainability’ involves reflection and critical thinking, and building capability for action and change (Sidiropoulos, 2014; Springett, 2005). The strongest view is ‘Education as Sustainability’ that “gives primacy to the biosphere, which in turn subordinates both social and economic systems…and necessitates a transformation of our systems and processes” (Sidiropoulos, 2014, p. 475). This is based on Bateson’s third-order change and Level 3 learning which focuses on ‘seeing things differently’, leading to eventual paradigmatic change (Sterling, 2011). This level of learning is said to be the hardest as it challenges many beliefs and assumptions which require new and reformed mental models (Sidiropoulos, 2014, p. 475). Like the sustainability education framework, Hopwood’s (2010) framework also overcomes the dichotomous approaches taken by strong and weak sustainability, and anthropocentric and ecocentric views.

Hopwood et al. (2005) maps three differing views (status quo, reform and transform) of sustainability. The status quo view sees sustainable development as possible within existing
structures or arrangements. There is strong support for free markets, but some forms of
government intervention are tolerated. Proponents of this perspective hold a weak view of
sustainability and see natural capital as substitutable with human capital (Davidson, 2014;
Hopwood et al., 2005; Neumayer, 1999). Reform view holders see the root causes of
unsustainability as the imbalance of information and knowledge, and view changes in economic
and political structures as necessary but without fundamental transformation. They acknowledge
that large shifts need to occur in policy and lifestyles, and therefore support market reform, but
within existing social and economic structures; a view held by most academics and non-
governmental organisations. Lastly, those who think a transformative approach is necessary
believe our current relationships with people and the environment, and economic and power
structures, is the root causes of unsustainability and that a radical transformation is required. In
addition, they usually view the current capitalism model as the exploitation of nature and people,
and see it as the leading cause for environmental and social problems. Hopwood et al. (2005)
clearly show that different sustainability worldviews exist which affect what sustainability
challenges are seen to exist and what the causes of these are, and finally, how to appropriately
solve sustainability issues.

Lastly, Hedlund-de Witt (Hedlund-de Witt, 2013; Hedlund-de Witt, de Boer, &
Boersema, 2014) extends her own doctoral research, highlighting the four differing sustainable
development worldviews: traditional, modern, postmodern, and integrative. The Integrative
Worldview Framework (IWF) is composed of five fundamental beliefs related to ontology,
epistemology, axiology (what is a ‘good life), anthropology (the human role and position is in the
universe), and societal vision (how organise and address societal problems) (Hedlund-de Witt,
2013). The fundamental beliefs related to ontology, epistemology and axiology do not specifically
relate to the environment and sustainability dimensions (i.e. belief in God, means of self-
expression and individuality and means to acquire knowledge), while anthropology and societal
vision beliefs are related to sustainability and the environment (de Witt, de Boer, Hedlund, & Osseweijer, 2016). Table 2.1 displays beliefs related only to the anthropology and societal vision.

**Table 2.1 de Witt’s sustainability worldviews (adapted from de Witt et al., 2016)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Worldview</th>
<th>Anthropology and societal vision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Integrative worldview</td>
<td>Humanity in unity and synergy with nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serving the larger whole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Human beings as evolutionary co-creators, with unrealised—potential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emphasis on services, creative industries, and social/sustainable entrepreneurship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emancipation, consciousness growth and a synthesis of interests, perspectives and solutions to societal and environmental problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postmodern worldview</td>
<td>Humanity in cautious relationship to nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Human beings as self-expressing, unique individuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-industrial societies, emphasis on service economy and creative industries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scepticism of status quo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mobilisation of the public (by revealing injustices) as solution to societal and environmental problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern worldview</td>
<td>Humanity in promethean control over nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Homo economicus and hedonistic, material pleasure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Industrial societies, emphasis on mechanised modes of production (i.e. conventional agriculture)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Science/technology as solutions to societal and environmental problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional worldview</td>
<td>Humanity in managerial stewardship role for nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prime social purposes determined by larger order and social roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dependent on religion. Religious authorities and values as source of solutions to societal and environmental problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Traditional societies, emphasis on (subsistence) farming</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research in the U.S. and the Netherlands found more concern about climate change, more political support for addressing climate change, consumption of less meat and an increased willingness to save more energy among ‘Postmoderns’ and ‘Integratives’, compared with ‘Moderns’ and ‘Traditionals’ (de Witt et al., 2016). However, substantial methodological limitations exist when trying to distinguish between these worldviews (i.e. low internal validity) (de Witt et al., 2016). When discarding the four worldview model conceptualised in her doctoral thesis (Hedlund-de Witt, 2013), de Witt’s other research has shown five worldviews through factor analysis: ‘Inner growth’ (inner growth as the primary focus in life), ‘Contemporary spirituality’ (spiritual connection), ‘Traditional god’ (religious belief and focus), ‘Focus on money’
(focus on axiology, in terms of money) and ‘Secular materialism’ (rejection of meaning, individualistic liberalism and belief in science) (Hedlund-de Witt et al., 2014). The latter two worldviews make significantly less sustainable food choices compared to the former two worldviews but correlations were small (Hedlund-de Witt et al., 2014). However, not all worldviews in this recent study contain elements of the five elements of a worldview (ontology, epistemology, axiology, anthropology, and societal vision). As such, research is ripe for further investigation into worldviews, especially in regards to sustainability.

2.2 The psychology and theory of worldviews

The psychology and theory of worldviews has only been conceptually addressed in-depth by Koltko-Rivera (2000; 2004), as such it is still a relatively young subject (Hedlund-de Witt, 2013). However, the concept of a worldview appears in a number of disciplines, including philosophy, sociology, psychology, and anthropology (Hedlund-de Witt, 2013). It is also heavily discussed in relation to sustainability (e.g. Beddoe et al., 2009; Hedlund-de Witt, 2013; van Egmond & de Vries, 2011; Van Opstal & Huge, 2012).

A worldview is how we make sense of the world and includes fundamental realities of the world around us (Olsen, Lodwick, & Dunlap, 1992). This includes the assumptions about life, objectives, (un)desirable behaviours and relationships, acceptable goals and overall “provide the epistemic and ontological foundations for other beliefs within a belief system” (Koltko-Rivera, 2004, p. 4). Worldviews can be defined as “the inescapable, overarching systems of meaning and meaning- making that inform how humans interpret, enact, and co-create reality” (Hedlund-de Witt, 2013, p. 156). Most importantly, worldviews shape how individuals perceive issues, their potential solutions and become a fundamental part of individuals’ identities (de Witt et al., 2016). Individuals can hold their own worldview, but societies also tend to have dominant worldviews (van Egmond & de Vries, 2011). The dominant worldview can be held by the
majority of a society or more critically, by the most powerful groups of society (Cotgrove, 1982). The term worldview is sometimes used interchangeably with social paradigm (Bawden & Williams, 2017). However, Olsen et al. (1992) argue that a social paradigm is limited to the perceptual and cognitive orientation that a group of individuals uses to interpret and explain aspects of social life. As such, a social paradigm is more restrictive than a worldview as it is held by only a group in society and not all members of society, and it pertains only to certain aspects of social life, not the totality of social existence.

Beliefs, values and attitudes are common in the marketing literature, but how these concepts are differentiated, especially from a worldview, needs to be examined. Examining the literature about worldviews (i.e. Koltko-Rivera, 2004; Olsen et al., 1992) and values (i.e. Rokeach, 1973, 1979), some disagreement can be seen about the definitions of worldviews, beliefs, and values.

Olsen et al. (1992) describe a worldview as containing belief systems and social values associated within the system. Therefore, to understand a worldview, beliefs and values must be examined. Social values involve what is good and bad or (un)desirable in social life communicating what “should be” (Olsen et al., 1992). Rokeach describes a value as “a single belief...that has a transcendental quality to it, guiding actions, attitudes, judgements and comparisons across specific objects and situations beyond immediate goals to more ultimate goals” (Rokeach, 1973, p. 18). Rokeach (1979) also identified two types of values: terminal values, which are composed of beliefs about desirable end-states (i.e. world peace), and instrumental values composed of beliefs about modes of conduct (i.e. honesty). Specifically, a belief is a specific idea about any aspect of life that individuals are convinced is true, regardless of evidence (Olsen et al., 1992). Similarly, a belief system is a set of interrelated beliefs which deals with a broad social condition, such as belief systems about family life, economic activities, human rights, and the meaning of life (Olsen et al., 1992). As such, individuals have numerous
belief systems which may sometimes be inconsistent with each other. Lastly, attitudes differ from both beliefs and values. An attitude is described by Rokeach (1973, p. 18) as “an organisation of several beliefs around a specific object or situation”. As such, an attitude is an expression of a value (Rokeach, 1979). Consequently, while values can be measured, this is usually done by asking questions related to beliefs and attitudes.

Koltko-Rivera (2004) also extends knowledge about beliefs and worldviews in a slightly different way. Koltko-Rivera (2004) described three types of beliefs: descriptive or existential beliefs, which are capable of being true or false; evaluative beliefs, an object of belief is judged to be good or bad; and prescriptive or proscriptive beliefs, the desirability of means or end of action is judged (usually considered a value). According to Koltko-Rivera (2004), only beliefs regarding the nature of reality, desirable (proper) guidelines for living, or the (non)existence of important entities are worldview beliefs. This interpretation is similar to Olsen et al. (1992) and Rokeach’s (1973, 1979) description of values, but goes beyond social dimensions to include the nature of reality. Furthermore, it seems that only the guidelines about living, rather than the nature of reality of existence of entities, may be related to the social world, specifically values, beliefs and attitudes related to sustainability.

Extending the worldview concept even further, Hedlund-de Witt created the IWF, surmising a worldview differently than previous authors. The IWF is composed of five fundamental beliefs related to ontology (nature of reality), epistemology (knowledge of reality), axiology (what is a ‘good life), anthropology (the human role and position is in the universe), and societal vision (how organise and address societal problems). As such, in comparing the worldview definitions of previous authors, Hedlund-de Witt and Koltko-Rivera (2004) can be seen as the most broad, while Olsen et al. (1992) is more limited towards social visions and anthropology, as can be seen in Figure 2.2.
2.2.1 Social paradigm and individual worldview transformation

Olsen et al. (1992) utilises Kuhn's (1962) theory of scientific paradigm change and Hegel’s (1942) three-stage paradigm dialectic model of change. Specifically, they suggest that change can occur from both internal logical contradictions and external discrepancies between beliefs, values and social conditions. Internal causes of paradigm change involve contradictions and inconsistencies in beliefs and values. External causes of paradigm change relate to beliefs and values which are incongruent with reality. This description of social paradigm change seems to relate more to individual rather than societal transformation in worldview, which is why Olsen et al. (1992) may prefer Hegel’s (1942) three-stage paradigm dialectic model of change over Kuhn's (1962) theory of scientific paradigm change.
In Hegel’s (1942) three-stage paradigm dialectic model of change, the first stage involves basic contradictions that appear and are utilised by organised collective action to create a new social paradigm. In the second stage, the antithesis tries to resolve the contradictions of the earlier stage (Olsen et al., 1992). However, the antithesis will still contain its own constrictions which will need to be resolved in the next stage. In the last stage, the synthesis, the integration of the thesis and antithesis into a new synthesis paradigm occurs. This synthesis paradigm incorporates ideas from both social paradigms, but integrates them into an entirely new social paradigm.

The theory of social paradigm change examines change at the societal level, however transformation at the individual level requires attention to different processes (i.e. agency vs structure debate). Worldview transformation has received only minor attention in psychology, especially in the case of threat and tragedy. In these studies, transformation is where “people experience fundamental shifts in perception that alter how they view and interact with themselves and the world around them” (Schlitz, Vieten, & Erickson-Freeman, 2011, p. 226).

Studies have discussed how changes in worldview are usually a combination of factors, termed destabilisers, and together these destabilisers can result in an ‘aha’ moment (Schlitz et al., 2011). Consequently, this pivotal moment “challenges people’s previous assumptions, leading them to change the way they see the world. Attempts to fit the new experiences or realizations into their old perspective fail, often forcing their awareness to expand to make room for the new insight” (Schlitz et al., 2011, p. 227). However, the differences in internal and external causes to such insight is not specified. In response to aging, Schlitz et al. (2011) sought to understand and help individuals deal with aging and death. Their study provides some relevant findings extending beyond the aging process, for example, greater self-awareness and guidance were key findings which helped the worldview transformation process.
However, changing one’s worldview is not easy. Dunbar, Fugelsang and Stein (2007) used Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) to investigate minor and major conceptual theory change in individuals, and showed that the learning centre of the brain, the caudate and parahippocampal gyrus, responds to theory-confirming data, while the brain activates the anterior cingulate cortex, precuneus and dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, associated with error detection, processing and working memory when disconfirming data is provided. Consequently, when individuals are presented with inconsistent information to their preconceived notions, learning does not easily occur. While inconsistent information is never easy to hear or to take on board, waiting for shifts in consciousness through random life-changing experiences, such as dangerous natural events, may be too little too late, as such “intentional practice and experiential education” have been predicted to enable worldview transformation (Schlitz, Vieten, & Miller, 2010, p. 31).

Social learning has been offered to provide a means for worldview reflection and transformation (Wals, 2009), alongside associated concepts like transformational learning and critical thinking (Kearins & Springett, 2003; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008; Wals, 2009, 2011). Specific recommendations or reflections for ways to elicit critical thinking in regards to our taken for granted assumptions, especially in the business world, have been discussed by several authors. Kearins and Springett (2003) take both a theory and practical approach to teaching students. Based on their critique of power relations and ideology, and social engagement (praxis), the authors take a stakeholder approach to teaching students about sustainability, reflecting on the differing views of stakeholders, and undertake several activities (reflecting on individuals’ environmental awareness and class goals, creating a timeline of events and their effects on people and the environment, site visits and personal class journey reflections). In addition, behind in-class discussion and assessments is the idea to “empower students to become active participants in setting their own learning goals” (p.198). Similarly, Redding and Cato’s (2011) module focused
on globalisation and other major business issues confronting business, such as the role of transnational corporations, new technologies, and environmental concerns, within the context of international trade, free trade, protectionism and social justice. They focused on interweaving a questioning and critical mind attitude throughout the courses, where students were encouraged repeatedly to “question everything”, “do not take our word for it” and “show me the evidence”, especially through online discussion boards. Stubbs and Cocklin (2008) advocate teaching business students about differing worldviews (neo-classical, eco-centric, ecological modernisation), suggesting that this approach, through reflexivity and critique, will “broaden the students’ perspectives on sustainability, while also engaging them at the personal level” (p.216).

Others have been interested in the effect of a sustainability/environmental course on students worldviews, however, so far research has only focused on and shown short-term change (e.g. Cordano, Ellis, & Scherer, 2003; Drissner, Haase, & Hille, 2010; Kossack & Bogner, 2012; McMillan, 2003; Rideout, 2005; Sellmann & Bogner, 2013; Sidiropoulos, Wex, & Sibley, 2013; Smith, 1995; Tomsen & Disinger, 1998; Zelezny, 1999).

Scholars have suggested that success in teaching and researching sustainability requires a change in universities’ thinking, curriculum and structure (Barber et al., 2014; Bosselmann, 2001). Curriculum in universities has been seen as anthropocentric and modernist-humanist which inhibits the pursuit of strong sustainability (Bosselmann, 2001). Consequently, while a “top-down” (managerial) approach to sustainability seems unlikely, a “bottom-up” (individual) approach, through faculty and students, has potential to implement change in curriculum and research. Giacalone (2004) called for business academics and lecturers to “be the change we want to see in the world” and to “live and teach the standards of a different worldview” (p.419). However, no empirical investigation has been carried out about the current state of these worldviews in business schools, or more specifically in marketing departments, or even how business academics view their roles as educators and researchers for a sustainable society.
2.3 The industrial worldview and its presence in business studies

The DSP can be explained with its emphasis on science, technology and consumption. It has a strong belief in economic growth, laissez-faire economics, human rule or domination over nature, individual property rights, and faith in technology to solve (environmental) problems (Dunlap & Van Liere, 1984; Kilbourne & Polonsky, 2005). Theoretically, the DSP is restricted to only social visions and anthropological beliefs or ‘guidelines’ about living. Consequently, as I am only interested in values, beliefs and attitudes related to sustainability, I will refer to worldviews as encompassing social visions and anthropological beliefs because the fundamental beliefs related to ontology, epistemology and axiology do not specifically relate to the environment and sustainability dimensions (i.e. belief in God, means of self-expression and individuality and means to acquire knowledge) (de Witt et al., 2016).

The DSP’s dominance, at least in Western society, is expressed in rationalist-humanist terms (van Egmond & de Vries, 2011). The most notable institutional representatives of this worldview are academia, government organisations, corporations (Van Dijk, 1989; van Egmond & de Vries, 2011) and business studies (Kilbourne, 2004; Springett, 2005, 2010). Scholars argue that society’s current scientific and technological success, especially our consumerist and materialistic society adhering to the DSP, is the root of our current unsustainability (Beddoe et al., 2009; van Egmond & de Vries, 2011; Varey, 2010, 2012). Such dominant thinking is contrasted with other worldviews focused more on social and environmental concerns; specifically the DSP is contrasted with the NEP.

The call for sustainability to be incorporated into business studies and marketing has been made by several scholars (e.g. Bridges & Wilhelm, 2008; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014; Sidiropoulos, 2014; Springett, 2005, 2010; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008) and can be seen splitting into two streams (Kilbourne & Beckmann, 1998; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). Micro-marketing or
managerial marketing usually focuses on how to achieve sustainability within an organisation without questioning key theoretical issues about continuous consumption and economic growth. In such managerial green and sustainable marketing discourses, the consumption of green products (and their eco-efficiency) contribute to sustainable development (Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012). Therefore, it is up to the consumer to choose to consume green products, an assumption also linked to consumer sovereignty (Schwarzkopf, 2011). In a similar vein, corporate sustainability is enacted because there is a ‘business-case’ for sustainability, or in other words, sustainability issues allow cost reductions, new markets and competitive advantages to occur (Allen, Cunliffe, & Easterby-Smith, 2017; Gao & Bansal, 2013; Hahn, Preuss, Pinkse, & Figge, 2014; Sharma & Jaiswal, 2017). Similarly, in education, this managerial stream sees sustainability education as incorporating knowledge about ecological limits and issues (such as use of recycled materials) and social issues, such as marketing to the poor and ethics. In this stream, sustainability is defined in terms of companies creating economic benefits, as well as environmental and social benefits (e.g. Rusinko, 2010).

Conversely, macromarketing, critical marketing and others in sociology and other humanistic disciplines, raise critical questions about what it means to be sustainable and how this can be achieved in marketing. This body of research sees the principles of sustainability as fundamentally incompatible with the current business worldview, and thus, business and marketing theory and education (e.g. Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Petocz & Dixon, 2011; Springett, 2005, 2010; Daniella Tilbury & Ryan, 2011), “the ontological and epistemological assumptions that currently characterize management education undermine the kind of orientation that is necessary to engage with sustainability and ethics-related issues within management” (Painter-Morland, 2015, p. 69).

This philosophical and theoretical splitting of sustainability in the business and marketing context is similar to Mulligan’s (1987) article which identified two cultures of business education.
The first culture, the science based view, or more accurately an engineering view, is more technical in nature and evaluates effectiveness in business. The second culture, the humanities based view, looks at why or what ought to be. I would argue, the same cultural split can be seen in sustainability in the context of business and marketing, with one stream looking at how a business and marketing can be sustainable (in business itself, by maintaining relationships with customers and using sustainable materials), while the other stream looks at what business ought to be in a sustainable society and questions the very nature of businesses and marketer’s role in society and sustainability. Just as moral judgment could not be supported by empirical means, neither can sustainability judgments, and thus, this is where issues of attitudes, values, and beliefs (worldviews) become key means of contention without any real means of settling who’s right or who’s wrong (Mulligan, 1987). Thus, while sustainability usually becomes a practical issue to those in the science based view, it becomes a moral and value issue (some could argue political) in the humanities based view. Therefore, empirical research investigating the differences in philosophical and theoretical point-of-views of sustainability in the context of the marketing discipline is warranted to understand whether this is a current barrier towards integration. The following discussion gives an overview of the scholars who have addressed the business worldview and its current (in)compatibility with sustainability related issues, such as the environment and ethics.

Gladwin et al. (1995) were one of the first to debate the business schools flawed, and potentially harmful, epistemological and ontological assumptions. They argue that the organisational management’s epistemological assumptions about humankind and the rest of nature is flawed with an “us and them mentality”; one of dualism. Moreover, they perceive management as having a flawed theory “which is at best limited and at worst pathological” (Gladwin et al., 1995, p.896). This organisational worldview is described as driven by placing business as a central role in society, materialism, and a desire for power and status, leading us to
justify ethics, usually in monetary terms (Giacalone & Thompson, 2006). Gladwin et al. (1995) propose three differing worldviews in organisational management: Ecocentrism (focus on nature), sustaincentrism (interconnection with humans and nature, and balance of environmental issues with social issues) and technocentrism (belief in human separation from nature and technological solutions to environmental problems). As such, an alternative worldview is needed, one based on postmodern or post-material values, social well-being, and focused on the betterment of people and planet, and on broader the community (Giacalone & Thompson, 2006). Overall, Gladwin et al. (1995) argue that business theory must remove infinite growth assumptions and move away from quantitative expansion to qualitative improvement. Similar epistemological observations are made by others who see the dominance of profit and self-interest preventing full integration of sustainability concepts in business and management education (Doherty et al., 2015; Painter-Morland, 2015).

Painter-Morland (2015) argues that management education has certain ontological and epistemological assumptions that undermine the ability to integrate responsible management education (RME). These ontological assumptions are about calculating well-being and wealth in monetary terms, and a continued focus on self-interest, while the epistemological assumptions are focused on utilitarian objectivism (self-interest as a moral imperative), fact over value (adopting positivist methodologies), and considering only what is measurable as valuable (justification in instrumental terms in the form of a monetary perspective). As such, thoughts have arisen about the current business worldview as one which “undermine[s] the most basic tenets of ethics and social responsibility” (Giacalone & Thompson, 2006, p. 267). As such, some have argued that a redefinition about the meaning of wealth, and thus well-being, is needed to successfully integrate responsible management principles (Beusch, 2014; McGregor, 2004; Varey, 2011).

The need to go beyond the economic metrics of success, wealth and happiness is
frequently embraced. Varey (2011, p. 17) describes a key contention between the “evolving post-industrial mind set” and the “prevailing politics of growth, the technocratic, scientific, economistic thinking of ‘progress’”. Likewise, McGregor (2004) states that economic growth is seen by developed countries as a major priority and remains relatively unquestioned. Others have argued that this infatuation with growth, in a finite planet, runs contradictory to sustainability (Daly, 2013; O’Neill, Dietz, & Jones, 2010). As such, “general economic-ideological ideas and principles” need to be re-thought (Beusch, 2014, p. 528) and overall, marketing must acknowledge its contribution to overconsumption and its effects on social and ecological systems (Hossain & Marinova, 2013; Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012; Varey, 2011).

Springett has been a vocal advocate of the ideological struggle in the business school, especially about integrating sustainability within business education. Overall, Springett (2005, 2010) views management orthodoxy, based on growth and reductionism, and on market-driven and competition values, as the antithesis to the radical ideas sustainable development demands. Management and business education promulgates the DSP, and sees sustainability as a threat to this “orthodox paradigm of business and business theory” (Springett, 2005, p. 148). Therefore, ideology critique, and critical and reflexive thinking, and active learning in business education must take place to effectively address this somewhat hidden ideology (Springett, 2005). Springett (2005, 2010) addresses this ideological struggle in the curriculum and suggests a course that considers values, specifically addressing the values and worldviews that have led to the sustainability crises, and questions how we can overcome it. As such, it has been suggested that students need to engage with different worldviews of sustainability, so that they can analyse their assumptions about business, society and the environment, which in turn will challenge their taken-for-granted assumptions (Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008).

The purpose of this research is to understand how academics are able to integrate the sometimes contradictory concepts of marketing and sustainability, and the barriers and changes
needed towards greater integration of sustainability within marketing academia. While previous studies have focused on business education, none have specifically focused on the barriers and changes needed in marketing academia; also going beyond previous studies which have only focused on education and not on research (Huge et al., 2016; Waas et al., 2010). Marketing may face different obstacles and pressures than other disciplines within business schools. This is due to marketing’s direct impact on product development and the promotion of continuous consumption, both of which have major implications of worsening social and environmental conditions, arguably much more so than other business areas (e.g. finance, human resources) (Assadourian, 2010; Gorge, Herbert, Özcaglar-Toulouse, & Robert, 2015). Marketing is also deeply embedded in the DSP, which is linked to unsustainability (Mittelstaedt, Shultz II, Kilbourne, & Peterson, 2014; Prothero, McDonagh, & Dobscha, 2010). Consequently, there is an increased interest in how marketing and sustainability can be integrated (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014; Prothero & McDonagh, 2015), and what barriers are present which might prevent a successful integration.

Furthermore, Giacalone and Thompson’s (2006) article, as well as many others, puts at the forefront the implication that business schools espouse a certain worldview. However, their article, while offering valuable insight, also assumes that this worldview remains “widely accepted” and that “few even question these assertions” (p.267). Furthermore, this assumption is also stated by McDonagh and Prothero (2014), who concluded that the current conservative stance on sustainability in previous literature and an absence of critical articles in A-level journals have led to sustainability being viewed by academics as a ‘non-pressing issue’. Thus, investigation into whether these assumptions are correct, and to what extent marketing academics and students hold a sustainability worldview dominated by business and economic principles, would be beneficial to understanding the business schools’ dilemma for integrating sustainability. Thus, this study is also a response to Toubiana’s (2014) research, which revealed that existing
hegemonic institutions and the “dominance of profit-based ideology” (p.98) prevented the full integration of social justice into business studies. This ideology originates from capitalism and neoliberalism foundations (Beusch, 2014; Bowles, 2014; Giroux, 2002; Harvey, 2007). No study thus far has investigated marketing students’ or faculty members’ sustainability related values, beliefs and attitudes, and its relationship to and consequences for marketing academia. The findings will highlight the current capacity of business schools to adapt to integrating sustainability into their marketing curriculum and research.

2.4 Education and research for sustainability


**Society:** an understanding of social institutions and their role in change and development, as well as the democratic and participatory systems which give opportunity for the expression of opinion, the selection of governments, the forging of consensus and the resolution of differences.

**Environment:** an awareness of the resources and fragility of the physical environment and the effects on it of human activity and decisions, with a commitment to factoring environmental concerns into social and economic policy development.

**Economy:** a sensitivity to the limits and potential of economic growth and their impact on society and on the environment, with a commitment to assess personal
and societal levels of consumption out of concern for the environment and for social justice

The UNDESD sought to educate students around the world about sustainability, this project started in 2005 and ended in 2014. Furthermore, the Australian Government’s Australian Learning and Teaching Council have offered five ‘levels’ in relation to conceptual sustainability skills (ALTC, 2010). They offer levels ranging from interpreting sustainability as keeping business ‘going’ to the three dimensions (environmental, social, economic) to understanding sustainability as complex process requiring systems and critical thinking. Research on education for sustainability has spawned multiple journals and conferences, and has gained attention in university management and strategy.

The emergence of specialised environmental and sustainability journals in the higher education domain demonstrates the interest shown in this field (Environmental Education Research, established 1995, and the International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education, established in 2000). More recently in 2007, there has been a call specifically for management education to include sustainability through the United Nations’ Principles for Responsible Management Education (PRME) initiative. Consequently, research in RME has gained traction in the last two or three years (e.g. Cornuel & Hommel, 2015; Dyllick, 2015; Godemann, Herzig, Moon, Atfield, & Kemp, 2013). RME is defined as integrating, incorporating and reflecting on corporate responsibility, sustainability, and ethics in the business curriculum but also in research practices and organisational strategies (Forray & Leigh., 2012; Rasche & Gilbert, 2015). However, years of research into sustainability education, suggests that there are differences in preferred learning styles and discourses.

Most notably, Sterling’s (2011) theoretical framework for sustainability education describes three ‘levels’ of sustainability learning as discussed previously. Learning and education for sustainability must at the very least address Bate’s second-order learning, recognising the
presence of numerous worldviews according to Sterling (Sterling, 2007). Consequently, I hereafter refer to sustainability education as EfS (Education for Sustainability). While other research has used similar terminology, such as Education for Sustainable Development (ESD), many have used EfS and ESD interchangeably (McKeown & Hopkins, 2003).

Several scholars have addressed the necessary components of EfS. As recommended by UNESCO (2004, p. 22), EfS should “emphasize experiential, inquiry-based, problem-solving, interdisciplinary systems approaches and critical thinking”. Similarly, Tilbury and Cooke (2005) discuss that in order to achieve EfS, the ‘capacity building’ skills of critical thinking, reflection, innovation and problem solving skills are needed. Further, EfS commonly has emancipatory values that enable the creation of empowered, engaged and competent citizens (Wals, 2011; Wals & Jickling, 2002). Rather than an instrumental perspective which focuses on behaviour change, the emancipatory perspective focuses on capacity building and critical thinking which will allow individuals to “understand what is going on in society, to ask critical questions and to determine for themselves what needs to be done” (Wals, 2011, p. 179). In addition, other forms of learning have been discussed in conjunction with EfS: transdisciplinary learning; transformative learning; anticipatory learning; experiential and participatory learning; collaborative learning; and social learning (Wals, 2009, 2011).

The critical components of EfS seem to be attitude, skills and knowledge (Hesselbarth & Schaltegger, 2014; Stubbs, 2013; Thomas, 2004). Knowledge has been suggested to include ecological concepts, environmental management systems and practices, understanding the different worldviews of nature and sustainability, and concepts of social global justice (Hesselbarth & Schaltegger, 2014; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008). Skills include advanced communication, negotiation, critical analysis and overall, the skills necessary to enact behaviour change if individuals choose to take action; while attitudes emphasises the need to encourage students to question their worldview, and to partake in critical and reflective thinking.
The need for critical reflection and worldview examination is heavily discussed in business education for sustainability. Kurucz et al. (2014, p. 438) see business schools as “systems that maintain taken-for-granted assumptions…where a narrow and skewed perspective on the relationship between economy, ecology, and society limits the potential for these institutions to positively impact complex global issues of sustainability”. Consequently, EfS in business studies is heavily geared towards getting students to engage in critical reflective thinking about the relationships between economy, ecology, and society (Kearins & Springett, 2003; Kurucz et al., 2014; Marshall et al., 2010; Springett, 2005, 2010; Springett & Kearins, 2001; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008), which also highlights the fact that academics and the business school itself must reflect on this as well. Indeed, academic staff “are participants in the paradigm shift—our role is to establish governance, research and curricular models that build awareness of the anomalies of Industrial Age business education and infuse inquiry into these models” (Marshall et al., 2010, p. 478). Consequently, this study focuses on not only on education, as previous studies have focused on (e.g. Dyllick, 2015; Stubbs, 2013), but also on research.

While most of the research and previous literature discussed focuses on education (Huge et al., 2016; Waas et al., 2010), higher education institutes also contribute to new knowledge and ideas, and engagement with the community, through research. Tony Cortese in the President's Council on Sustainable Development states that institutions for higher education “have the unique freedom to develop new ideas, comment on society, and engage in bold experiments, as well as to contribute to the creation of new knowledge” (President's Council on Sustainable Development, 1995, p. 5). Unfortunately, past research has found that only 10% of business schools articulate how their research activities address sustainability (Godemann et al., 2013). Most business schools embed sustainability across teaching, research and operations through
“bolt-on” measures (e.g. creating “research centres”) instead of changing the schools culture (Doherty et al., 2015; Godemann et al., 2013; Sharma & Hart, 2014). However, research centres can also imply long-term institutional support providing legitimacy and validation for sustainability (Christensen, Peirce, Hartman, Hoffman, & Carrier, 2007). Arguably, with research oriented-teaching, without research which engages in sustainability, there is little hope for the integration of sustainability within the curriculum. However, there remains a lack of research which examines the knowledge, ability and interest to integrate sustainability within the business schools research agenda.

2.5 Sustainability in business education

Overall, there has been mixed messages in regards to business schools adopting sustainability courses and the integration of sustainability in current courses. Fisher & Bonn (2011) found in a web-analysis that 42.5% of Australian universities made reference to sustainability in business degree related information, and that in the top 100 MBA programs 79% require students to take a business and society course, up from 34% in 2001 (The Aspen Institute, 2011). Similarly, research into CSR, ethics and sustainability education in the top 50 global MBA programs shows that over 80% require students to take one course/unit which covers one or all of these topics, while a third require students to take all three courses/units; however this is dominated by ethical topics (Christensen et al., 2007). Conversely, Wu, Huang, Kuo, & Wu (2010) content analysis found that only 6% of AACSB and EQUIS accredited business schools had either specific courses or course aspects incorporating sustainability-related issues. Further, 82 of the top US business schools offer little or no courses in green business and sustainability (Gloeckler, 2013). This lack of education on sustainability issues may be reflected in the beliefs and attitudes of business students, for example, 66% of MBA students surveyed see maximising shareholder value as a primary responsibility of business, while only 11% see enhancing environmental conditions as a primary responsibility (Aspen Institute Center for Business Education, 2008).
Consequently, there is a diverse range of studies that show both the successful and unsuccessful integration of sustainability within business studies. However, questions are also raised about the ‘type’ or discourse of sustainability promulgated by the business school. For example, Landrum and Ohsowski (2017) found that the majority of top readings assigned in sustainability business courses in the USA advocate a weak sustainability paradigm, following a ‘business-case’ for sustainability (i.e. benefiting business through new markets, competitive advantage).

Stronger sustainability perspectives in business curricula are still in their infancy. When sustainability has been integrated with business studies it is usually within the ‘weak’ sustainability paradigm, focusing on minor behavioural changes, a more ‘business as usual’ approach, and an emphasis on business and product efficiency and effectiveness (Dobers & Springett, 2010; Sidiropoulos, 2014; Springett, 2005; Springett & Kearins, 2001). Similarly, there is a focus on environmental sustainability, as seen by business students’ main understanding of sustainability (Rogers, 2011; Weaven et al., 2013).

The largest body of literature in sustainability and business studies illustrates how courses have integrated the two. Studies focus on undergraduate and postgraduate education, with the latter receiving more attention through an MBA focus. Studies have focused on redesigning courses (e.g. Redding & Cato, 2011), reporting on current courses or programs for professionals (e.g. Stubbs, 2013), implementing sustainability in business studies in/ across countries (e.g. Fisher & Bonn, 2011), and integration into coursework (e.g. Barber et al., 2014). Surprisingly, only a limited number of studies examine the effects of such courses on student attitudes, values, or understanding; however there are a few exceptions (e.g. Cordano, Ellis, & Scherer, 2003; Hesselbarth & Schaltegger, 2014; Sidiropoulos, 2014).

There is also another body of research that questions what pedagogic methods are suitable for sustainability in business studies. There are many reflections of pedagogy for EfS because of the complex nature of sustainability (Wood et al., 2016). This includes research
advocating and suggesting the use of active learning (e.g. MacVaugh & Norton, 2012), reflective assignments (e.g. Rands, 2009), and internship projects/work experience (e.g. Stubbs, 2013). More radical approaches to integration also focus on changing the perspectives taught to students, including a critical management perspective (e.g. Redding & Cato, 2011), critical thinking or critical theory perspective (e.g. Kearins & Springett, 2003; Parliamentary Commissioner for the Environment, 2005; Redding & Cato, 2011; Springett, 2005, 2010; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008; Vaughter, Tarah, McKenzie, & Lidstone, 2013), systems thinking (e.g. Stubbs, 2013), reflexive learning (e.g. Stubbs, 2013), and engaging a questioning attitude (e.g. Marshall et al., 2010). For example, Stubbs and Cocklin (2008) advocated teaching business students about differing worldviews. They encourage “this approach (primarily using reflexivity and critique) to broaden the students’ perspectives on sustainability, while also engaging them at the personal level” (p.216). These worldviews include Neoclassical, which views the purpose of business is to increase profits; Ecological modernisation, which views the purpose of business as pursing economic, social and environmental goals; and Ecocentric, which views the purpose of business is to increase quality of life and social equity. Furthermore, EfS scholars have suggested community service-learning and problem-based learning (Shephard, 2008; Sipos, Battisti, & Grimm, 2008), while others have reflected on the very purpose of business education (Clarke, Gray, & Mearman, 2006).

Clarke et al. (2006) provide an overview of marketing education philosophy, and help to highlight the debate between “education for work” and “education for life”. The authors advocate a more macro and critical focus in marketing, stating that “to educate marketing students, they should not only be taught marketing, but should also be taught criticisms of marketing” (p. 194). Clarke et al. (2006) provide the distinction between intrinsic and instrumental education which they view as the key contention between those that advocate “education for work” and “education for life”. Intrinsic education views education as having
value in and of itself, interested in expanding the intellectual mind and understanding of the world. In contrast, instrumental education is based on producing workers; education is seen as a way to get a job. Indeed, it has been argued that current higher education is based on this type of education (Springett & Kearins, 2001). Courses and programs are demand driven, where students are seen as the customer, and students attend university purely to increase their chances of gaining a job and wealth (Clarke et al., 2006). It is by not understanding both the good and bad of marketing and business that uncritical students are produced. Consequently, as discussed previously, scholars have also called for increased critical learning and thinking in higher education and business studies (e.g. Kearins & Springett, 2003; Redding & Cato, 2011; Springett, 2005, 2010; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008).

2.6 Sustainability in marketing education

Sustainability in the marketing curriculum has gained little traction over the years, despite the increasing popularity of the concept in other disciplines (Nicholls et al., 2013; Rundle-Thiele & Wymer, 2010; Weber, 2013; Wymer & Rundle-Thiele, 2016). There is evidence to suggest that the marketing curriculum has so far failed to successfully address and integrate sustainability. For example, Weber (2013) looked at a relatively small sample of universities which had applied to the Beyond Pinstripes programme (focused on sustainability), and found that 16% of graduate marketing courses allocated 50% of course time to ethical, social, and sustainability issues, which was low compared to 50% of graduate management courses. Additionally, they found that only 10% of graduate marketing courses allocated 75% to 100% of course time to these issues. Furthermore, Delong and McDermott (2013) surveyed marketing deans/heads of department at AACSB-accredited institutes and found that more than 50% did not integrate sustainability into the marketing curriculum. Similarly, sustainability was included in only 40% of marketing courses in AACSB accredited business schools in the United States (Nicholls et al., 2013). However, sustainability courses were offered more than ethics and corporate social responsibility courses in
Australia and New Zealand (Rundle-Thiele & Wymer, 2010). So, while there are mixed messages about how well sustainability is being integrated within the marketing curriculum, it seems to be gaining traction.

Considering that marketing courses, and indeed all university courses, usually prescribe a textbook, the extent to which sustainability is addressed in marketing textbooks is important. Demoss and Nicholson (2005) examined exposure to environmental sustainability issues in introductory marketing textbooks through page exposure. Their analysis covered 21 marketing textbooks and found that from less than 1% to 5.86%, with an average of 2.65%, of textbook space was devoted to sustainable practices. At the time of their study, no sustainability marketing textbooks existed except for Fuller’s (1999) *Sustainable Marketing*. However, after 2005, three sustainability marketing textbooks were published by Emery (2010), Belz and Peattie (2009), and Martin and Schouten (2012), showing increased interest and (arguably) demand for such textbooks.

In marketing education research, scholars in education research have suggested ways sustainability can be addressed through the marketing curriculum. Wilhelm (2008) has suggested an interdisciplinary approach in marketing education for sustainability, which includes the concepts of biomimicry, clean technology, CSR, cradle-to-cradle design, ecological footprint, full cost accounting, global warming, natural capital, pollution prevention, macromarketing, precautionary principles, resource recovery, social entrepreneurship, social justice, social marketing, sustainable and green marketing, triple bottom line and EfS. In addition, Wilhelm (2008) points to the need to re-examine the validity of the DSP or “unsustainable myths” and consider alternative sustainable economic and business models. Similarly, Bridges and Wilhelm (2008) discuss how educators can incorporate sustainability through the 4P’s: Product (biomimicry, cradle-to-cradle, certifications, product take-back and demarketing), Price (full-cost
Other scholars have also focused on ‘greening’ the 4P’s in marketing education. Demoss and Nicholson (2005) used the 4P’s to identify how much marketing textbooks discussed environmental/green/sustainability issues. Utilising the same framework, Borin and Metcalf (2010) discussed how sustainability marketing orientated learning objectives and activities applied to the 4P’s. These activities were related to different types of learning: Foundation (play Fish Banks, Ltd., learning about overfishing), Caring (reflective assignment on changed attitudes and behaviour), Application (develop a new product/service), Human Dimension (compare locally produced with non-locally produced products), and Integration (compare products on miles travelled, CO2 emissions, waste generated, and energy used, and discuss possible alternatives to mitigate the impacts). Lastly, Pomering, Noble, and Johnson (2008) suggest the need to consider marketing mix implications on ‘People’ (employees and communities) and ‘Planet’. Other marketing educators have suggested various pedagogies to incorporate sustainability within the curriculum (e.g. Bascoul, Schmitt, Rasolofoarison, Chamberlain, & Lee, 2013; Pentina & Guilloux, 2010; Rountree & Koernig, 2015).

Rountree and Koernig (2015) use values-based learning to incorporate sustainability within two non-profit marketing courses. The focus of their courses is to address topics such as pollution, public health and medicine, humanitarian and refugee migration issues through visiting non-profits and social enterprises. Similarly, a service-learning approach has also been used to teach environmental sustainability, using social marketing as a integrative framework (Wiese & Sherman, 2011). Also focusing on the environment, Bascoul, Schmitt, Rasolofoarison, Chamberlain, and Lee (2013) focus on the product life cycle through a novel business game introduced to marketing students to learn about the environmental impact of a product. Similarly, Pentina and Guilloux (2010) focused on developing students marketing
communications skills (i.e. promotion of green products) in a multi-cultural team project, with the aim to highlight the international and cultural differences in consumers’ understanding of environmental sustainability. A macromarketing approach to sustainable enterprise and sustainability has also been offered, advocating for critical reflection on marketing and business practices (Reppel, 2012). While social marketing has been frequently associated with sustainability, specifically adoption of sustainable behaviours, studies have yet to address this in approaches or pedagogy in marketing education research.

2.7 Sustainability in marketing research

While sustainability has entered marketing research, sustainability marketing is still overwhelmingly understudied (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014; Purani et al., 2014). There have been several special issues on sustainability; seven published (Journal of Macromarketing (twice), Journal of Marketing Management (twice), European Journal of Marketing, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Australasian Marketing Journal and Business Strategy and the Environment), with three more in the works (Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, Management Decision, and Journal of Public Affairs). In addition, other special issues on sustainable, ethical and anti-consumption also exist (McEachern & Carrigan, 2012). Despite this increased interest, especially comparative to other marketing issues and topics, there has been a lack of publications in A-level marketing journals; Purani et al. (2014) found in their analysis that only 2% of articles in ten of the most highly ranked marketing journals were devoted to sustainability.

Similar, yet vastly different concepts of ecological and green marketing fall short of truly addressing the complex needs of sustainability. Around the 1970s, ecological marketing began to take shape (Peattie, 2001; van Dam & Apeldoorn, 1996). This stream of marketing was concerned about industries with clear environmental hazards and focused on purely environmental issues like pollution, oil spills and the ecological impacts of products such as
synthetic pesticides (Peattie, 2001; Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995). However, there were also businesses like The Body Shop in this time period which ingrained environmental and social values in their mission and culture responding to entrepreneurial vision rather than consumer demand (Peattie, 2001). Green marketing emerged later in the 1980s with increasing demand from the emergence of the so-called ‘green consumer’ leading to new markets and competitive advantages (Peattie, 2001; van Dam & Apeldoorn, 1996). Green marketing focused on the marketing of ‘green’ products beyond those that cause obvious environmental harm.

As a consequence of the abundance of green marketing claims, their lack of claim credibility and perceived lower performance of green products, consumer scepticism was high (Crane, 2000; Peattie & Crane, 2005). In addition, the attitude-behaviour gap featured prominently in green buying (Peattie, 2001). The difference between green and ecological marketing is that the former conforms to consumer pressure, while the latter is based on some sort of moral dimension (van Dam & Apeldoorn, 1996). However, both these concepts overestimate the demand, willingness, and ability of the consumer to purchase environmentally friendly products (as they are usually charged at a premium), and for the producer to create such goods (van Dam & Apeldoorn, 1996). Extending ecological and green marketing, sustainable marketing has been offered by some to redefine the scale of marketing (Gordon et al., 2011; van Dam & Apeldoorn, 1996), and “towards radical changes in the way we live, produce, market and consume” (Peattie, 2001, p. 144).

Consequently, sustainability and sustainable marketing is the product of the evolution of the sustainability agenda in marketing over the last thirty years. Sheth and Parvatiyar (1995) are most often cited as the first to use the term sustainable marketing (Bedek, 2011; García-Rosell & Moisander, 2008; Mitchell, Wooliscroft, & Higham, 2010). Murphy (2005) identifies a split in the sustainable marketing definition between the Americans and Europeans, with the former taking a managerial approach and the latter a broader perspective. Since 1995, many different
definitions of both sustainable and sustainability marketing have been offered (e.g. Belz, 2005; Belz & Peattie, 2009; van Dam & Apeldoorn, 1996), Table 2.2 displays some of these definitions. Research most often cites Belz’s (2005, p. 2) definition, in which sustainability marketing “is building and maintaining sustainable relationships with customers, the social environment and the natural environment”. Rarely talked about however is Belz’s (2005) sustainability marketing steps which help clarify the broad definition often cited.

Table 2.2 Sustainability marketing definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sustainability Marketing Definition</th>
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<tr>
<td>The marketing within and supportive of sustainable economic development.</td>
<td>van Dam &amp; Apeldoorn, 1996, p. 46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable marketing is the process of creating, communicating and delivering value to customers in such a way that both natural and human capital are preserved or enhanced throughout. As the interface between business and society, sustainable marketing has two imperatives: (1) marketing sustainably, i.e. designing and supporting organizational cultures and processes such that all marketing processes are environmentally and socially benign; and (2) marketing sustainability, i.e. advancing and supporting a global culture of sustainable consumption as a concept, a cultural value and a set of consumption practices.</td>
<td>Martin &amp; Schouten, 2014, p. 108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The process of creating, communicating, and delivering value to customers in such a way that both natural and human capital are preserved and enhanced throughout.</td>
<td>Martin &amp; Schouten, 2012, p. 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainability marketing is building and maintaining sustainable relationships with customers, the social environment and the natural environment.</td>
<td>Belz, 2005, p. 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are other similar terms used for green marketing, such as environmental marketing, ecological marketing and sustainable marketing.</td>
<td>Garg, 2015, p. 302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A process of creating, developing and maintaining relationships (with customers and other business partners) and representing of sustainable value, together with sustainable development (economic, social and the sustainability of natural environment). In order to create a sustainable value to consumers, it is necessary to create sustainable marketing mix instruments – product, price, channel of distribution and promotion.</td>
<td>Rakic &amp; Rakic, 2013, p. 453</td>
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Belz’s (2005) conceptualisation includes a normative step (corporate statements, guidelines, principles and goals), a strategic step (positioning and targeting of market segments, product quality, and timing of market entry), an instrumental step (‘greening’ the marketing mix) and a transformational step (participate in public and political processes to remove institutional
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barriers towards sustainability). Similarly, Gordon et al. (2011) provides a framework of sustainable marketing by combining green, social and critical marketing. In their framework of sustainable marketing it is outlined as the use of green or sustainable products; sustainable marketing communication practices, distribution and prices (green marketing); promotion of sustainable lifestyles and sustainable behaviour change (social marketing); critique and reflection of the dominant positivist stream; and the re-shaping of the marketing system through upstream interventions (critical marketing). These conceptualisations of sustainability marketing present sustainability as a critical player in questioning the current institutions (i.e. the dominant positivist stream) which prevent the integration of sustainability within marketing (Belz, 2005, 2006; Gordon et al., 2011). However, even after 20 years of research, McDonagh and Prothero (2014) implore future research to engage with the question ‘what is sustainability marketing’; this is most likely a reflection of sustainability’s own complex and debated definition (Hopwood et al., 2005; Sidiropoulos, 2014).

The relationship between marketing and sustainability seems to be a non-contention for many marketers. However, for those in macromarketing, critical marketing and those outside the marketing discipline, the issues of sustainability in marketing raise critical questions about what it means to be sustainable and how this can be achieved in marketing (Kilbourne, McDonagh, & Prothero, 1997; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014; Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012; Varey, 2011). The rate of consumption in developed countries is unsustainable; if all we all consumed like the USA, we’d need four planets (McDonald, 2015). Present in most green and sustainable marketing discourses is the belief that green products and their eco-efficiency will help contribute to sustainable development, or in other words; the answer to unsustainable consumption was, and currently still is, more consumption of green products (Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012). While this remains true in part, we ignore the issue that overconsumption is still an issue and that replacing products with green ones hardly addresses the use of resources in
our limited planet or social issues related to production of these goods (working condition, fair wage etc.) (Varey, 2011). While key theoretical barriers may be in place in integrating sustainability and marketing (Springett, 2010; Varey, 2011), few studies have examined this perspective from those who are currently engaged with sustainability marketing research and teaching. In addition, no research has examined other possible barriers towards the integration of sustainability in marketing academia.

2.8 Barriers to the integration of sustainability in business schools

Studies have addressed either conceptually or empirically institutional (non)pressures related to accreditation bodies (e.g. Doherty et al., 2015; Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Swanson, 2005) and the ‘publish or perish’ mentality (i.e. publication in A-level journals, high number of publications, and citation, all of which imply quantity as well as quality) (e.g. Doherty et al., 2015; Springett & Kearins, 2001), but have failed to empirically test the philosophical, theoretical/historical or ideological pressures on curriculum innovation and scholarship. Additionally, studies on the barriers towards the integration of sustainability within universities and business schools focus only on one-off case studies (e.g. Barber et al., 2014). Such research fails to provide a greater overview of the barriers perceived by academics who, usually on their own, try to implement sustainability within their teachings and research. As such, since individuals rather than university policy usually drive the integration of sustainability within education (Barber et al., 2014; Cotton et al., 2007; von der Heidt et al., 2012), we must investigate the barriers these individuals face and provide stories, inspiration and suggestions for ways forward. Therefore, institutional theory, and research on institutional entrepreneurship and change agents, provide a theoretical lens to understand institutional change.

Institutions consist of norms and values supported by societal consensus and provide frameworks for appropriate or acceptable behaviour; these can be analysed through the micro
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(individual), meso (firm) and macro (society) level (Dixon 1984; Kennedy 2015b). Institutions are created as meanings, and become shared and taken for granted (Hardy & Maguire, 2008). Institutions can evolve, as they are shaped and created through social interactions and contexts, which are constantly changing (Lach, Ingram, and Rayner 2004). These institutions define reality for an organisation, “explaining what is and is not, what can be acted upon and what cannot” (Hoffman, 1999, p. 351). Organisational scholars, adopting either economic, sociological, or cognitive perspectives, have focused on the role that institutions play in providing stability in organisations (Garud, Hardy, & Maguire, 2007). Additionally, sociological perspectives on institutional theory also describe and explain how institutional arrangements offer legitimacy to an organisation (Garud et al., 2007). Moreover, DiMaggio (1988, p. 5) explains that institutional theory can help understand the “circumstances that cause the actors who recognize and try to act on their interests to be unable to do so effectively”.

Early new institutional literature has focused on isomorphic effects of institutional pressures and the role of legitimacy (Caprar & Neville, 2012). Institutional theory posits that pressures from stakeholders will lead to isomorphic adoption. Institutional isomorphism is a tendency for organisations in institutional fields to become similar over time through processes that diffuse ideas, practices and structures (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). Institutional factors as discussed by DiMaggio and Powell (1983), refer to coercive (pressure from the external environment to avoid sanctions), mimetic (mimic more legitimate and successful organisations) or normative (because it is the right thing to do) isomorphic pressures related to sustaining legitimacy. Such pressures and barriers have been examined in previous higher education research, however, very few utilise an institutional lens to understand and interpret their findings (e.g. Barber et al., 2014; de Lange, 2013; Doherty et al., 2015).

Institutional fields are groups of organisations guided by institutional practices and interact frequently with one another (Scott, 2014). As such, sustainability and RME, as well as
EfS, are part of the larger organisational field of management education (Rasche & Gilbert, 2015). Specifically, the business school and marketing academy is an institutional field of activity within the field of higher education as well as the business and marketing industry (Barber et al., 2014). The marketing academy actively promotes marketing research over research in other but related areas, such as psychology, economics and management. Dedicated marketing journals exist that differentiate this research from others in different disciplines. Administrative marketing units provide reward structures as well as promotion and tenure criteria (Tuttle & Dillard, 2007). Therefore, actors in this field include business schools, accreditation agencies, governmental regulators and funders, student organisations (e.g. Net Impact), ranking systems, and professional networks (e.g. the Globally Responsible Leadership Initiative), as well as their main stakeholders, namely, industry, students and academics (Barber et al., 2014; Rasche & Gilbert, 2015). However, these actors have competing and sometimes contradictory institutional pressures and logics on management education (Alajoutsijarvi, Juusola, & Siltaoja, 2015; Boyle, 2004; Dacin, Goodstein, & Scott, 2002; Finch et al., 2015; Rasche & Gilbert, 2015).

Tuttle and Dillard (2007) provide an excellent overview of institutional isomorphism in accounting research which provide very relevant and key reflections of the marketing academy. Topics of articles published journal as well as school rankings can constitute a mimetic isomorphism for the marketing academy. While coercive isomorphism arises when gatekeepers (e.g. journal editors) reject research that does not conform to a narrow and specified set of evaluation criteria (e.g. quantitative versus qualitative research, research topic). Normative isomorphism occurs for example in the formal education and legitimisation of the marketing knowledge base. For example, marketing Ph.D. programs impart norms, assumptions (e.g. market solutions, consumer sovereignty), define acceptable behaviours (i.e. acceptable research topics as well as methods), promulgate ideals (i.e. profit maximisation), and overall provide a common neo-liberal capitalist worldview.
Firstly, I discuss the broad institutional barriers in place that have been found in previous higher education studies, focusing mostly on the business school. Secondly, I elaborate on the philosophical and theoretical barriers towards sustainability’s integration in marketing academia drawing inspiration from institutional cognitive rules, and the work of Springett (2005, 2010) and Painter-Morland (2015), among others, who stress the need to examine the belief (epistemology) systems present in business and management education and theory. Lastly, I discuss briefly institutional entrepreneurship and change agents, specifically focusing on research in higher education.

2.8.1 Institutional barriers

Institutional theory explains the stability and continuity within a specific organisational and cultural context by analysing how ideas, norms, rules and beliefs provide the rational basis for actors (Dobers, Linderstrom, & Mobjork, 2008; Suddaby & Viale, 2011). Institutional theory helps us understand why organisations, society or groups of individuals are resistant to change. However, it can also aid in our understanding of how and why change can be brought about, especially in organisations (Dacin et al., 2002).

It is because of a continued divergence between societal values (and arguably, needs) and the business schools values and offerings, that the legitimacy of the business school is being called into question (Boyle, 2004; Snelson-Powell, Grosvold, & Millington, 2016). The business school needs to undergo fundamental changes, as stated by Dyllick (2015, p. 17), especially “if business schools want to be a provider of solutions to the multi-faceted global crises we are facing and thereby regain their legitimacy”. Legitimacy allows organisations, like the business school, to appear appropriate and allows the organisation to access resources such as funding (Johnson, Dowd, & Ridgeway, 2006). In other words, it allows the organisation to survive (Thomas & Wilson, 2011). Therefore, any incongruence between the norms, values, beliefs and
definitions of an organisation and society may lead to a legitimacy deficit, making it susceptible to claims that it is negligent, irrational or (potentially) unnecessary (Sillince and Brown, 2009). Although business schools have gained legitimacy through a variety of means, legitimacy can always come under threat (Johnson et al., 2006; Suchman, 1995).

The business school has various administrative structures, for example differing on their integration within the university system (some are entirely separate), whether they focus on undergraduate and/or postgraduate education, and their funding model (i.e. private or public institute) (Üsdiken, 2004). In addition, business school models differ slightly by region due to institutionalisation reflecting past traditions and history (Kieser, 2004; Kipping, Üsdiken, & Puig, 2004; Üsdiken, 2004). As such, the business schools’ development can be divided into three streams of emergence: a “Southern” model led by France and Belgium, a “Northern” model led by Germany, and the American model (Kaplan, 2014).

Business education officially began in Europe, with the world’s first business school, ESCP Europe, opening in Paris in 1819 (Blanchard, 2009). However, the business discipline had an introduction to the academic world well before this time, since in the early 1700s economic science chairs were a part of the university (Engwall, 2004). This “Southern” model was social and demand-oriented influenced by neo-classical economics, and was based on a theoretical and practical approach to business education (Kaplan, 2014). It followed the engineering schools model and thus, rejected the university model (Blanchard, 2009). It is important to note that the Chamber of Commerce had first refused to fund the French business school, rejecting the institutionalisation of business education because they believed that management could only be learnt in practice (Blanchard, 2009; Kaplan, 2014). However, in 1869, the Chamber acquired the school and thus, the French business school developed outside the public university system (Blanchard, 2009). In 1852, the second “pioneering institution” was the Belgium Higher Institute of Commerce, funded by the state, in Antwerp (Kaplan, 2014). The program was similar to
ESCP Europe’s curriculum, including courses such as geography, history, and foreign languages (Kaplan, 2014).

The “Northern” model was first established in Germany by the creation of Handelshochschule Leipzig, founded in 1898, with the influence of the Leipzig Chamber of Commerce (Kaplan, 2014; Kieser, 2004). The school, like many other European business schools, was created outside the public university system, however it merged into the university system in 1915 (Kaplan, 2014; Kieser, 2004). The curriculum included economics, law, bookkeeping, and foreign languages (Kieser, 2004) and was the basis for the early Nordic business schools (Engwall, 2004). The “Northern” model moved towards academicisation; a contrast to the French business schools which resisted such an approach (Kaplan, 2014). However, the German business schools still received criticism for trying to teach something that should be learned in practice (Kieser, 2004). This eventually led to the development of a new academic field, called Betriebswirtschaftslehre (science of business administration) (Kaplan, 2014; Üsdiken, 2004). Eugen Schmalenbach maintained that a business school’s objective was to increase common welfare rather than to increase profit (Kieser, 2004), which helped management become recognised as an academic discipline (Kaplan, 2014). However, American business schools and their ideology, based on Taylorism, influenced the German business school, especially after World War II (Kieser, 2004). Though, the European schools academic tradition, favouring science over practical training, was a substantial barrier towards Americanisation (Locke, 1989).

The American business schools’ history begins with the formation of the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, founded in 1881 by Joseph Wharton (Wren & Van Fleet, 1983). The school’s purpose was seen as the “improvement of economic efficiency, especially through labor productivity” (Kaplan, 2014, p. 530), and influenced by Taylorism and the work of Adam Smith (Kieser, 2004). Following this, in 1908, the Harvard Business School was
established, and created both the case-study approach and the MBA degree (Kaplan, 2014). The American business school’s curriculum was less interdisciplinary than European schools and comprised mainly of business and finance courses (Kaplan, 2014). Additionally, a large focus was on graduate education, with an emphasis on the MBA (Üsdiken, 2004).

European business schools and American business schools differed in their purpose and scope. European schools “were international in scope, created to deliver value for society at large; they were interdisciplinary in nature and practically-oriented” (Kaplan, 2014, p. 531). These values can be traced to the origins of the founding of the business schools, with Schmalenbach viewing societal welfare as the main driver of business, whereas US schools, dominated by thoughts of Taylorism, saw profit as the main objective.

The neoliberal worldview (or DSP) ingrained in the American business school has emerged due to the purpose and very philosophy of the business itself in the late 1800’s. The industrial revolution was the most recent, and possibly most significant, shift in commerce ever seen. The revolution was based on the model that businesses were only accountable to their shareholders (owners and investors; also known as capitalists), something which became widespread internationally by the 20th century (Du Boff & Herman, 1980; Sharma & Hart, 2014). The modern limited corporation was established in 1811 (USA); a limited liability charter was granted to enable a corporation to raise large funds to achieve a socially important mission (e.g. railroad), and the state had the power to revoke the license to operate if the corporation violated the social mission (Sharma & Hart, 2014). However, by 1886, this right of revocation was lifted and US law recognised the corporation as a person who had protection under the Bill of Rights (Barley, 2007). Thus, the American business school curriculum “emerged in an era when the social mission inherent in granting a limited liability charter to corporations had begun to fade into the background…this was the paradigm within which business schools developed curricula
that emphasized the role of business in the maximization of profitability” (Sharma & Hart, 2014, p. 11).

University models vary across the world and within countries, sometimes business schools can be integrated within universities or remain entirely outside the university system. Nevertheless, the university is a unique context to study as these institutions are expected to engage in societal issues and new thought, such as sustainability. In some respects, the same could be said about the business school, at least in questioning the value of the business school for both industry and society (Bennis & O’Toole, 2005; Wilson & Thomas, 2012). While pressures on universities occur in the corporate setting, such as cost minimisation, universities primarily follow normative goals such as knowledge generation and promotion, and academic freedom (de Lange, 2013; Giroux, 2002; Harris, 2005). As universities peruse these normative goals as thought leaders in society, to remain legitimate, both progressive knowledge and involvement with issues, such as sustainability, are required to be adopted in their operations, teaching and research (Boyle, 2004; de Lange, 2013). Similarly, the relevance and legitimacy of the business school has been increasingly been put into the spotlight, as many have asked “what is the purpose of the business school?” (e.g., Bennis & O’Toole, 2005; Currie, Knights, & Starkey, 2010; Starkey & Tempest, 2009b; Wilson & Thomas, 2012).

It is argued that business schools have lost their way (Bennis & O’Toole, 2005), and more importantly, have lost sight of what broader aims business schools should offer in a world that is now ever more complex and interrelated (Dyllick, 2015). Giacalone (2004: 416) surmised “what are the transcendent, aspirational goals of business education? There are none…we teach student a simple pay-off matrix: Increase the company’s wealth and improve the chances of increasing your own affluence and status”. The “changing social norms and values constitute…. one source of pressure for organizational legitimation” (Dowling & Pfeffer, 1975: 125) and thus, without fully addressing crucial socio-ecological problems the business school could also be seen
in a struggle with legitimacy. However, there are barriers in place, both within universities, and specifically business schools, which prevent sustainability from being successfully integrated within education and research.

Studies and reports of EfS integration within higher education have highlighted several barriers preventing successful sustainability integration. Dawe, Jucker, and Martin (2005) reporting on the implementation of EfS within Higher Education Institutions within the UK found four key barriers: the overcrowded curriculum, perceived irrelevance by academic staff, limited staff awareness and expertise, and a lack of institutional drive and commitment. Thomas (2004) identified a similar list of barriers: lack of knowledge, reward and support, inability to see how sustainability is related to certain subjects, an unsupportive institutional culture and difficulty conducting interdisciplinary research and teaching. Similarly, Christie, Miller, Cooke, and White (2015) found that academic staff frequently cited the issue of not adopting EfS was due to EfS not being applicable to their field of study, overloaded curriculum and student resistance (students not seeing relevance of EfS). This suggests that numerous institutional barriers consistently emerge across case studies (knowledge, support and curriculum space).

Several studies have also investigated the barriers perceived in the integration of sustainability within the business curriculum. Butt, More, and Avery (2013) found that significant barriers to EfS were the failure to clearly delineate it as a component of business studies, and a lack of leadership and change management towards sustainability. The weak leadership and a lack of deans specialised in areas of sustainability and CSR make institutional change towards sustainability difficult (Sharma & Hart, 2014). A knowledge gap is also presented, with von der Heidt, Lamberton, Wilson, and Morrison (2012) finding that Unit Assessors for a Bachelor of Business believed that sustainability was more complex than they could include in their courses. Equally, Naeem and Neal (2012) found that business faculty members were hesitant to integrate sustainability issues into their courses because they felt unknowledgeable in sustainability, and
they also differed on their opinions about the urgency and even the need to integrate sustainability into their courses. This lack of knowledge is evident amongst tenured faculty members who are only specialised in well-established functions and disciplines, not on sustainability related topics (Sharma & Hart, 2014). On a broader scale, Cotton, Warren, Maiboroda, and Bailey (2007) concluded, like others have (e.g. Reid & Petocz, 2006; Reid et al., 2009), that a greater understanding of environmental issues existed but ambiguity existed with social and economic issues. On a similar practical note, business faculty felt that there were pedagogical constraints, such as time and lack of teaching materials, in linking together CSR, sustainability and sustainable development in their courses, with ‘no constraints’ and ‘student mind-sets’ closely following (Doh & Tashman, 2014). These findings present barriers experienced by individual academics, however other case studies have investigated the internal barriers across the university (for staff and students).

Beusch (2014), through a case study of Handels, maps the major internal forces that influence Handels’ (business school) curriculum integration of sustainability, combining the efforts of students, academic staff, management strategy and management support. Beusch concluded that management strategy needs to include clear sustainable development goals, recruitment policy, research focus (strategy, funding) and cooperation/partners (such as environmental bodies), while management support should include providing funding (to develop courses), resources (e.g. pedagogical development) and enabling interdisciplinary cooperation. Similarly, academic staff should accept interdisciplinary cooperation, have no increased workload, access to business cases and literature, and exhibit personal engagement, interest and commitment to sustainability. Lastly, students should be part of the change (e.g. unions, contracts) and demand more EfS. Similarly, in Christie et al.’s (2015) study, Australia-wide academic staff survey respondents suggested that to best integrate sustainability there was a need for a revision of the curriculum to include EfS, university-wide EfS policy and/or support, and
training and development to bring up the skill level. Other research has identified barriers beyond those internal to the university.

Doherty et al. (2015) identified, through several case studies, the internal and external institutional pressures on business schools. External pressures included accreditation bodies, additional external stakeholders (such as student demand, partner schools, new alternative league tables, public bodies, and NGOs), school ranking systems and ranking individuals on the quality of their research publications (based on the ABS journal rankings there are a limited number of journals with a focus on the area of sustainability). These pressures provide isomorphic pressures, such as accreditation standards on the normative environment (Scott, 2014). Internal barriers, similar to previous research (e.g. Beusch, 2014; Doh & Tashman, 2014), were also identified based on organisational (business school structures, leadership, measurement criteria, culture and supporting infrastructure), resource (lack of knowledge) and personal factors (negative reaction from academic staff, time pressures, weak institutional commitment, staff development issues, rewards/incentives and student responsiveness).

Similarly, Figueiró and Raufflet (2015) conducted a systematic review on sustainability in management education. They identified the four main challenges related to the integration of sustainability within management education: organisational, capability-based and pedagogical challenges, and terminological. Organisational barriers refer to the need for institutional support and resources, including faculty and organisational development (i.e. training, policies) and need for new, systematic thinking which is hindered by varied and diverse stakeholders. In addition, perceiving sustainability as unimportant, resistance to change, lack of skills and leadership, and lack of time to promote curriculum changes were seen as other organisational barriers. Challenges of capability and pedagogy relate to the lack of ability of management educators to teach self-reflexivity, critique, and social action or engagement, for example, since many have no experience in such pedagogy. Terminological challenges related to the definition sustainability
itself and sustainability as related to business. The latter of which has received only limited conceptual discussions, rather than empirical studies. In addition, studies have failed to more broadly address issues for sustainability research/scholarship as most studies focus on EfS (Huge et al., 2016; Waas et al., 2010). Further, there has been no research about the internal and external barriers towards integrating sustainability within the marketing discipline.

Furthering the discussion on external barriers, while the relationship between marketing education, marketing practice and marketing academia “is neither simple nor well-defined” (Stringfellow, Ennis, Brennan, & Harker, 2006, p. 246), the research interests of marketing associations and lecturers may also influence the perceived importance and inclusion of certain topics in the marketing curriculum. For example, the Marketing Science Institute every two years releases research priorities for the field and there is no mention of sustainability or ethics (Marketing Science Institute, 2016). If sustainability issues are not recognised by institutional bodies, then there seems to be a lack of external pressure for including these topics into the curriculum and research.

Areas of marketing research and their relative importance or status, especially in A-level journals, can influence what areas and methods are addressed or used in academic research and teaching. Previous studies have shown serious concerns about the reward structure of universities (i.e. rankings, publications) and a lack of incentives for sustainable education (Macdonald & Kam, 2007; Moore, 2005). There is a strong need for career academics to publish in A-level (4*) journals which hinders the ability for new knowledge to enter the academy and restricts topics which can be researched/published (Cederstrom & Hoedemaekers, 2012; Harley, 2002; Harley & Lee, 1997), because such journals are conservative, and do not accept radical new ideas and ‘messy’ research on complex issues such as sustainability (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014; Sharma & Hart, 2014). Such issues point to larger philosophical, and possibly theoretical, issues surrounding the integration of sustainability.
2.8.2 Philosophical and theoretical barriers

Traditionally, at the macro-level institutions have been split into formal and informal institutions. Formal institutions are explicit rules and standards enforced by law, while informal institutions are systems of shared meanings and values, such as cultural and social norms (North, 1990). Informal institutions are culturally derived and are notoriously hard to change as they have become part of habitual behaviour (North, 1990). Moreover, formal institutions are created to solve problems in society, and their development and maintenance is dependent on informal institutions (Holmes, Miller, Hitt, & Salmador, 2013). Therefore, the logic and rationale for formal institutions is embodied in informal institutions (North, 1990). However, a further distinction for institutions have been offered by others. For example, others see institutions constrained by the regulative, guiding action through coercion; the normative, guiding action through norms (i.e. role relationships, values, behavioural norms); and the cognitive, guiding action through the frames and categories use to know and interpret their world (belief systems) (Geels, 2004; Scott, 1995, 2014).

The problem of significant societal change, especially in relation to sustainability, is largely due to social paradigms, or cognitive rules, that constitute the nature of reality and the frames through which we see the world or how sense is made. These frames are made up of symbols (words, concepts, myths, signs, gestures) that need to be addressed in organisations (Geels, 2004; Olsen et al., 1992). Mittelstaedt, Kilbourne, and Mittelstaedt (2006) term this type of institution, philosophic, such as the ideology of consumption and more broadly, the DSP. Consequently, these shared cognitive frames make it very difficult to deviate from them (Garud et al., 2007). The concept of worldviews and social paradigms, as discussed earlier on in this chapter, relate to the concepts of shared cognitive frames and institutional logics.
In contrast to the diffusion metaphor present in much institutional theory, organisational actors may be seen beyond mere carriers or receivers of meanings and practices, instead they are ‘active interpreters’ who negotiate meaning (Hardy & Maguire, 2008). In this case, competing worldviews, an inherent property of wicked problems such as sustainability, can destabilise and challenge traditional arrangements, and institutional norms and practices (Lach, Ingram, & Rayner, 2004). In other words, in the ensuing struggle with meaning, actors draw on differing “discourses and find new ways to frame and theorize change” (Hardy & Maguire, 2008, p. 205). As current meanings are associated with institutional logics, myths and discourses (or worldview), they are very hard to change (Hardy & Maguire, 2008). However, when new meanings are created and doubt about the current worldview is incited, then deinstitutionalisation can occur and shift existing norms and practices (Dacin et al., 2002). In this case, institutional entrepreneurship is involved in a discursive struggle (Hardy & Maguire, 2008).

The meta-theory of institutional logics provides assumptions and descriptions about how institutions shape heterogeneity, stability and change in both individuals and organisations (Thornton & Ocasio, 2008). Initially introduced by Alford and Friendland (1985), and later expanded by the same authors in 1991, Thornton, Ocasio, and Lounsbury (2012, p. 2) define institutional logics as “socially constructed, historical patterns of cultural symbols and material practices...by which individuals and organizations provide meaning to their daily activity”. Higher order societal institutions, such as capitalism and democracy, shape an organisations vision of the social world (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). There are multiple sources of rationality in society, with each societal sector, such as the market, family and democracy, representing a different set of expectations for appropriate social relations and behaviour (Thornton & Ocasio, 2008). However, institutions and thus institutional logics operate at the individual, organisational and societal level (Friedland & Alford, 1991). Consequently, it is important to study how these levels interact, as these levels are nested (Thornton & Ocasio, 2008).
There are philosophical, conceptual and political tensions when integrating and addressing sustainability in the business theory and thus curriculum and research (Tilbury & Ryan, 2011). Scholars have argued that business schools espouse a neo-classical economic worldview (Beusch, 2014; Petocz & Dixon, 2011; Springett, 2010; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008). Toubiana’s (2014) and Green’s (2013, 2015) research reveal, through empirical evidence, the possibility of a dominant thinking, or ideology, in business schools which prevents the ability to both see the importance of social justice and green issues in business studies and the ability to address these issues when one is interested in its integration.

Toubiana (2014) interviewed various business faculty in Canada about the integration of social justice and the key institutional barrier found in her study was hegemonic institutions and their profit-based ideology. Green (2013, 2015) found that few economic academics considered the need to rethink economic theory to be able to integrate environment-economy and sustainability linkages. Worldviews limit what is possible and ‘right’, it provides assumptions we adhere to, acceptable behaviours and goals, and how we interpret the world (Beddoe et al., 2009; Koltko-Rivera, 2004). Consequently, as has been discussed in-depth earlier on in the chapter, scholars have discussed the need to shift worldviews or paradigms in business to be able to address sustainability successfully.

Moreover, while the business school, especially the American model, has tended to espouse a culture based on neo-liberal capitalist principles, more recently, the very processes of the business school and also the university has seen a shift from an academic logic towards a market logic (Juusola, Kettunen, & Alajoutsijärvi, 2015). The academic logic emphasises the search for knowledge, research freedom, and intangible rewards in the form of knowledge discovery and peer recognition. In comparison, the market logic commodifies academic research and aims for measurable results which have market value (i.e. high number of publications and
citations, publishing in top ranked journals, external research funding) (Juusola et al., 2015; Sauermann & Stephan, 2013).

Change can occur in institutions through the changes in institutional logics, specifically through institutional entrepreneurs, structural overlap of institutional logics, event sequencing (unique events), and competing institutional logics (Thornton & Ocasio, 2008). Embedded agency supposes, taking a perspective much like Giddens (1984), that while individuals are constrained by institutions, institutions are socially constructed (Scott, 2014). Institutional contradictions within and among institutions lead some actors to initiate change to address these contradictions (Seo & Creed, 2002) and thus create institutional change. Most recent research in institutional (logic) change, examines how competing logics influence organisational fields (Herremans, Herschovis, & Bertels, 2009) as well as the actions of institutional entrepreneurs (Jones & Livne-Tarandach, 2008; Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005).

2.8.3 Institutional entrepreneurship and change agents

New institutional theory postulates that there is possibility for resistance in institutions, particularly in the form of institutional entrepreneurs. DiMaggio (1988) introduced the “institutional entrepreneur”, as an agent transforms or creates institutions through the mobilization of resources. Therefore, institutional reintroduces agency, interests and power into institutional theory and analyses of organisations (Garud et al., 2007). However, there is a tension between agency and structure in the case of the institutional entrepreneur. Institutional entrepreneurs are seen able to envision change even though they are embedded within an institutional field and subject to its pressures (Hardy & Maguire, 2008).

Past research on how universities integrated sustainability show a large involvement from change agents, which are usually academics themselves. Change agents or champions are usually at the forefront of new ideas for EfS (Lorenzoni et al., 2007; Wood et al., 2016). Faculty
members were catalysts for the change process in more than half of the institutions who were interested in or engaged in the implementation of sustainability initiatives (McNamara, 2010). However, only one study examined and discussed the identities, experiences and roles of change agents in higher education (Wood et al., 2016). Change agents are also discussed in organisational change, especially in regards to sustainability. Specific research into creating typologies of change agents were initiated by Visser and Crane (2010), in the corporate setting and Wood et al. (2016), in higher education.

Visser and Crane (2010) sought to understand the drivers of individuals to be sustainability managers, what the effects of the job were on individuals, and what individuals sought (on a personal level) from their actions. Consequently, through conducting and analysing interviews they created a typology of four different types of change agents based on these issues. “Experts” are motivated to engage in sustainability through projects and giving expert input (pride in technical and problem-solving abilities), as such they like achieving and getting their hands dirty. “Catalysts” are motivated in sustainability through their enjoyment of initiating change (e.g. through policy), influencing leadership, and observing the improved performance of the organisation. “Facilitators” derive meaning and motivation from imparting knowledge and skills, empowering individuals, changing attitudes and/or perceptions of individuals, and team building. Lastly, “Activists” are more aware of broader social and environmental issues, and their motivation is associated with community, fighting for a cause they believe in, and leaving a legacy of improved conditions. Frustration for activists are linked to the power imbalance to effect change and that their sustainability work is too indirect in changing conditions. These motivations are associated with self-transcendence.

In similar research, but instead specific to academics, Wood et al. (2016) mapped sustainability champions identities in terms of approaches to sustainability as educators in various disciplines. Three identities emerged: the sustainability “saviour”, change agents which
had didactic and transmissive pedagogies and more positivist views of sustainability; the sustainability “nurturer”, a sustainability educator for increased knowledge and social action using critical and reflective thinking, debating and discussion of (one’s) worldviews; and the sustainability “struggler”, identities which can hold “saviour” and “nurturer” identities but include narratives of struggle (‘going against the tide’) and subject or other colleague (mis)interpretations of sustainability (present in both commerce faculty interviewed).

Consequently, more research is needed on the backgrounds, roles and challenges of change agents in universities to bring about “bottom-up” change, especially in curriculum innovation and scholarship. Specifically, research into academic identities within non-traditional EfS disciplines, such as marketing, as well as the relationship between disciplines and pedagogical styles, is advocated (Christie et al., 2015; von der Heidt & Lamberton, 2014; Wood et al., 2016).

2.9 Chapter summary

Business schools adhere to a neo-classical economic or industrial worldview believing in unlimited economic growth, free markets, increasing consumption of products and services, and technological solutions to environmental problems (Cotgrove, 1982; Kilbourne, 2004; Kilbourne & Mittelstaedt, 2014; Painter-Morland, 2015; Springett, 2010; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008). The position and role of business education has not been downplayed and many see that a change in thinking in business education and research, away from a neo-classical economic worldview, must occur if we want to transition to a more sustainable society (Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Kearins & Springett, 2003; Kurucz et al., 2014; Marshall et al., 2010; Painter-Morland, 2015, 2015; Springett, 2005, 2010; Daniella Tilbury & Ryan, 2011).

Just as the decade of education on sustainable development (2005-2014) has ended, some have suggested that the nature of sustainable development and its role within higher education and in business schools still remains elusive in education and research (Cotton, Bailey, Warren, &
Bissell, 2009; Doherty, Meehan, & Richards, 2015). There still remains questions about how sustainability can be taught and integrated into theory in the marketing discipline (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). In addition, how institutional barriers, specifically within the marketing discipline, may affect the ability to effect “bottom-up” change, remains elusive.

It is through investigating why and how marketing academics interested in sustainability, learning first hand from ‘experts’, integrate sustainability within their marketing teaching and research, and the barriers they face when integrating sustainability within marketing academia, that we can explore what it means to be sustainable in marketing (Jones, Clarke-Hill, Comfort, & Hillier, 2008; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014) and the ability for a “bottom-up” approach for change to occur (Thomas, 2004; Verhulst & Lambrechts, 2015; Wood et al., 2016).

While many scholars have eluded towards the business school espousing an industrial worldview (the DSP) (e.g. Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Springett, 2010), there is no specific research which has examined such worldviews of business or marketing academics. In addition, only limited survey instruments (i.e. DSP and NEP scales) have been used on business students (e.g. Hanson-Rasmussen, Lauver, & Lester, 2014; Kilbourne et al., 2001; Kilbourne & Polonsky, 2005; Shafer, 2006), and no comprehensive sustainability perception studies have been conducted on marketing students. Thus, this research examines the beliefs, values and attitudes related to sustainability and marketing to assess how favourable these are to sustainability’s integration within marketing academia, providing evidence about how accepting the marketing academy is of sustainability and the future prospect for sustainability’s full integration within the academy. The next chapter discusses how Study One will be implemented, with the subsequent chapter discussing the findings. This is followed by an expanded literature for Study Two in Chapter Five.
Chapter Three

Study One Methodology
3.0 Introduction

It is important to understand how academics perceive sustainability as these perceptions influence how, and how much, sustainability is included in their teaching and research. As such, academic perceptions can be a major inhibitor to the integration of sustainability within the curriculum (Christie et al., 2015), and arguably, research as well. While institutional barriers have been discussed in relation to the integration of EfS in universities (e.g. Christie et al., 2015; Cotton et al., 2007), and in the business school (e.g. Barber et al., 2014), research has failed to address the marketing discipline specifically and go beyond EfS to include academic research. Furthermore, the very definition of what sustainability marketing entails remains unanswered in the literature (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). Consequently, the focus of this first study was to understand both personal and institutional perspectives of sustainability, and how marketing and sustainability can be integrated. In addition, the results of this study were used to help develop the survey in Study Two.

In this chapter, the method, sample selection, data collection and analysis will be discussed. 18 interviews were conducted with sustainability interested marketing academics from Australasia, North America and Europe. The data was thematically analysed through template analysis and organised into themes and sub-themes.

3.1 Philosophical foundations

It is important to make clear a researchers’ position within any study, especially in regards to the research paradigm (Creswell, 2003). Any given research paradigm has to answer questions about the nature of reality (ontology), the nature of knowledge (epistemology) and how to find out what is known (methodology) (Snape & Spencer, 2013). Ontology and epistemology influence the research paradigm which is subscribed to and as such affect the methodology used (Creswell, 2013). Since I am investigating the worldviews of participants themselves it is especially prudent
to discuss the philosophical underpinnings of this research. I ascribe to an interpretivist research paradigm to allow for subjective individual experiences of social life to emerge through semi-structured interviews exploring the integration of sustainability in marketing academia (and its associated interpretation, interest, struggles and opportunities). Subsequently, I discuss how the research paradigm, methodology and method were decided for Study One. Figure 3.1 displays the research paradigm, methodology and methods used in this research.

![Research Paradigm Diagram]

Figure 3.1 Research paradigm in this research
3.1.1 Ontology

Ontology reflects the ideas about what can be known about the world, specifically whether reality exists independent of human conception, whether there is a shared social reality or multiple context-specific realities, and whether there are laws that govern social behaviour (Snape & Spencer, 2013). There are three main ontological beliefs: realism, relativism and critical realism. Realism believes that an external reality exists independent of human beliefs and understanding (Snape & Spencer, 2013). Relativists believe reality is socially subjective and exists through individual interpretation, thus there is no “one” correct reality, but rather multiple realities (Andrews, 2012). Critical realism is a variant of realism influenced by relativists perspectives (or idealism), stating the reality is ‘out there’ but is only knowledgeable through the human mind (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2015; Snape & Spencer, 2013).

Reflecting on these three ontological beliefs, the research objectives relate to a subjective reality, therefore critical realism, as it is inferred that different worldviews of sustainability exist, so while reality is “out there” there are numerous interpretations of this reality which are only found through the minds of actors.
3.1.2 Epistemology

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<th>Objectivism</th>
<th>Constructivism</th>
<th>Subjectivism</th>
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Epistemology is concerned with the relationship between the researcher and what is being researched, and what is considered ‘truth’ (Snape & Spencer, 2013). Three perspectives of epistemology include objectivism (or positivism), constructivism and subjectivism (Creswell, 2013). Objectivism believes the world is independent and unaffected by the researcher (Snape & Spencer, 2013). Objectivists believe that truth and meaning exists in objects which are independent from actors or the observer (Creswell, 2013). Constructionists believe the social world and the researcher affect one another (Snape & Spencer, 2013). In constructionism, subjective meanings are formed through the interaction with others and through norms that operate in individuals’ lives (Creswell, 2013). Social constructionism holds that there is no ‘true’ or ‘valid’ interpretation of social life, therefore there is no ‘objective’ truth, instead people make sense of things (Crotty, 1998). Constructionists believe ‘truth’ can be shared but that phenomena can be seen through different perspectives (in times and context) (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2015). Lastly, subjectivism holds that reality is socially constructed and rejects the possibility of generalised knowledge (Given, 2008; Gray, 2009).

These epistemology beliefs usually relate with certain ontological beliefs with realism relating to positivism, critical realism to constructionism, and relativism with subjectivism. Consequently, constructionism is the best epistemology which related to the research objectives as I am interested in people’s interpretation of social life and how they ‘make sense of things’.
3.1.3 Research paradigm

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<th>Research Paradigm</th>
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<td>Transformative</td>
<td>Pragmatism</td>
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While authors take differing perspectives about what exactly they classify as a research paradigm, worldview or perspective (Creswell, 2014; Crotty, 1998; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2015), four main research paradigms are usually discussed: positivism, interpretivism, transformative, and pragmatism. Positivism believes research can produce facts that correspond to an independent reality and the aim is usually to find causal explanations and regularities from scientific observation; this worldview is most commonly associated with quantitative research (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2015; Gray, 2009). The interpretivist paradigm recognises that individuals develop subjective understanding of the world around them, leading the researcher to understand the complexity of views (Creswell, 2013; Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Interpretivism believes experiences are formed through the interaction of others and through cultural/historical norms (Creswell, 2007). The transformative worldview sees knowledge as reflecting power and social relations and is involved with political and social change, and usually with issues of empowerment, oppression and domination (Creswell, 2013). This worldview focuses on the struggles of oppressed groups in society and seeks to provide a (participatory) voice to participants (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2007). Pragmatism begins with the actions or outcomes of the research, rather than epistemology and ontology assumptions (Morgan, 2014). Pragmatists suggest we should focus on the implications of the research, rather than solely focusing on the nature of reality.

Relevant to worldviews, interpretivism views the goal of the researcher is to “understand, explain, and demystify social reality through the eyes of different participants” (Cohen, Manion,
Consequently, this research paradigm is related to the first two research objectives, trying to understand personal/professional experiences and the differing worldviews of sustainability. In addition, aspects of the transformative research paradigm are also adopted. The research objectives, specifically Objectives One and Two, seek to generate practical knowledge for academics who wish to integrate sustainability within their teaching and research. While interpretation and understanding is sought about personal experiences and fundamental beliefs and values, ultimately, recommendations and implications of this research seek to provide and guide opportunities for personal, professional and institutional change.

Gray (2009) describes different interpretivist approaches, which include symbolic interactionism, phenomenology, realism, hermeneutics and naturalistic inquiry. Symbolic interactionism conceptualises that people interpret the meaning of objects and actions and act upon those interpretations. Such meanings arise from the process of social interaction. Phenomenology holds that to understand social reality we must understand lived (the subjective) experiences from individuals. Realism believes in an external reality ‘out there’ that can be measured. In hermeneutics, social reality is socially constructed, as such social reality is too complex to fully understand and thus, the focus should be on interpretation rather than explanation and description. Finally, the naturalistic paradigm holds that there are multiple constructed realities and inquiries, like hermeneutics, and focuses on describing individual cases. Since the experiences, opinions and individuals’ own worldviews are the main interest of this research, which seeks to come to some sort of ‘common’ understanding (rather than selected cases in the naturalistic paradigm and hermeneutics), a phenomenological approach was taken for the first study.
3.2 Explanation and justification of method

Since this first study was exploratory in nature, a qualitative approach was appropriate. Semi-structured expert interviews were conducted to explore how sustainability focused marketing academics perceive sustainability within marketing academia (teaching and research). Face-to-face, telephone and Skype interviews were conducted to allow for geographical limitations.

Qualitative research allows for in-depth, exploratory research into phenomena (Hair, Lukas, Miller, Bush, & Ortinau, 2008; Malhorta, 2010). The interview allows the researcher to explore values, beliefs, and attitudes which can be more complicated in quantitative designs, especially without prior research; uncover new insights; and raise new questions not previously arisen from research (Bamball & While, 1994). Semi-structured interviews are particularly suited for studies that seek to explore perceptions and opinions, especially regarding complex issues such as sustainability (Bamball & While, 1994), and are particularly useful when there are specific research objective (Low, 2013). The semi-structured interview allows some variation and direction led by the research objectives which addresses the weaknesses in both structured and unstructured interviews. For example, where structured interviews allow little variation in questions asked (i.e. probing questions), and unstructured interviews allow too much variation and little focus on the research objectives, semi-structured interviews fall somewhere in the middle allowing for both structure and variation. Semi-structured interviews also allow for the probing of more information and clarification of answers, allowing for more complete answers (Malhorta, 2010). Lastly, the use of semi-structured interviews aligns with the interpretivist paradigm, recognising multiple perspectives and the social construction of reality (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006).

The aims of the semi-structured interviews were to highlight areas of interest and concern, and to understand the complex concepts of sustainability and sustainability marketing.
Semi-structured interviews allow a greater focus on narrative data, which is critical to understanding personal perceptions of the interview participants (Butt et al., 2013). This is particularly important in addressing the objectives of this research, especially understanding how sustainability is addressed within marketing academia (curriculum and theory), and specifically exploring the formation (“why”) and interpretation (“how”) of sustainability in marketing academia. This study follows Toubiana’s (2014) suggestion that ‘personal is political’, suggesting that personal stories, and personal reflections and experiences, are usually linked to larger social constructs. As such, the semi-structured interviews allow examination of the institutional, theoretical and philosophical barriers and opportunities participants experience when integrating sustainability in marketing education and research.

Face-to-face, telephone and Skype interviews were all employed, with the latter used most frequently. Telephone interviews were only used when participants felt uncomfortable or unable to use Skype; this was the case with three participants. Skype without video, was sometimes requested by the participant (twice) and are thus much the same as telephone interviews. Only two face-to-face interviews were conducted due to geographical limitations. Skype interviews were seen as appropriate given interviews with faculty were conducted, suggesting that in a professional capacity they might be familiar with video conferencing and discussing their research and teaching ideas (i.e. familiarity with conference presentations).

Face-to-face interviews have the advantage of ease of building rapport, especially through the use of body language and other social cues (Malhorta, 2010). Skype interviews when compared to face-to-face interviews have fewer opportunities to ease the interaction and conversation, especially if there are technical problems (Adams-Hutcheson & Longhurst, 2017). The same occurs when engaging in telephone interviews. However, Skype provides technological advancements, especially over the use of the telephone, allowing visual communication over large distances to become more feasible. With the lack of visual clues such as age, gender and
ethnicity, in the case of telephone and non-video Skype, some have suggested that this can decrease interviewer effects during interviews (O’Connor, Madge, Shaw, & Wellens, 2008).

The advantages of Skype and telephone interviews are the time and cost effectiveness for both the interviewer and interviewee (O’Connor et al., 2008). Furthermore, given geographical constraints Skype and telephone interviews were considered appropriate. Research has also found that telephone interviews when compared to face-to-face interviews are both relatively the same in terms of difficulties in substantive understanding in the interview process (Irvine, Drew, & Sainsbury, 2012). However, the lack of ‘feedback’ seen by interview participants in telephone interviews can lead to interviewees being uncertain about how well they were answering the interview questions, and thus lead to shorter interview times (Irvine et al., 2012).

3.3 Sample selection

In qualitative research, sample selection influences the ultimate quality of research. The sample design for qualitative research is non-random, which means everyone in the population doesn’t have an equal chance of being chosen to be part of the sample (Kolb, 2008). Non-random sampling techniques include convenience (finding any available and willing participant), snowball (participants recommend other potential participants) and purposeful (find participants based on specific characteristics) (Kolb, 2008). The sampling procedure is dependent upon several dimensions including time, cost, and accuracy (Sontakki, 2009). As confidentiality was aimed to be a priority of the research, snowball sampling was not seen as ideal. However, snowball sampling were considered appropriate given the small number of experienced academics in the field. As such, the use of purposeful sampling was employed to select cases that would be able to provide an in-depth reflection of the topic (Palinkas et al., 2015; Toubiana, 2014), as well as two instances when snowball sampling was used.

Purposeful sampling allows the researcher the ability to “compare and contrast, to
identify similarities and differences in the phenomenon of interest” (Palinkas et al., 2015, p. 534). In addition, the use of purposeful sampling allowed interviews to be conducted with individuals that are thought to have knowledge on issues relevant to research objectives; in this case experts in sustainability marketing (Hair et al., 2008). For the objectives of this research, the focus was on a narrow range of variation and on similarities (Palinkas et al., 2015) regarding the formation and interpretation of sustainability, how sustainability is integrated with marketing, and the institutional, theoretical and philosophical barriers and opportunities towards the integration of sustainability within marketing academia. Snowballing was also employed without solicitation when one participant suggested a possible interviewee. To keep confidentiality, neither participant was informed about the others involvement. In addition, one participant was suggested by one of my supervisors, based upon their work in sustainability and accreditation. While I acknowledge that snowballing is not ideal as previously discussed, these two snowball participants were contacted as there was a lack of possible interviewees.

Participants were selected in two stages. Firstly, lecturers or professors of marketing who had authored sustainability marketing journal articles (conceptual articles as these demonstrated that academics had thought about the very concept of integrating sustainability and marketing) were invited to participate in an interview. When it was found that some of the authors were not in marketing departments (i.e. they could also be found in business ethics), only those who had published in marketing discipline journals were contacted. However, this did not yield a large sample population (less than ten), and thus the search was expanded. The second stage sought to utilise lecturer/professor listings on university websites through a Google search, specifically looking for sustainability marketing courses or academics with a listed interested in sustainability marketing. Equal representation was sought for Australasia, North America and Europe, and a good representation of both genders. These regions were considered to be the most active in sustainability marketing research and teaching as they were the only regions associated with
sustainability marketing publications and most sustainability marketing courses. Contacts in Asia (in Japan and Singapore) who taught sustainability marketing courses were contacted but no responses were received.

One of the challenges of qualitative research, especially purposeful sampling, is the number of interview participants (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006). The aim of the interviews was to reach sufficient data saturation, balancing time and finding similarities (and a narrow range of variation) in sustainability views (Palinkas et al., 2015). Several studies have been conducted to examine the point at which saturation can be reached, however, since each research project is different it is hard to apply ‘hard and fast’ rules about sample size. However, this has not stopped authors recommending sample sizes for a phenomenological study. For example, Creswell (2007) recommended between five and 25 interviews, or others offering guidelines, such as Francis et al. (2010, p. 1241) suggesting “a minimum of 10 interviews, three further consecutive interviews with no new themes”.

Previous empirical research has suggested that saturation can be achieved between six to 17 interviews (Francis et al., 2010; Guest et al., 2006). In addition, when considering that not just heterogeneity was an objective (an objective of qualitative research), but also some variation in sustainability understandings for example, Kuzel (1992, p. 41) recommends twelve to twenty interview participants “when looking for disconfirming evidence or trying to achieve maximum variation.” However, the general guideline for data saturation is when there is no addition of new themes or codes (Guest et al., 2006). Consequently, while the sample size of this study was also constrained by the small size of the sample population, once no new codes were developed in the codebook saturation was reached; this was at 18 interviews. This sample size falls between several recommendations (e.g. Creswell, 2007), and even falls above two well-cited empirical studies on saturation (six to 17 interviews) (Francis et al., 2010; Guest et al., 2006).
Due to the small community of sustainability marketing academics, participants were assured of their confidentiality, and as such, the profile of participants is limited to gender, region and job position as can be seen in Table 3.1. However, it should be noted that ages varied but were usually skewed towards those in the latter stages of their career.

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<tr>
<th>Alias</th>
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<th>Position</th>
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<tr>
<td>Rosie</td>
<td>Australasia</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diane</td>
<td>Australasia</td>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben</td>
<td>Australasia</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ron</td>
<td>Australasia</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
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<tr>
<td>John</td>
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<td>Professor Emeritus</td>
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<td>Stewart</td>
<td>Australasia</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
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<td>Christine</td>
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<td>Ruby</td>
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<td>Associate Professor</td>
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<td>Patricia</td>
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### 3.4 Interview guide development

Semi-structured interviews were used to allow for greater flexibility and to allow for the emergence of themes and topics of interest. A semi-structured interview also benefits from an interview guide to allow for consistency between participants. The design of the interview guide was aided by previous studies (e.g. Green, 2015; Reid et al., 2009; Toubiana, 2014), and driven by the research objectives. After the first four interviews the interview guide was adjusted to include more specific (or clarification) questions helping to address the research objectives (i.e. removing terms such as business ideology). Moreover, the interview questions were both abstract and specific, “in order to elicit abstract concepts such as perceptions and sufficiently standardized to
facilitate comparability between respondents during analysis” (Bamball & While, 1994, p. 333). The specific wording and ordering of questions was influenced by the interviewee’s responses (Malhorta, 2010).

Seven broad topics served as the focus of discussions with participants:

a) Description of sustainability  
b) Conflicts with marketing and sustainability  
c) What sustainability looks like in marketing curriculum  
d) The current integration of sustainability within the marketing curriculum and scholarship (including barriers and opportunities)  
e) Pressures and logics of the business school and its effects on sustainability  
f) Active resistance and academic activism

A copy of the interview guide is contained in Appendix A.

3.4 Data collection

Interviews were conducted in a five-month period from September 30 2015 to March 1 2016, and lasted from 35 minutes to 2 hours 20 minutes, and lasted on average just over an hour. Interviews were carried out in person, via Skype and by telephone to enable an international sample. Interviews were then transcribed verbatim, which has the advantage of facilitating an audit trail of data analysis (Halcomb & Davidson, 2006).

3.5 Ethical approval

Ethics approval was sought from the University of Canterbury Ethics Committee (see Appendix B). Prior to the interview participants were given an Information Sheet (outlining the purpose and objectives of the interviews) and Consent Form to sign (see Appendix C and D for these
documents). Consequently, interviewees were informed about their rights before the interview and were aware of the audio-recoding. In addition, participants were informed that they would be sent their transcript for their approval. Only one participant wished to edit their transcript; only minor changes were made.

The interview findings present evidence in the form of quotes, however pseudonyms were used and identifiers omitted. According to the University of Canterbury ethical requirements, data and identities were stored on a password protected computer and will be retained for five years after which the data will be destroyed.

3.6 Data analysis

Common among qualitative data analysis is the identification of key themes. A number of analyses can be employed to detect these themes, such as discourse and conversational analysis, but most commonly used is thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis is extremely flexible and has been used in the interpretivist framework in previous research (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The style of thematic employed in this research is template analysis. Template analysis can also be used in a variety of epistemological positions, for example it can be used both to demonstrate researcher objectivity and coding reliability in the case of post-positivist positions, or in the case of the constructionist perspective, allowing for researcher reflexivity and the richness of descriptions in the data (King, 2012).

Template analysis is a qualitative technique which seeks to define, organise and structure themes within data (Brooks, McCluskey, Turley, & King, 2015; King, 2012). The data set usually involves interview transcripts and encourages the development of themes more extensively in relation to the research question or objective (Brooks et al., 2015). In template analysis, prior themes are established through the research questions and prior research. An iterative process is then used where themes are modified or created throughout the analytical process. Template
analysis was first published and discussed in 1998 by King (1998) and has since been used in over 200 published works across multiple disciplines, including organisational research and health (King, 2012), and has been used in previous marketing research (e.g. Baron & Warnaby, 2011; Corsaro & Snehota, 2010; Round & Roper, 2012).

King’s (2012, 2014) template analysis technique was used to analyse the interview data. Firstly, interviews were transcribed and read through to familiar oneself with the research. Secondly, priori themes were identified through the research objectives and prior research. Priori codes included broad themes that were identified by the research aims (e.g. how to integrate sustainability and marketing); and themes derived from previous research findings (e.g. perceptions of sustainability, profit-driven ideology). The initial coding template is created through analysing a subset of the data which is then applied to the rest of the data (or another subset of the data) and the template is revised, and then reapplied to the data (King, 2012). In the revision stage for example, if no relevant theme fits the identified section, either an existing theme was modified or a new theme was created.

Subsequently, the first six transcripts were initially coded and a template was produced. The coding process can be seen in Figure 3.2. This involved reading through the transcripts, and then attaching codes to the identified section. This ultimately led to several levels of coding being established. The initial template was used to analyse a further six interviews and adjustments to themes were made where necessary. This was then reapplied to the initial 12 interviews and the remainder of the six interview transcripts and again the coding template was revised. However, at this stage of the revision process, only the regrouping of themes were necessary. When no large sections of un-coded data remained, especially sections that were relevant to the research questions, and thus, the analysis was considered complete (Brooks et al., 2015). This is also the point at which data saturation was reached (Guest et al., 2006).
Coding was aided and undertaken using the software NVivo 10. Firstly, parental tree nodes were created, structured around the research objectives. Secondly, Child tree nodes (subcategory) were then created based more on the interview data, and if necessary secondary child tree nodes were created to allow for greater detail. Coding was aided through hand-drawn mind maps which helped to visualise the data throughout the coding process. Hierarchical coding, which is a feature of template analysis, was used to groups similar codes together and produce several higher level codes (King, 2012). An effort was made to minimize and manage the hierarchy levels. No lateral links occurred between codes and no parallel coding was undertaken.
The final coding template with levels indicated by a numbering system can be seen in Appendix E. A mind map was also created to display the codes in a clearer and linked format; the mind map is used for displaying the interview findings in can be seen in Chapter Five. Throughout the analysis process quality and reflexivity checks were continually made to ensure the analysis was not biased by preconceptions and assumptions. In addition, an audit trial is displayed in Appendix F, which outlines the progression of the coding process; specifically, the initial and subsequent coding templates. The initial coding template used Objective Two in its initial coding, utilising institutional, theoretical and philosophical barriers in its themes, while the second coding template shows the removal of such a distinction, and which helped to better group (code) and understand the findings.

Further analysis, such as comparisons between cases (participants) was completed by hand through the use of an Excel spreadsheet and hand drawn mind maps. Spreadsheets were maintained to see when and in what context certain nodes (themes) appeared. Indeed, NVivo is used to assist analysis not entirely replace other means of analysis (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013). NVivo helps to effectively manage data and specifically helps to code data, allowing researchers to track specific quotes, how many times a theme appears in a text, and how often the theme appears between cases (participants) (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013).

To write up the analysis and understand the data further, within-case and cross-case analysis methods were used. Through coding and sorting data becomes decontextualized as data becomes separated from the individual cases (Ayres, Kavanaugh, & Knafl, 2003). Data is recontextualised when it is reintegrated into themes (Ayres et al., 2003). Consequently, the origin of data is less important than its membership in a theme. As such, coding usually captures the commonalities across cases but does not highlight the individual uniqueness of cases themselves. Looking more closely at individual cases, structure of beliefs can be understood. For the
purposes of structure and organisation of the thesis, within case analysis results are more heavily discussed in the Discussion chapter (Chapter Eight) to reflect on interview findings.

3.7 Reliability and validity

Many researchers stress the importance of validity in qualitative research. This validity comes in an array of terminology, from trustworthiness to authenticity to credibility (Creswell & Miller, 2000). In semi-structured interviews, validity and reliability depend on the interviews conveying the same meaning (Bamball & While, 1994). While it is impossible for researchers to control for validity and reliability, or exactly plan how the interview pans out, interviewer friendliness, approach and manner can help with securing the validity and reliability of the data (Bamball & While, 1994). In addition, researcher reflexivity, member checking, peer review, and thick and rich descriptions help achieve validity in qualitative research (Creswell & Miller, 2000). In a similar vein, Lincoln and Guba (1985) created qualitative equivalent concepts to the quantitative criteria of internal validity (termed credibility), external validity (termed transferability), reliability (termed dependability), and objectivity (termed confirmability). Utilising the works of Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Creswell and Miller (2000), this research tries to increase reliability and validity.

Credibility was improved using purposeful sampling, triangulation (source triangulation using quotes from different participants), and member checks (allowing interview participants to read their transcripts allows them to comment on their accuracy) (Baxter & Eyles, 1997; Creswell & Miller, 2000). A validity procedure is to disclose the researchers’ assumptions, beliefs and biases, and as such, researcher reflexivity is discussed in the next section of this chapter (Creswell & Miller, 2000). In addition, this interview stage of the research was featured in two peer-reviewed conference papers; this helps provides credibility to the interview methodology and findings (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Transferability was addressed through thick descriptions in
the interview findings to increase the transferability of the findings to other contexts or individuals (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Further, I give deep, dense, and detailed accounts of interview findings, where I “employ a constructivist perspective to contextualize the people or site”, and employ the use of quotations, which allows my accounts to be seen as credible and applicability of the findings to other settings and research (Creswell & Miller, 2000, p. 129). Similarly, dependability was increased through the use of triangulation, peer examination (examination by supervisors) and mechanically recorded data (use of NVivo and disclosure of analysis procedure) (Baxter & Eyles, 1997). Lastly, confirmability was again addressed through triangulation and highlighting the research audit (inclusion of raw data, instrument development formation and process notes) (Baxter & Eyles, 1997).

3.8 Researcher reflexivity

A researchers position within any study is important, especially with regard to the research paradigm (Creswell, 2003). As previously discussed, this first study ascribes to an interpretivist paradigm, recognising that individuals develop subjective understanding of the world (Creswell, 2007; Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). The interpretivist paradigm recognises that experiences are formed through the interaction of others and through cultural/historical norms (Creswell, 2007). Consequently, the researcher is not free from such interaction and interpretation.

Research does not occur in a vacuum, nor do research topics arise outside researcher interest. In terms of reflexivity, the interpretivist researcher acknowledges the impact of their own background and experiences on the research (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Consequently, reflecting on research allows readers to understand how the researchers’ “values and views may influence findings add[ing] credibility to the research” (Jootun, McGhee, & Marland, 2009, p.
Therefore, I reflect on the reason I wish to implement this study, beyond the knowledge gap present in the literature.

There is a reason for my interest in the topic of the integration of sustainability and marketing; this includes my background and own personal interests. My background is in marketing; my Bachelor’s was in marketing, my honours was in marketing and now my PhD is in marketing. The reason I decided to major in marketing was because I enjoyed consumer psychology and because I wanted to make a lot of money. The latter was my main reason for continuing to obtain my honours degree.

It was only in my fourth year at university studying marketing where I encountered the only course that made it our assignment to question the world around us. The course wanted us to dig deep and open ourselves up and question the events of our life and specifically around the ‘experience’ of the market. The point of the course was to examine the theoretical and social issues related to markets, distribution, advertising and promotion. It was the first course that opened my eyes to the consequences of marketing. The market experience I chose to focus on was online and data privacy which coincided at the time with the NSA WikiLeaks spying scandal. To prepare for this topic I also examined the corporate policies surrounding user’s privacy, such as Google and Facebook. I even read and watched wider by looking at the purpose of business, specifically I watched The Corporation, read Noam Chomsky’s works and watched his documentaries and interviews, and started to browse through videos on filmsforaction.org related to the economy, especially the 2008 financial crash, corporations and capitalism. This was the first time in my life I had questioned anything; which sounds strange, but it was the first time I knew what professors had been trying to teach us, critical thinking. For me, it was a worldview shift. All of a sudden, when I started to question why the NSA was spying and why it was hiding this from us, it ignited the need to question other things I had taken for granted. I now was
interested in finding out about the consequences of capitalism, the reasons behind the 2008 financial crash and I even became interested in politics for the first time.

I had come in the programme hoping to stand out from the 200 or so marketing graduates in my year so I could get a better job, have greater career prospects and ultimately earn more money than my peers. I hoped one day to be the CEO or CMO of a large multi-national corporation; I wanted the money, the success. When I finished the honours program I did not wish to seek a high paying job because money no longer had the same meaning for me – it was no longer a sign of success, because there were bigger, greater and larger issues in life. I felt part of the world now that I had opened my eyes to the social, economic and environmental issues of our society, and thus felt responsible to help. This started my interest in worldviews and worldview change; if I could go through such a dramatic shift in mindset in just a few months, could others do the same? Had others experienced such a shift as well? Could we help individuals undergo such a shift to increase the awareness and participation in solving the world’s problems?

The injustices in the world, especially focusing on corporations and politics, were too hard to ignore for me and I had decided I no longer wanted to practice marketing, instead I wanted to help transform it through research and teaching the next generation. I wanted to find a way to help fight and shift the power corporations had in the social, economic, political and environmental world. I was, and still am, an idealist; I wanted to make the world a better place. I could not turn a blind eye to the injustices I had only now come to realise which were happening in the world – huge wealth inequality, the effect of large corporations on the political environment (i.e. lobbying, funding), the detrimental of overconsumption on the environment, among many others. My eyes had been opened and I didn’t dare shut them. This started my interest in power balances and institutions.
This journey over the last four or so years has lead me to where I am today, trying to earn a PhD by investigating several objectives in relation to the integration of sustainability and marketing. My own personal interest and passion for sustainability (for me, this goes beyond the environmental, and addresses social, political and economic issues) is combined with my interest and background in marketing. The fact that it took only one course for me to radically change my worldview inspires my own teaching and my interest in the power and value of education.

3.9 Chapter summary

In this chapter, the method used in Study One of this thesis was discussed. Semi-structured interviews were utilised to address Objectives One and Two of this research, focusing on the formation of a sustainability worldview and how it is applied in marketing academia. To address these objectives, 18 interviews were conducted with sustainability interested marketing academics who were from Australasia, Europe and North America. Template analysis using NVivo was carried out to identify relevant themes. Finally, the chapter discussed the ways in which the reliability and validity of the findings were improved. Findings of the interviews will be discussed in Chapter Four.
Chapter Four

Study One Findings

“At the moment, sustainability sits as a separate subject within the degree courses. You would think that in the future, it shouldn’t be a separate subject, it should be part and parcel of teaching business or teaching marketing. That every aspect of it should be sustainable from the very beginning… I think probably what will happen is that the word sustainable will disappear. It will be called marketing, but it will be sustainable. In many respects that is what should happen”.

— Nick, Interview Participant
Chapter Four: Study One Findings

4.0 Introduction

Study One sought to gain an in-depth understanding of what it means to be sustainable within marketing and why academics pursued their interest in sustainability marketing. Specifically, Research Objectives One and Two were studied and addressed in this first study through interviews with sustainability marketing academics. Consequently, the interviews explored the formation of a sustainability worldview, the interpretation of sustainability within a marketing context, and how sustainability is taught within marketing education. Lastly, participants reflected on the barriers and opportunities towards EfS and sustainability scholarship in marketing.

Specifically, a “bottom-up” approach to change towards sustainability was explored, specifically institutional change initiated by faculty; this has been suggested as a fruitful avenue for research, curriculum and institutional change (Thomas, 2004; Verhulst & Lambrechts, 2015; Wood et al., 2016). In addition, while research has focused on basic sustainability worldviews, specifically environmental, there is little research about the opinions and actions of current working academics, particularly what theoretical perspectives and pedagogical methods are adopted in regards to sustainability (Boyle, 2015; Christie et al., 2013). More importantly, discipline specific research is needed as each has its own assumptions, background and theories which affect opinions and practices in relation to sustainability (Christie et al., 2013, 2015; von der Heidt & Lamberton, 2014).

The analysis revealed a number of areas of importance, or themes, around the study’s objectives. Three main themes emerged from the data, each with their own supporting themes: (1) sustainability as personal and professional, which reflects on the formation of a sustainability interest and how academics integrate sustainability in marketing research and curriculum; (2) support for sustainability, which expands on the institutional barriers towards the integration of
sustainability within marketing academia; and (3) the sustainability worldview, the last theme which discusses the various ways sustainability is integrated within marketing theory, as well as opportunities for change. The purpose of separating these themes is for better organisation and explanation. Figures 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 display the three themes and sub-themes.

Figure 4.1 Theme 1: Personal as professional
The literature from Chapter Two of this thesis was utilised to interpret the study’s findings and help clarify how this thesis can contribute to marketing knowledge. The interview findings contribute to the literature by focusing on the integration of sustainability within
marketing education and scholarship on three different levels: the institutional level (faculty, university), the curricular level (course design), and the instrumental level (pedagogy) (Setó-Pamies & Papaoikonomou, 2015). While the findings largely cover the institutional level, addressing these three areas provides a holistic and encompassing view of sustainability within marketing academia.

The aim of this findings chapter was to reflect on participants roles and experiences in the integration of sustainability within marketing academia. Thus, this chapter compares the interview findings to previous research. However, examining the findings through institutional theory and offering a more in-depth reflection will be provided in the Discussion (Chapter Eight) due to space limitations.

4.1 Sustainability as personal and professional

The first theme of Study One encompassed the personal, as well as professional commitment, displayed by all participants. All participants professed a deep personal as well as professional commitment to sustainability. Many participants reflected that their sustainability focus was a much more personal endeavour than a professional one. However, the implications of such a personal passion for sustainability had repercussions for their professional lives. This research explored how sustainability marketing academic participants became interested in sustainability and found that some participants had a continued lifelong passion, usually because of upbringing, while other participants’ worldviews had been influenced by their educational and work activities. With a personal interest in sustainability, participants identified themselves as behaving in sustainable ways, asserting that they should be role models, but identified they were constrained by current institutions and infrastructure.

The personal pedagogy of participants was revealed to show a preference to encouraging critical thinking and a questioning attitude among students, transformational learning, and active
engagement in the community. Issues of academic change agents and power within faculty members was addressed by participants, reflecting on the opportunities and constraints to their roles as academics. The role of faculty as educators and researchers was also discussed, examining the constraints brought on by the ‘publish or perish’ mentality, the value of publications, and the influence of teaching in furthering the sustainability agenda in marketing. Figure 4.1 displays the sub-themes of this first theme.

4.1.1 The defining moments

Participants reflected when and why sustainability became an important topic both personally and professionally. Understanding the formation of a sustainability worldview is an important topic of interest as it reflects on possible ways sustainability interest can be triggered in others. Most participants had trouble pinpointing exactly why they became interested in sustainability. Three participants said that it was a gradual and multifaceted experience, being unable to reflect on specific ‘turning points’ in their life in regard to sustainability.

*I saw it more as a gradual thing, something that just became so obvious that this is what I was interested in, this is what I wanted to teach, this is what I wanted to write about.* (Louise)

*Through, you know, your socialisation experience, through your education, through your personal interests and your personality, and through your family and peer influence and friends… So, I think yeah it’s really a combination of those things.* (Ben)

However, after some reflection, most participants professed to certain experiences in their life as having a great impact on their sustainability beliefs. Most importantly, a few participants reflected that more than one specific experience changed their sustainability view. Indeed, past research has shown differences in experiences with sustainability, with academic staff interest in sustainability happening both gradually and suddenly (“an awakening”) after an experience (e.g. reading a book) (Barlett, 2008). There were multiple avenues by which sustainability interests
Chapter Four: Study One Findings

were triggered. These situations included: (1) upbringing, including parents and friends, personality, (2) work, and (3) education, including presentations, books and writing theses.

4.1.1.1 Upbringing

Specific people and participants’ upbringing influenced most participants’ sustainability beliefs. The influence of certain people in their lives affected participants understanding and importance of sustainability. For six participants, this included frugal parents or grandparents and specific experiences with close friends. Memories of childhood experiences, especially those with nature, have been found to influence academic staff’s interest, research and teaching in sustainability (Barlett, 2008), as well sustainability corporate leaders (Rimanoczy, 2014; Schein, 2015). In addition, other research has also found that sustainability advocates in schools had memories of their parents and grandparents frugal lifestyles, finding in many cases that their “strong ethical stance appears linked to their own upbringing, parental influences and learned values” (Farish, 2010, p. 52).

I don’t think they [parents] did it for sustainable reasons, they said you can have $100 for clothes, if you buy them at the thrift store you can have seven pairs of jeans and if you go to the shop you get one pair. (Ron)

Four participants reflected that their upbringing and experiences in their life had a profound effect on their sustainability beliefs. Such experiences included illness, strong personal connection with an academic supervisor, and friends. Similarly, Barlett (2008) found that mentors can have a profound effect on sustainability beliefs for some individuals.

I became ill….and I had to take some time off work. And all I could do was lie on the sofa and read, so I thought I’d use that time usefully. And I’d always wanted to find the way of combining my environmental knowledge with marketing and strategy. So suddenly I had the opportunity to do some reading, and I read a few books. (Maya)
My dissertation chair was a huge influence on me, if I hadn’t had her as a chair, my life would be so different. My whole life would be so different. My personal life, my professional… I’m crying because it’s like, if she, if I hadn’t found her, I don’t really know where I’d be right now…If you go back and maybe look at this sort of like ab-ba moment, the fact that I was able to connect with somebody like her, at that moment in my life, where I was so vulnerable and so impressionable, I guess, she didn’t really do things the proper way either. And she also got pushed back, in the field, so… She really was my hero, you know, at the time. She still is. (Claire)

Five participants identified that they grew up in a ‘climate’ of environmentalism. These participants were near retirement and stated that their upbringing was during the release of *The Limits to Growth* and there was an overall social climate of environmentalism.

*In the 50s, when I was a child, that was more or less the cultural value, you didn’t waste things.*

*Especially if your parents were raised in the depression and the war time years. (Patricia)*

A few participants suggested that sustainability was just a part of them. These participants felt they couldn’t identify specific events or people which influenced them and instead reflected that they had always had a strong connection to nature and/or sustainability.

*And I guess possibly it’s just personally and being an empathetic personal and quite egalitarian in their approach and quite social justice and making sure things are fair, I hate when things happen and I think that’s really not fair how that was done and that really bothers me. (Diane)*

Previous research has discussed participants interest in sustainability through their wonderment and enjoyment of nature (Barlett, 2008; Farish, 2010). However, such a reflection was uncommon for marketing academic staff. Other participants identified that their sustainability interest was only sparked by work experiences.
4.1.1.2 Work

Three participants identified that their work influenced and changed their perception of sustainability. Through engagement in work, specifically working with companies engaged in sustainability and/or researching companies and employees involved in sustainability practices, participants experienced a shift in their attitudes towards sustainability.

_Really, I was kind of asked to teach this course on sustainability marketing, and develop it from scratch. And so, doing that, you know, I just became more interested in doing research on it as well._

_I’d always had some general interest in the pro-social domain, but not considering like environmental aspects necessarily. So, I think the teaching of the course shifted to more of an interest in an environmental, more sustainable aspect._ (Ruby)

Specifically, Ruby had to teach a sustainability marketing course, which shifted her research interest into the environmental and sustainability domain. Another participant was involved with working with companies interested in sustainability which was a turning point for him as further education allowed him to expand on his new found interest in sustainability. Consequently, unlike upbringing and education, reflection on sustainability may be achieved through more endorsed means.

4.1.1.3 Education

Some participants felt their sustainability beliefs where heavily influenced by their education. Specifically, five participants explained that courses and other types of presentations (i.e. academic speakers, book presentations) had a very prominent effect.

_Heard a guy talk from Sydney University that engaged me, I bought his book, changed my perceptions of sustainability significantly._ (Stewart)
I’d say it’s more through my education, I’ve always been interested in environmental issues but it took me awhile to figure that out. It definitely wasn’t from my parents, I’m not, I wasn’t one of those earth kids that were running around in forests and camping – we never did any of that.

(Toni)

Additionally, three participants expanded that reading a book, or attending a class or presentation did present an ‘aha’ moment; such a moment is quite rare in worldview transformation (Dunbar et al., 2007). Like growing up in a ‘climate’ of environmentalism, many participants brought up that the reading of books, such as Silent Spring, Gaia, and Limits to Growth influenced their beliefs. While not all reflected that these had specific effects on their sustainability beliefs, three participants did reflect on this direct impact.

I always learn from books so Sachs book on sustainable development, Naomi Klein Capitalism vs the Climate…really showed me how, what was going on and how we needed to change education systems to teach our students how to make a difference in the world for good. (Rachel)

Those who gained their education in sustainability or environmental studies had to do so outside the business school; many reflected that sustainability didn’t exist or wasn’t available to them to study in business schools.

I took the first ever degree that combined management studies with geography…That might sound like a completely normal thing now – when I was doing that back in the 80s, that was considered a really crazy combination of things, and even when I went for jobs with employers afterwards they’d ask – why would anyone want to combine management with geography? (Bob)

Lastly, two participants reflected that their thesis research severely impacted their perception of sustainability.
What really helped me, or changed me, were my respondents in my dissertation, they were so devoted to nature and they lived their entire lives so differently than I had ever seen before in my life, and they really inspired me to change my life. (Claire)

Whether upbringing, work or education sparked an interest in sustainability, this interest was a personal awaking that was able to be translated into a professional sphere.

4.1.2 Personal as well as professional

The interviews revealed a very personal endeavour for sustainability. A clear passion for sustainability was evident, with sustainability interests usually lying outside the academy. As such, these findings are like those of Cotton et al. (2009), von der Heidt et al. (2012) and Barber et al. (2014), where the EfS agenda was heavily dependent on the academics, their interpretation of sustainability, and more importantly, their passion to incorporate sustainability. Specifically, “individual academics rather than school/university policy are driving a sustainability-oriented curriculum” (von der Heidt et al., 2012, p. 4).

Participants “cared deeply” about sustainability and sustainable education, putting in time beyond their normal workload; this has been seen in previous research as well (Barber et al., 2014). Consequently, six participants specifically saw their professional and personal lives merging into one. Past research has hinted at the potential effect academic staff could have as a starting point for change for sustainability in higher education (Barth & Rieckmann, 2012), and these findings add extra weight behind these claims.

Yeah if I didn’t believe in it, I couldn’t teach it, and if I didn’t do it, I couldn’t believe in it… and if I believe in it then I must also do it. I can’t sit on my hands. (Patricia)
Three participants further commented that the endeavour to pursue sustainability as a marketing academic was rewarding but that there was a need to ‘fight’ for their research. As such, they saw sustainability in marketing as a struggle for their professional life.

*I don’t know, I think I’m getting exhausted I think I’m going to retire in 4 years, I’m tired of you know trying to make a change but I tell you it’s really rewarding* (Patricia)

Consequently, participants reflected that a sustainability marketing specialisation was rarely valued or a ‘smart-move’ for marketing academics that wanted to succeed (i.e. high chance of promotion and publication). This resonates with the struggle for management and environmental scholars in the Organizations and the Natural Environment Division of the Academy of Management (ONE) in the 1990s, “many untenured professors and doctoral students in ONE were advised that they might be putting their academic futures at risk by pursuing their passion for nature too openly in their work” (Stead & Stead, 2010, p. 490). The ‘publish or perish’ mentality very much existed in the minds of participants, specifically, seven marketing participants found it harder to publish on sustainability topics than other marketing topics.

The current funding and research productivity structure of the university has led to power relations which favour certain journals and thus certain topics/disciplines (i.e. research selectivity) (Harley, 2002; Harley & Lee, 1997). New knowledge is encouraged but only when it “fits-in” with current mainstream research (Harley & Lee, 1997). Previous research has shown that many academics have argued that they were pressured to change their research agendas, and thus feel that their academic freedom is being tampered with (Harley, 2002; Harley & Lee, 1997). Indeed, academics “write, not to solidify our intellectual curiosity, but to publish” (Cederstrom & Hoedemaekers, 2012, p. 233).

*I made the decision that that is what I want to do as opposed to get into journals.* (Rosie)
It all takes having two identities and working in separate areas and that means of course you’ve got to work harder because you’re splitting your time and effort. So you can choose to, you know, follow the money or you can try to figure out how to do both. (Christine)

The interviews revealed a personal passion for sustainability, willing to ‘sacrifice’ career advancement for this passion. This passion was also translated into sustainable lifestyles; all but one of the participants also strongly related their sustainability beliefs to their own behaviour and lifestyle. This consistency between academics’ sustainability interest and lifestyles was also found by Boyle (2015) when interviewing sustainable tourism academics. Most participants identified if they did not have a sustainable lifestyle they would not be ‘practicing what they preach’. Sustainable lifestyles generally included cycling to work, not owning a car, and reduced conference trips.

I try to consume at a lower impact certainly. I recycle everything that can be recycled. I used to have two cars, we’ve gone down to one car… Certainly I’ve got smart meters now in water and in energy. I can monitor and reduce my consumption along those lines. I avoid companies that I know that their practices are not appropriate. (Nick)

However, many admitted they were doing “the best that I can” given current consumer culture and academic requirements (e.g. attendance at conferences); also in line with Boyle’s (2015) findings. Indeed, current socio-technical institutions can prohibit the adoption of more sustainable behaviours (Belz, 2005; Lorenzoni et al., 2007).

I try to. Like most academics, there’s always tensions between what I do. Travelling to conferences for example… Typically, jars against some of the things that you know, I believe in. (Louise)

This personal interest in sustainability was also seen beyond marketing research and extended towards an interest to inspire, motivate and educate students in sustainability.
4.1.3 Education philosophy in marketing education

The challenge of implementing forms of pedagogy that match the complex nature of sustainability, especially in marketing, proves to be another barrier to the successful integration of sustainability within the higher education curriculum (Wood et al., 2016). In fact, some education scholars argue that the current education system is leading to unsustainability (Giroux, 2002; Sipos et al., 2008). Appropriate pedagogy for sustainable education has been discussed by many, including those in business and marketing studies (e.g. Bridges & Wilhelm, 2008; Cotton, Warren, Maiboroda, & Bailey, 2007; Kearins & Springett, 2003; Mac Vaugh & Norton, 2012).

Participants reflected on how they taught sustainability, and as such, certain pedagogies or teaching philosophies emerged. These pedagogies revolved around: (1) community-service learning, (2) critical thinking, and (3) transformational learning.

4.1.3.1 Community service-learning

Four sustainability academics openly wanted their students to be active citizens and participate in sustainability initiatives on campus and in their community. This was usually achieved through assessments that required campus and community involvement in sustainability activities. Mostly, these participants wanted to actively encourage behaviour change in their students. Community service-learning and problem-based learning both include aspects of experiential learning, usually within the community to solve real-world problems (Shephard, 2008; Sipos et al., 2008). Both have been attached to sustainable education (Bascoul et al., 2013; Radford, Hunt, & Andrus, 2015; Wiese & Sherman, 2011). Specifically, community service-learning engages students with problems to help solve in their local community, while problem-based learning is ‘learning by doing’.

*The motto for our course is “think globally, act locally”. And the first thing I have them do the first week is measure their own carbon footprint so that they’re using either greendex or earth day*
footprint, carbon footprint calculator…it makes it clear to them that it adds up. And that we’re all responsible. (Patricia)

Furthermore, such co-curricular activities are strongly related to service-learning projects, where they can be “reinforcing curricular sustainability education and allowing students an additional venue for application and experiential learning” (Rusinko, 2010, p. 512). Sustainability projects in the community have previously been shown to have an effect on views on poverty (Seider, Gillmor, & Rabinowicz, 2011). Participants also articulated their desire to engage their students in critical thinking, especially in relation to underlying business assumptions.

4.1.3.2 Critical thinking

Many participants reflected that their teaching was about encouraging critical thinking, and therefore, getting students to think and question fundamental (marketing and consumption) concepts. Critical thinking has been advocated by those in sustainable education, including those in business studies (e.g., Kearins & Springett, 2003; Parliamentary Commissioner for the Environment, 2005; Redding & Cato, 2011; Springett, 2005, 2010; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008; Vaughter et al., 2013).

I think what’s more difficult to do is to get students to sort of self-analyse their own worldviews.

And be self-aware of them. And I think requires a lot more… That’s just a more difficult task.

(Claire)

Critical thinking and the use of critical theory provide business and marketing studies the opportunity to reflect on some key business assumptions, such as the self-interested individual, the rational consumer, and the responsibility of business operators and marketers (Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Painter-Morland, 2015; Varey, 2011). While quite a few participants pointed to the idea of critical thinking for sustainable education, especially in marketing, some acknowledged that they didn’t specifically want students to adopt their viewpoints. Instead,
participants wished for students to make up their own mind. Similar recommendations were made by Mulder (2010, p. 83), “lecturers should not prescribe norms and values to students, instead they should help their students to find their own way by helping him/her to sharpen his/her judgement”. In addition, Springett (2005) and Redding and Cato (2011, p. 225) have both utilised an emancipatory approach “rather than attempting to co-opt students into a particular worldview”.

I think my job is to, yes it’s to teach some content but I want people think, I want them sit and debate facts and come to their own conclusions, I don’t want anybody to leave my courses thinking that everything I say or they read is the definitive on anything, I want them to know that all knowledge is created. (Rosie)

Beyond critical thinking and examining worldviews, some participants were more insistent on wanting to change student sustainability worldviews, leading to a more transformative educational experience.

4.1.3.3 Transformative learning

There were some participants that openly expressed their desire to ‘transform’ or ‘convert’ students. As can be seen in the quote below, some participants use the language of ‘planting the seed’. Transformative education has a long history with EfS and is advocated by many scholars in this field (Sipos et al., 2008; Vaughter et al., 2013). Even in New Zealand, The See Change Report by the Parliamentary Commissioner for the Environment (2005, p. 34), advocates the need for “transformation in the way many people and institutions currently see themselves in the world”. Transformative learning is to change the frame of reference, or in other words, transform worldviews through critical reflection (Mezirow, 1997).

My teaching goal, and my philosophical goal, is if I can change one student every semester, that’s a successful semester. (Paul)
Because I’m trying to convert and educate people about sustainability…. it’s like planting little seeds… I’m hoping that what I’m doing is at least making some contribution to creating these little seeds that will bear fruit in future. (Stewart)

We’re missing an opportunity for them to have a transformative moment in their lives, at least in their school lives. And so how can we make those projects better, facilitate those projects better so that students are required to be more reflective I guess about the nature of business or the nature of reality or things, things around poverty and around sustainability, and around materialism. Or whatever the social problem may be. (Claire)

Two participants specifically pointed out that they were un-teaching some key marketing and business concepts. Springett (2010), and others, have discussed the “ideological struggle” between the worldviews of neo-classical economics (dominant in all business studies) and sustainability.

Everything I teach in the class contradicts everything my students have studied in the business school, there are no consistencies whatsoever. It firmly contradicts everything they’ve been taught; and they have a hard time with it (Paul).

It is only through encouraging students to have a questioning attitude that such assumptions can be examined (Marshall et al., 2010). Consequently, past action research has suggested a discussion with students about the DSP and the various (business and/or environmental) worldviews is warranted (Kilbourne & Carlson, 2008; Stubbs, 2013; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008), and thus “the aim is to shift the mindset of the students to appreciate other values and worldviews” (Stubbs, 2013, p. 33).

Given that some participants identified that their worldview was changed or at least influenced by courses and presentations (see previous section), transformational learning might be a worthwhile endeavour for educators. Past research has shown that education can affect
environmental attitudes and ecological awareness, however effects have only been examined in the short term (Gralton, Sinclair, Purnell, & others, 2004; Kuo & Jackson, 2014; Sellmann & Bogner, 2013; Woodworth, Steen-Adams, & Mittal, 2011).

The value of sustainability education, and its possible transformative experience, was seen beyond the students’ professional life. In order words, sustainability knowledge was seen as an important personal trait. Participants stated that the focus of job attainment (especially in the business school) was a great weakness and barrier to sustainability education. As such, participants suggested a more liberal type of education, and a need for broader subject areas; this was usually in response to the critique of business school education creating unethical and profit-driven individuals. The need for liberal education has also been suggested by critical management studies, which perceived current business education as mainly focused on teaching practical skills (Choo, 2007). In addition, liberal education had been associated with EfS (Sherren, 2006).

Because they are so focused on getting students career or job ready...I think a fourth year of general education is really broadening for students...so we do a year of general education where students can take things like anthropology and philosophy and biology and so it fosters a broader perspective and the fact three years is really short, it's really quick, it's really focused on the degrees and getting them job ready. I don't think it creates very broad or worldly [students]. (Diane)

In contrast, other participants stated that sustainability knowledge was especially important for the workforce. While participants did not necessarily explicitly state that the purpose for sustainability education was for the workforce only, these participants did comment that industry feedback and getting students work ‘ready’ were important aspects of sustainability education in marketing.

So, I say to my students, you have an advantage because this is not a mainstream course in most marketing programmes. (Stewart)
My job involves passing knowledge on, passing that experience on to other students and hopefully facilitating their role within a business world which could adhere to the same principles. (Louise)

Unlike previous research which found that sustainable tourism academics with a business background “were more likely to operate from an economic paradigm with a vocational orientation to teaching” (Boyle, 2015), this research found that most participants did express a holistic and liberal sustainability and education perspective, with only a few advocating from an economic or vocational paradigm. Indeed, participants were most enthused about their ability to bring about (transformational) change through their teaching and were more cynical about their publications and research to do the same.

4.1.4 Marketing faculty’s role and ability in advancing sustainability

Previous research has shown that faculty members were catalysts for the change process in more than half of the universities who were interested in or engaged in the implementation of sustainability initiatives (McNamara, 2010). As such, participants were asked about the role they saw marketing faculty playing in advancing the sustainability agenda in marketing departments. Specifically, they were asked to reflect on what role academic activists have, if any, in advancing the sustainability agenda in marketing sustainability scholarship as well as within education. This reflection brought forward issues of the ‘publish or perish’ mentality, and the value of publications versus teaching.

Through the promotion of a sustainability worldview in the marketing community, some academics may be involved with academic activism. Consequently, academics may contribute to social or political change, and “may conduct activism as academic work, validating (particular forms of) activism in the name of their intellectual value” (Flood, Martin, & Dreher, 2013, p. 18). In this form, challenging taken-for-granted assumptions (in business and marketing), and participating in institutional disruption (i.e. when speaking up in meetings), academics can be
seen as engaging in institutional entrepreneurship. Both the concepts of academic activism and institutional entrepreneurship bring forth the idea of change in the form of questioning and challenging the status quo in institutions (Barber et al., 2014; Dobers et al., 2008). In addition, academics may, through their writing but also in their involvement in management or authority (e.g. head of department, journal editors), bring about institutional change within their own university and the broader academic community.

4.1.4.1 Activism and change agents

In the interviews, academic activism was seen by participants as weaving sustainability passion and advocating for change in all their work (research, teaching and service). Academic activism was usually seen as the direct actions of academics within their own institution. Specifically, activism was seen by participants as encouraging and engaging students in sustainability projects, and a critical reflection and discussion of sustainability and marketing topics, with both students and faculty, and actively “nagging” for institutional change at their university.

*I participated in climate marches...I divested from all fossil fuel in my investments and then you talk about it, you talk about with your students, you talk about it with your colleagues, you talk about the necessity of change. (Rachel)*

*I’ve spent twenty years nagging the university to accept reasonably small steps forward in policy and things...I see that as being important rather than individual gestures.... I just keep, wherever I can just drop it in conversation, try and point out that actually from this perspective... I just keep chipping away and nagging away to remind people that there are other ways of thinking about these things ... I don’t know how active, activism could you get? I guess you do it by networking, you do it by talking to people, you do it by sending people stuff to have a look at... So, if people invite me to go and talk somewhere, I go and talk and try to put the message across. (Bob)*
Having such a champion or change agent within the university was seen by participants as advantageous. Indeed, some participants felt little encouragement for change without such change agents, who are considered to be critical to the success of sustainability education (Lozano, 2006; Wood et al., 2016). Change agents are usually at the forefront of new ideas for EfS, but are often isolated and vulnerable to university restructuring (Lozano, 2006; Wood et al., 2016). Additionally, in the case of business schools, Jabbour, Sarkis, Jabbour and Govindan (2013) showed that the process of greening was initiated by professors acting as change agents, but they held key management positions (e.g. head of department) which allowed institutional support. Research on change management has shown that change agents are needed to establish “bottom-up” change to provide the ‘stepping stone’ for institutional change towards sustainability (Verhulst & Lambrechts, 2015).

"There’s gonna be no real push in business education towards sustainability unless there is a champion in, at a high enough level in a school or department, without that champion it goes away. (Christine)"

The change agents were seen as critical to the success sustainability education (Lozano, 2006; Wood et al., 2016) because participants felt they lacked power in their organisation due to existing institutional power structures. Current university structures may prevent sustainability from being integrated successfully, from being divided into faculties and disciplines, and a curriculum which is anthropocentric and modernist-humanist (Bosselmann, 2001). Likewise, Butt, More, and Avery (2013) found that significant barriers to EfS were a lack of leadership and change management towards sustainability. Consequently, sustainability academics may have the passion to create and envision change, but may lack the power to change institutions (Barber et al., 2014). Indeed, participants communicated their lack of power to change institutions.

"People underestimate that bureaucratically, trying to change courses within the university is a long, soul-destroying process and it’s often much smarter to just adjust what you’re teaching a bit today"
rather than trying to create any more radical change…it’s a lot of it is just organisational inertia which I think works against people changing things more radically. (Bob)

I am an advocate, and I am a lecturer on sustainability issues, and in that respect, it depends on me and how much noise I can make, how influential I can be in order to incorporate more sustainability into the curriculum. And encourage more staff to do that. So, my role is of little influence. A senior lecturer, that does not give me a great role of influence. (Nick)

Consequently, participants thought only those in power were seen to be able to create institutional change. Those in ‘power’ were those with a high status within the marketing academy, with tenure, editors, deans and programme managers. Those in management (or hierarchical power) positions have great power of censorship in academic scholarship (Harley & Lee, 1997), thus they also have the power to change the status quo rather than to adhere to the status quo. Without political power or support, transformation of higher education institutions “are vulnerable and remain limited, even when strategic sustainability visions and structures are in place” (Lee & Schaltegger, 2014, p. 467). Furthermore, challenging the status quo is perceived by Murillo and Vallentin (2016, p. 749) and the participants “as the privilege of those who are prepared to risk their professional future, or those who can channel their daring through the very limited windows offered by the extant publishing mechanism”.

Then getting in positions where they could influence editorial boards and practices of journals, so getting into positions where they could start movements like TCR, so when David Mick, who was at the time the head of Association of Consumer Research, basically stood up at a conference and said “what we do really makes no difference and we should”, well if you read his speech, I think it was 2005, may have been earlier, he basically said what we do doesn’t make any difference and that we really should be researching problems that matter and getting that out to people and so from that the TCR was born, but he was a pretty important position, he was head of ACR, so he was in a place to change things. (Diane)
As more and more of those kind of people come through the system, and do get a platform, people do listen to them. If you’ve got professors that are doing well, well regarded by the university, but their focus is on sustainability or critical issues, people will listen to them. (Nick)

However, without change agents to envision and start curriculum and institutional innovation, change may remain elusive (McNamara, 2010; Moore, 2005). Participants encountered no issues integrating sustainability into existing marketing courses; many participants suggested that an existing course was easy to adjust within the parameters of broad learning/student objectives. In addition, only two participants stated they had trouble creating their own sustainability course in recent years, while other participants had no such issues from higher management.

However, adjusting existing marketing courses to integrate sustainability was almost always a personal achievement rather than a professional one. While there were no institutional constraints to adjusting existing courses, or usually to designing new sustainability courses, these initiatives were found to have little overall support or reward from participants own colleges or departments. Previous research has shown similar results; personal initiative to integrate sustainability into a course was not considered difficult, however extending this to outside one’s own courses (i.e. through policy, curriculum reform) was much more difficult (Down, 2006).

When you’re a faculty member you pretty much have total control of what you’re teaching so in many cases I don’t think my colleagues even know what I’m teaching. (Rachel)

The views expressed by the participants show academic activism as possible and needed, but constrained to those with institutional power. Interestingly, while sustainability education was not rewarded or seemingly valued, there were no institutional barriers preventing the integration of sustainability topics in education. Instead, institutional barriers seem to limit time available for teaching or curriculum innovations, and prevent sustainability marketing research and thus lead
researchers to shift attention to non-sustainability issues, which arguably have a flow on effect to what interests academics have in teaching.

4.1.4.2 Role as educator and researcher

The role of an academic as an educator was not seen as a particularly valued one by interview participants. However, most of the participants highly valued their role as an educator. While their role as an educator wasn’t necessarily professionally satisfying to participants, it seemed more personally satisfying. Many scholars have already discussed the tensions perceived between research and teaching (Badley, 2002; Cederstrom & Hoedemaekers, 2012).

You assign those [teaching] jobs to the people who don’t publish. You’re rewarded, because if you publish you don’t have to do those things. (Paul)

I probably should take six months where I don’t do any research and just focus on my teaching and formulate my teaching in such a way that I can feel more comfortable with it but it’s not something that’s highly rewarded. (Diane)

Indeed, teaching is seen as a punishment, performed only by ‘bad’ researchers and new academics, and was seen as ‘second order’ to research (Badley, 2002; Harley, 2002). As discussed by Cederstrom and Hoedemaekers (2012), ‘bad’ teaching rarely had an impact on one’s job prospects, “discouraging teaching scores will not ruin your life. No one will hold you accountable, except the students…That’s not the case with a failing publication record, however”. Consequently, participants usually seem to take a personal, rather than a professional, stance that EfS is important and thus integrate sustainability throughout their own courses.

It was common for participants, even those who taught a separate sustainability marketing course, to integrate sustainability within all of their courses. At the very minimum,
participants stated they were using ‘green’ examples in class rather than ‘mainstream’ business cases or examples.

*I teach research methods. But that’s not marketing stuff. In fact, when I teach it, I don’t teach it like everybody else does. I give them environmental problems to solve instead of business problems.*

(Paul)

Rusinko (2010) offers four ways sustainability can be integrated within management courses, minors, majors or programmes: (1) integrate into existing courses, (2) create new courses, discipline-specific sustainability courses, (3) create new, cross-disciplinary sustainability courses, and (4) integrate into common core requirements. The participants in this study, like the majority of sustainable education research, showed a preference for the integration of sustainability into existing courses (Vaughter et al., 2013). Consequently, participants preferences for integration would fall into Rusinko’s (2010) classification of Quadrant I; this type of integration characterises integration of sustainability within existing course or degree structures and through a discipline-specific, rather than interdisciplinary, focus.

The debate between integration of sustainability within all curriculum versus having a stand-alone course has been discussed by many. Integrating sustainability within existing courses and programmes is seen as the easiest to implement and should be done when there are motivated faculty and limited resources (Rusinko, 2010). In contrast, creating a new discipline specific sustainability course is thought to be better implemented when there is greater resource commitment (Rusinko, 2010). However, participants thought that addressing sustainability only in one separate course was reinforcing the isolation of the topic. Furthermore, Beusch (2014) found that mandatory sustainable development courses were not generally accepted as a good activity by business faculty or students.
If we had a stand-alone course, I would love a stand-alone course, but if you only have a stand-alone course I think you are doing a disservice. (Claire)

Two participants suggested that integration should be a progression from a stand-alone course to full integration across all courses. Interestingly, the participants saw a lesser value in stand-alone courses than fully integrated courses.

So you set up a separate course that deals with these issues, separate companies, separate product line or you have an organisational unit in charge of sustainability and the rest of the company carries on pretty much the same as before…. And then eventually I think you get to the point where you think, actually maybe we have to start to represent this all the way through what we do, and then I think the step beyond that is where you actually change all of what you do to holistically reflect a sustainability paradigm, as a different way of thinking and practicing from the conventional paradigms. (Bob)

The participants’ passion and interest in sustainability seemed to conflict with some of their teachings. Those participants who were asked about the struggle or conflict they might feel with teaching more ‘mainstream’ marketing courses suggested that they did in some ways feel some conflict or guilt.

It started to grate with me – my god, why am I turning this people out to go and be mass consumers, to encourage others to consume, and suddenly I felt incredibly responsible and incredibly guilty about what I was doing because I knew better. (Maya)

While most participants valued their role as educators, usually more so than as a researcher, some participants stated that sustainability marketing research was needed to inform teaching. Consequently, the value of the academic was seen as both teacher and researcher. However, the researcher role has been heavily criticised, especially in relation to the need to publish in A-level (4*) journals (Cederstrom & Hoedemaekers, 2012; Harley, 2002; Harley & Lee, 1997). As stated
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by Cederstrom and Hoedemaekers (2012, p. 230), “we talk about what has weirdly become known as four, or three star journals (everything below that is not worth paying attention to, we are routinely told)”.

The tension between publishing and teaching produces institutional barriers for sustainability focused marketing academics. A focus on publishing in high A-level (4*) journals for career advancement and the fact that many A-level journals are conservative, seems to contribute little to subjects like sustainability which remain, through these institutional barriers, on the periphery (Sharma & Hart, 2014; Springett & Kearins, 2001). Consequently, due to the perception that sustainability topics are usually harder to publish in business and marketing journals than other marketing topics (which may be due to the topic sensitivity and/or methodological limitations) many participants suggested that this puts a lot of pressure on sustainability academics.

*And the problem again with publication here, and every publishing school, is that you’re required – it’s even a requirement of our tenure and promotion. Is that we have to develop for yourself an area of research where you are recognised as one of the movers and shakers in the world. That’s far easier to do if you do something like advertising…. Getting that kind of reputation in and publishing in environmental things, and macromarketing things in the US is very difficult. Nobody wants to tackle it because you start with that weight on your back before you begin. (Paul)*

Previous studies have shown serious concerns about the reward structure of universities (i.e. rankings, publications) and a lack of incentives for sustainability education (Macdonald & Kam, 2007; Moore, 2005). Consequently, there is a need for incentives, in the tenure and promotion process, to engage in sustainability research and teaching (Barber et al., 2014). Specifically, in the USA where tenure is available, some participants chose not to focus on sustainability for their first ten years purely because it was not easy getting published in the area of sustainability in business and marketing journals.
Academics and researchers, we never get to do anything interesting until after we get tenure and are full professors. Until then, you have to toe the line, play the game. But once you’re tenured full professors, then you can do what you want. (Paul)

Seven participants had some scepticism about the ability for individual faculty members to make much difference in sustainability’s integration in marketing research. In the view of participants, a major and broader concern for the whole marketing academy was the question of whether anybody reads the articles that are being published, whether sustainability or non-sustainability focused. Indeed, three-quarters of academic papers in business studies are never cited at all and may be similarly as low in the Humanities (Hamilton, 1991; Larivière, Gingras, & Archambault, 2009)

Personally I think I’m very cynical about the value of publications as a change agent because I think you write for your peers and your peers read your papers and you read their papers and voilà all 20 of us have read the same journal article isn’t that wonderful! I’m not sure if we have much of an impact, you know, that’s just my feeling whether publications have as much as an impact as direct change agent where you’re actually changing students minds in the classroom and changing your colleagues minds. (Rachel)

Even in the 1993 presidential address of the Academy of Management Review, Donald C. Hambrick commented that the academy was an “incestuous, closed-loop” (Hambrick, 1993). As such, the business academic narrow mindedness about citations and limited relevance to society and industry remains a key criticism of the field (Aguinis, Shapiro, Antonacopoulou, & Cummings, 2014; Alajoutsijarvi et al., 2015). In this regard, some participants commented that direct change in the classroom was more valuable than academic publishing.

Few participants discussed the need and/or difficulty for interdisciplinary research for sustainability. Considering that many scholars have advocated that interdisciplinary research is
needed in sustainability, as it crosses many subjects, this might be surprising (Barber et al., 2014). Only three participants reflected on the need for interdisciplinary research, which they perceived as quite challenging. Other research has also shown the need for interdisciplinary research and teaching (Cotton et al., 2007; Wood et al., 2016).

I think one of the great challenges I think is for us to be able to work cross discipline and it’s a real challenge, it’s a very big challenge because we use different terminologies and we have different agendas and interests but unless we combine our talents, skills and energy we are going to fail.

(Rosie)

4.1.5 Conclusion

No other research, to the best of my knowledge, has investigated the formation of a sustainability worldview in business schools, a discipline not usually associated with environmental values. During the interview process, participants expressed a true passion, beyond that of a professional interest, in sustainability. The triggering of such a passion for sustainability was found to be initiated through parents, friends, social movements, education, and work. The latter two avenues suggest direct actions can be introduced in higher education and the workplace to foster sustainability interest, while the former three show how important social influences are on the creation of a sustainability worldview.

The literature on worldview transformation notes that profound experiences can shift our worldviews (Schlitz et al., 2010). Most participants pointed out they did not feel they had an ‘aha’ moment which Dunbar et al. (2007) state is very rare. Almost all participants were aware of the effect that the DSP, or cultural and social influences have on their (and society’s) mental thinking; which is unique, as most individuals are typically unaware of such an influence (Schlitz et al., 2010).
Evident in the findings was that most participants were informed by a liberal ideology or intrinsic beliefs. Participants saw education as “opening and expanding the intellectual capacities of the mind, to enhance the students understanding of the world in which they live with all of its complexity” (Clarke et al., 2006, p. 193); ‘education for life’ rather than for ‘job’. Furthermore, showing the importance of education beyond the workforce, the majority of marketing students are motivated to learn about sustainability to become a part of a sustainable society (52%), rather than being able to work in a sustainable organisation in the future (20%) (Perera & Hewege, 2016).

Critical thinking, transformative learning and community-service learning were seen as key pedagogy to sustainability marketing education. These suggestions are line with similar suggestions for macromarketing education (e.g. Kilbourne & Carlson, 2008; Radford et al., 2015), and are informative to the domain of marketing education, providing feedback on the experiences of academics. Additionally, these findings provide evidence to show that educators engaging with EfS are utilising espoused pedagogical approaches, contrary to Christie et al.’s (2013) finding that educators preferred lectures, tutorials, and discussion rather than more radical approaches such as transformational education.

Resistant to the pressures of academia, participants showed themselves to be true advocates for sustainability, albeit to varying degrees. Living and fighting for sustainability, these academics see their professional and personal lives as merging into one. Along similar lines, Christie et al. (2015) surveyed academic staff about their conceptions of sustainability and EfS, and found that staff engage with EfS for personal beliefs (12.8%), to raise awareness (6.7%), or think it’s important for student personal development (3%). Indeed, it seems that most participants in this study deemed sustainability important, specifically due to these personal reasons, and not more instrumental reasons which were more common in Christie et al.’s (2015) findings, such as relevance or importance to the subject and future profession.
Sustainability academics and their teaching and research in most respects remain on the periphery in the marketing academy. As such, these academics could be change agents or institutional entrepreneurs leading to the integration of sustainability within education and research. However, there are very few studies which have examined the identities, experiences and roles of change agents, especially in academics and universities (Wood et al., 2016). This study shines a light on the experiences and struggles faced by sustainability academics showing that a greater enthusiasm existed for educating students, rather than publishing sustainability research. Participants demonstrate that change in the institution and in the broader academic community was much harder to achieve due to power imbalances and institutional structures (i.e. managerial position). Consequently, hope for changing student mindsets provided participants with the most joy, satisfaction and hope in advancing sustainability in the marketing discipline. Expanding further on the issues experienced by participants, the next theme discusses specific barriers towards sustainability’s integration within marketing academia.

4.2 Support for sustainability

This broad theme encapsulates the discussions about sustainability’s acceptance and current integration in marketing education and research. In addition, the (non)pressure for and barriers to the integration of sustainability were specifically examined. As discussed previously, this study found that participants had no issues integrating or creating new sustainability marketing courses. However, the biggest issue was creating wider curriculum reform, publishing research in top ranked journals, incentivising research in sustainability marketing, and the lack of significance, importance and urgency for the need to integrate sustainability within marketing academia by fellow colleagues and the marketing academy.
The interview findings indicated that the most powerful barriers towards the integration of sustainability and marketing are institutional and philosophical; these barriers can be seen in Figure 4.4. Participants saw a preference for the status quo, and a perceived ignorance or apathy towards social and environmental problems in their fellow colleagues. Consequently, most participants felt isolated and entirely dependent for sustainability in their college. Institution specific issues associated with university and college support, in terms of missions and objectives, and managerial power, hindered support for sustainability. External pressure or non-pressure was also exhibited by participants’ observations of student and industry demand for sustainability knowledge, and the perceived support from the larger marketing academy (i.e. editors, publications). Lastly, participants felt that the business philosophy dictated the purpose of business (profit not social benefit) and constrains thinking about the urgency regarding social and environmental issues (i.e. business-as-usual approach).
4.2.1 Lack of knowledge

Participants expressed concerns about the lack of knowledge and apathy towards sustainability in their departments and the academy. Marketing colleagues were seen to be indifferent to sustainability issues and were seen as generally unknowledgeable about how marketing or business contributed to current environmental, social and economic issues. Therefore, participants agreed with McDonagh and Prothero’s (2014) statement that sustainability is still seen by many in the marketing academy as a ‘non-pressing issue’.

*Is a lack of knowledge by other academics, and dare I say – I’d go so far as to say an ignorance.*

*(Maya)*

*Well, it’s not an important issue to a lot of people, that don’t see it as, I mean we’re still looking at it advertising effects and you know the colour differences in preferences and experimentation.*

*(Christine)*

*I mean, in some cases it could be a lack of knowledge or misinformation, and in other cases it’s just not important to them.* *(Toni)*

Similar findings have been seen in other studies, for example, Doh and Tashman (2014) found that while business school faculty members and PhD students feel that CSR, sustainability, and ethics are common themes throughout their curriculum, few felt these topics were important. Further, Naeem and Neal (2012) also found apathy as one of the barriers towards EfS. It was theorised by participants that sustainability may be perceived as a non-issue due to a lack of knowledge, which may be specifically due too much specialisation in the academy. For example, Doherty et al. (2015) found that academic staff lacked the necessary knowledge and skills to teach sustainability and RME.
I think most of my colleagues have their little area of space that they teach in, and they're not prepared to invest in a different direction. So I think it's more a recruitment issue rather than a re-engineering issue. (Stewart)

The integration of sustainability within business studies usually focuses on minor behavioural changes, a more ‘business as usual’ approach, an emphasis on business, and product efficiency and effectiveness (Dobers & Springett, 2010; Sidiropoulos, 2014; Springett, 2005). In addition, there has been a focus on environmental sustainability for students and faculty in their understanding of sustainability (Rogers, 2011; Weaven et al., 2013). Previous research has found that many academics are still using the language of weak sustainability, such as the definition of keeping things going and holding common environmental views and behaviours like recycling paper (Reid & Petocz, 2006). Research has also found that faculty have been hesitant to integrate sustainability issues into their courses because they consider themselves not knowledgeable enough about sustainability (Naeem & Neal, 2012). Consequently, the participants’ identification of lack of knowledge and apathy seems to be evident across the business discipline.

This lack of knowledge and understanding meant sustainability was seen by the colleagues of eight participants as an add-on or specialisation (i.e. social marketing). Their colleagues did not see it as a fundamental shift in the marketing paradigm, which many participants suggested it was; this inhibits the potential for sustainability to integrate into the marketing discipline. Such observations are also made in RME, where RME is seen as a topic to bolt on rather than a replacement (Doherty et al., 2015), as well as within sustainable tourism education (Boyle, 2015). Consequently, offering only elective specialist courses/units usually attracts students already engaged and committed to sustainability, which means the majority of the business education “continue to reproduce models of unsustainable thinking and practice” (Daniella Tilbury & Ryan, 2011, p. 141). Making such sustainability courses compulsory may also confuse students if these courses contradict the theory and assumptions which they have been
taught in previous business courses, as discussed in the previous section. As such, a culture change is needed, or at the very least a critical reflection of the worldview assumptions present in business education (e.g. Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Petocz & Dixon, 2011; Springett, 2005, 2010; Daniella Tilbury & Ryan, 2011).

In many respects, in an ethics module or corporate social responsibility, as it later became, is a compartmentalised module and people talk general business on one side, then you have an hour a week on being socially responsible in a completely different module. They're isolated, segregated, these different ideas…. It's not a rejection perhaps of sustainability issues, but it's a feeling that they're catered for elsewhere. (Nick)

Consequently, the problem then may lie with a lack of staff development courses on sustainability and sustainable education. For example, at the University of Valencia, more than 75% of academics felt that the training they initially received provides little or no preparation for sustainability or environmental issues (Minguet, Martínez-Agut, Palacios, Piñero, & Ull, 2011). As such, some participants suggested that staff development courses, as well as better sustainability integration into PhD programmes, was a means to address this lack of knowledge, lack of understanding, and apathy. Past research has shown the positive effect of staff development on knowledge and teaching practice, however more research in this area is needed (Barth & Rieckmann, 2012). Moreover, there seems to be very few staff development programmes for education on sustainability topics (Holdsworth, Wyborn, Bekessy, & Thomas, 2008).

4.2.2 Inertia

The marketing academic community was seen by nine participants as having a preference for the status quo. However, some pointed out that everyone, and even disciplines, suffer from inertia
and aversion to change. This idea of inertia and behaviour change is a common trait of dealing with wicked issues of sustainability, specifically an attitude-behaviour gap.

_Human beings don’t like change. We are all change-averse…So, they generally get uncomfortable with that and so they try and turn away from it. But it’s like anything that’s challenging, people will turn away from it and then suddenly realize, you know, I accept this, I can’t live in denial anymore. I have to start doing something about it. I think it’s starting to happen now._ (Maya)

Inertia was also seen as a consequence of the DSP, which is discussed further in-depth later in this chapter. Specifically, as sustainability challenges the status quo, colleagues were seen as having a difficult time fully understanding the concept of sustainability and its relevance to marketing, especially as it is rarely discussed in academia.

_I really think it’s just lack of awareness, lack of knowledge, whatever they’re reading or getting exposed to when they do their professional reading like JM or JMR or whatever they’re just not getting exposed to it._ (Rachel)

Inertia may also be related to a lack of knowledge; without the knowledge of sustainability, faculty may not see the importance of the topic and its integration, and thus prefer to remain in their original specialisation.

_Nothing’s broke why fix it, if there’s no one pushing you to change people don’t change very often so the barrier is mainly that most of the business school faculty in the world are either old and have been doing the same thing forever or they’re young and their PhD programmes didn’t include any area of sustainability._ (Rachel)

Previous research has found similar inertia issues in EfS. Naeem and Neal’s (2012) survey revealed that the most common perceived barrier to integrating sustainability in business schools was inertia, with faculty preferring to stick with what they know. No one likes change and the
overall “resistance to change of the individuals creates a system inertia” (Lozano, 2006, p. 789). This resistance to change also leads to a lack of faculty understanding and support, and thus a feeling of isolation.

### 4.2.3 Dependence and isolation

Nine academics felt isolated from their colleagues, as seen in other research (e.g. Down, 2006), or pointed out that while colleagues where not necessarily interested in sustainability in their own research and teaching, they were sympathetic to its cause but unable (or unwilling) to provide fundamental support (i.e. co-authorship). As such, participants pointed to a lack of faculty in their department that would be able to support their endeavours in sustainability education or research. Similarly, von der Heidt and Lambert (2012, 2014) found that half of their respondents from business disciplines at Southern Cross University in Australia thought their teaching team held similar views of sustainability, while the other half remained unsure. As mentioned previously, change agents are often isolated and vulnerable to university restructuring (Lozano, 2006; Wood et al., 2016).

> I could fight the fight and get involved, and that’s the way a lot of professors in the business schools that teach sustainability sometimes feel, that they’re an outlier…I know a lot of places, a lot of business schools, the sustainability people are the sore thumbs. They’re sticking out like a sore thumb from the others. (Toni)

> My colleagues respect me, don’t get me wrong, but you know a lot of my colleagues are teaching traditional business subjects. (Nick)

Three participants felt that there were real tensions between mainstream marketers and sustainability and critical marketers (Bristow, Robinson, & Ratle, 2017). Indeed, previous sustainability education studies have found that faculty members see their colleagues mindsets as
barriers towards the integration of sustainability within their curriculum (Doh & Tashman, 2014).

_There’s all kinds of conflict, no one wants to hear about it or talk about it. And they belittle what you do to a large extent, but you just become immune to that stuff over the years... You would be amazed the things I’d been called presenting papers in conferences, if you go back twenty years. As far as mainstream went, I was the devil._ (Paul)

Many participants also pointed out that if they were to leave their college there would be no-one to take over their sustainability marketing course. Thus, it would be entirely dependent on the college whether they sought another academic to teach the course, as one academic suggested that may occur with them, or the course would cease to exist, as what happened to one participant. As mentioned previously, while faculty members were able to create courses as they wished, this also meant that sustainability marketing courses were entirely dependent on that academic staff member. Consequently, individuals, not university policy, drive the integration of sustainability within education (Barber et al., 2014; Cotton et al., 2007; von der Heidt et al., 2012).

_There’s probably not enough lecturers that are specialised enough to deliver this material. So, that’s probably one barrier... You’ll eventually get enough lecturers if you produce enough graduates in this area to actually take it up professionally.... I always feel my position is vulnerable. By that I mean, that because I’m the only person that teaches the programme, they could wipe the whole programme and me with it at any stage._ (Stewart)

With sustainability marketing academics feeling vulnerable and isolated in their research and teaching, it demonstrates the importance of university, college, departmental and faculty support.
4.2.4 College/University support

In addition to academic community support, institutional support also seems to be an important aspect of integrating sustainability within marketing curriculum and research. The presence of institutional missions, goals, and overall philosophy for sustainability within the university, or even the business school, was seen as advantageous to those wishing to integrate sustainability within marketing education and research. This created a culture supportive of sustainability, and as one participant articulated, if sustainability is embedded in college and university-wide initiatives, it may come across as less “contradictory to business schools” (Ruby), especially in the eyes of the students. Other research has also supported this, suggesting that an ‘institutional mainframe’ (Doherty et al., 2015; Scott, Tilbury, Sharp, & Deane, 2012), sustainability policy (Ralph & Stubbs, 2014) and support from top management must be in place to successfully address EfS (Thomas, 2004; Wood et al., 2016).

If universities take a policy that they want to be more socially minded and responsible and they start embedding that in the teaching, then it would force business schools and marketing departments to have to do that. It’s a bit of a chicken and egg argument, we’re seeing that the current generation of scholars and commercial marketing departments are not really interested in this area; it’s unlikely that they’re going to start teaching this stuff of their own volition. I think if that stuff was coming from the university or coming from policy-makers then that would push the issue along. (Ben)

You get lots of universities now that will have a sustainability statement. Universities have to report on their carbon footprint for example, legislatively, through the Department of Energy and Climate Change in the UK, all organizations that use more than X thousand kilowatt hours of energy have to report on their carbon… and those kinds of legal measures have prompted universities to have sustainability statements, reports… And yeah, that influences certainly how they’ll go about doing some of their teaching. (Nick)
While institutional support was crucial, Lee and Schaltegger (2014, p. 466) suggest that development of new programmes are “best nurtured in the entrepreneurial phase with little top management attention, low faculty involvement and strong individual initiatives in various areas of the university”, showing a strong support for the need to have active staff, and later on, institutional power (usually from top management). However, even given institutional support, two participants raised questions of academic freedom and suggested that ‘forcing’ interest in sustainability through institutional missions and goals probably wouldn’t be very beneficial. Similar worries have been expressed in other studies, especially about the domineering nature of such initiatives which encroach on academic freedom (Cotton et al., 2009; Holmberg et al., 2008).

*Again, I think it’ll come down to individuals because if you’re not interested in something you’ll do whatever you’re told to do but you’re not going to do it with any passion. (Rosie)*

In addition, some participants discussed the influence a College dean had both on inhibiting and encouraging sustainability research and education within the business school. Indeed, McNamara (2010) found that overcoming barriers to sustainability in universities was most helped with the support from the college/university president. Previous research has advocated for the need for strong leadership to support and implement strategies for sustainability education (Barber et al., 2014; McNamara, 2010; Wright & Horst, 2013).

*Again it’s one hell of a reflection of the dean of the school and some deans tend to drive this more than others and it’s no different than to a chair of a panel. (John)*

Five participants made clear that their colleges and/or universities that had a sustainability agenda, and thus actively promoted the integration of sustainability, while three others felt their department, college and/or university did not actively encourage sustainability’s integration within the curriculum. Those in the former situation were enthused and encouraged by the
stance of their university or college on sustainability. In contrast, those who were not in colleges that promoted sustainability felt discouraged and isolated. Indeed, those who did not have a sustainability focused school or university felt that they could make their business school ‘unique’ if it took on such a sustainability initiative. Previous studies have shown that sustainable tourism academics were disappointed by a lack of support for sustainability demonstrated by management apathy or disinterest in sustainability (Boyle, 2015). While numbers were low for sustainability specialised degrees in some universities, there was hope that there was a potential to ‘stand-out’ from competitors if these degrees or courses were offered. Consequently, this illustrates the importance of an ‘institutional mainframe’ (Scott et al., 2012) and a supportive institutional environment (Beusch, 2014; Dawe et al., 2005).

If I was in a more senior position of management, I would say one way I’m going to differentiate this school’s marketing operation is to position it exactly in that [sustainability] space, because all the Group of 8 will have a marketing major, but they’re all teaching the same. (Stewart)

There is evidence to suggest that the business and marketing curriculum has so far failed to successfully address and integrate sustainability (Delong & McDermott, 2013; Weber, 2013; Wu et al., 2010). Most participants saw sustainability in marketing and business education as growing steadily over time across Europe, Australasia and America. However, more acceptance and prevalence was seen in Europe and Australasia than America.

Many participants, while acknowledging that it may be a growing trend to integrate sustainability within marketing education, saw it as an ‘add-on’, not a true integration of sustainability in education. Seeing sustainability as an add-on was previously discussed in this chapter in relation to colleagues’ interpretation of sustainability marketing. According to Sharma and Hart (2014, p. 13) “sustainability has joined other business school “saddle bag” issues, such as ethics, entrepreneurship, and emerging economies, as a way to recognise, but stop short of fully integrating them into the core DNA of the institutions”. Consequently, sustainability
integration was seen as the new ‘fad’, rather than a serious consideration of integration. Similar observations were made by sustainable tourism academics, who stated that sustainability had been “compromised and hijacked by political corporate rhetoric” (Boyle, 2015, p. 200).

> I think there’s a long way to go, but of course one of the issues is, at what point does it become about popping extra subjects on the curriculum or at what point do you change the mainstream of what you teach to incorporate this? (Bob)

> I don’t think there is a lot of true integration. There’s acknowledgement. I think there’s been acceptance, but I don’t think there’s really integration. (Toni)

Three participants were also very aware that sustainability was only addressed in postgraduate or final year undergraduate courses which hinders its effectiveness, especially considering that traditional business and marketing courses may be seen to be in conflict about teaching sustainability issues. Other research has made similar observations in the undergraduate and postgraduate curriculum (Daniella Tilbury & Ryan, 2011; von der Heidt & Lamberton, 2014).

> In my experience, the students when I’ve taught this stuff, they get very interested and involved, but they often haven’t been exposed to this stuff… So, for two and a half years they’re getting all this stuff about commercial marketing and how to sell, and profits and shareholder values and all the rest of it …. So, it’s quite late, and I think they’d do better if these courses were in first year classes and then throughout the course. (Ben)

This possible tension between traditional marketing courses and sustainability courses is related to both the underlying theory related to marketing and business (Painter-Morland, 2015; Varey, 2011), which may confuse students about the purpose and obligation of business, as well as the idea that concepts such as sustainability are ‘added-on’ at the very last year, lessening its importance to the discipline. Student understanding of sustainability and their demand of sustainability education is seen as a key pressure on business schools.
4.2.5 Student and industry pressure

There were several contrasting views about the avenues through which pressure was put on the business school to incorporate sustainability. The pressure, or non-pressure from business/industry and students, were two key avenues for sustainability integration into the marketing curriculum. Doherty et al. (2015) also identified the external institutional pressures on business schools as external stakeholders such as student demand and NGOs.

Some participants thought the pressure on business schools to change comes, or will come, directly from industry. Indeed, business curriculum is often modified to fit the demands of the market (Murillo & Vallentin, 2016; Wedlin, 2011). As such, participants saw business as being ahead of marketing education, and thus saw pressure from business as the most likely advocate of change. However, many more suggested that industry could put pressure on the business school and business schools would respond accordingly, but currently this was not the case for sustainability education (as it is doing so now with pressure for big data and analytics). In 2004, it was stated that the Australian business industry did not demand sustainability education from business schools (Daniella Tilbury, Crawley, & Berry, 2005). However, there is evidence to suggest demand may have increased in recent years, for example with a number of Fortune 500 corporations assigning sustainability management positions (Bridges & Wilhelm, 2008). Moreover, this ability to pressure business schools about what to teach is not always seen in a positive light, suggesting that ‘low-status’ knowledge which contributes to ecological, cultural and human-centred issues are resisted by industry as this knowledge is regarded as irrelevant or inhibitive to the growth agenda (Manteaw, 2008).

But I would say there’s a push amongst corporations and therefore filtering down through business schools, on sustainability. Again, I may be biased just from my exposure here. (Ruby)
We’re getting pressure from businesses training to do analytics, so that’s current push, the current fad is all over that and so that’s kind of actually put sustainability over on the side again. (Rachel)

Conversely, seven academics saw industry as putting no pressure at all on the business school for sustainability literate marketing students.

I think it’s less from industry…their motivations are different. Can we save money, can we reduce costs, can we comply with legislation. (Nick)

This lack of pressure may be due to the fact that some participants saw business as lagging behind the academy in terms of integration of sustainability into practices.

I mean, typically academia is ahead of business in general, but we also I think academics end up having very long conversations with ourselves too, because it’s hard to get our ideas across to businesses who aren’t really willing to listen. (Claire)

Seven participants saw the pressure was coming, and would continue to come, from students. Previous research has found mixed attitudes towards EfS from students. Some research has found a perception of lack of importance in students (Doh & Tashman, 2014), while other research has shown that students and faculty, including those in business, find sustainability to be important and have a positive perception of sustainability education (e.g. Beusch, 2014; Net Impact, 2010; Sharma & Kelly, 2014). Research focused on faculty also found that students were suggested as one of the possible driving forces to encourage universities to integrate sustainability (Wright & Horst, 2013). Furthermore, students led the sustainability efforts at 35% of the universities who were interested in or engaged in the implementation of sustainability initiatives (McNamara, 2010). However, von der Heidt and Lamberton (2014) found that students were perceived by business faculty to attach less significance to sustainability than faculty themselves because of their vocational focus. Consequently, in adherence to some past research, some participants saw students to be a driving force for EfS.
Yes, I think it’s the students who are pushing this, it’s the students who are saying we want more of this. (Rachel)

There’s a lot of interest from students, and if anything, that will drive a quicker integration into business. It’s the interest from students themselves. (Nick)

Similarly, “bums on seats” was seen as a barrier towards the creation of sustainability marketing courses. As such, participants articulated that the demand for sustainability courses by students had an impact on the success of sustainability’s integration. For example, getting students to enrol in sustainability marketing courses influenced the power of sustainability marketing faculty.

So my methods of lobbying are justified for the incorporation of sustainability lie with student numbers in particular, because the more students I gain on my modules, the more influential I know I can become. Students are money, in one respect, and you know, a greater quantity of students has a bigger influence in that respect. (Nick)

Similarly, participants saw the institutions focus on student numbers, rather than a necessity for sustainability knowledge, as dictating courses.

But I think the pressures on teaching have become increasingly, partly market-driven of course, keep the customers satisfied; to some extent not messing with their heads too much, students get a bit cross, naturally, trying to push them into thinking that stuff as opposed to making it easy to learn. (Bob)

This corporatisation, marketisation or neoliberalisation of the university has been discussed in much detail elsewhere (Bosselmann, 2001; Giroux, 2002; Saunders, 2010), and a previous study has also shown that academics find it a key barrier towards the EfS agenda (Christie et al., 2015). Such an ideology present in higher education means that the very “economics, structure, and purpose of higher education, as well as the priorities and identities of faculty and students, have
been altered to better align with neoliberal practices and ideology” (Saunders, 2010, p. 42). Such neoliberal practices and ideology have been associated with the privatisation of responsibility for the environment (Dimick, 2015).

Four academics observed a lack of enthusiasm from marketing students for EfS, also in accordance with the previous literature (Doh & Tashman, 2014; von der Heidt et al., 2012). Specifically, two participants saw students as a barrier to curriculum innovation as students didn’t want new or ‘deep thinking’ topics.

*But I’m finding the students are not all that interested. I keep waiting, they say oh yes, Generation E, environment, is coming soon! It’s been almost forty years and they’re not here yet.* (Patricia)

Other research has also found similar negative attitudes in students. Doh and Tashman (2014) found that students’ mindsets were seen as a barrier to sustainability education, with students unable to see the importance of sustainability and a general lack of interest. Barber et al. (2014) also commented on the contrasting evidence with some research suggesting students demanded sustainability education and other research suggesting that students expect the business school to “teach them the professional skills and knowledge that will enable them to find jobs as leaders or managers, not spend time focused on environmental problems” (p. 475).

Addressing this complex set of relationships, Beusch (2014) has conceptualised the circular and reciprocal nature of the supply and demand of sustainability literate graduates. This includes students, academic staff and industry; “if sustainability demonstrates its value and importance to deans, staff and students, business schools will adapt their curricula to offer students sustainability education. If sustainability demonstrates its value to organizations and companies, business recruiters will seek graduates who have such education.” (p.537). Consequently, there must be a simultaneous demand by customers, managers, students, and academics for sustainability education.
Other participants suggested that accreditation bodies have the power to direct business schools to become more interested in sustainability. Similarly, Butt, More, and Avery (2013) found that their participants felt pressure from course accreditation panels and professional industry bodies, and saw this as a major pressure on curriculum redesign. Doherty et al. (2015) also identified, through several case studies, the external pressures of accreditation bodies.

_AACSB, we have to adhere to their standards, they’re farther along in this than we are. The association is further along than the universities are. When they start pushing it, universities cannot say no. So it’s going to come, either by force or by choice._ (Paul)

However, most participants did not mention accreditation, and conversely, one participant specifically mentioned that AACSB was not actively encouraging integration of sustainability in business schools.

_AACSB…have over and over again put out stuff about how they want us to incorporate sustainability into the curriculum but I really don’t see it happening._ (Rachel)

The external pressures, or non-pressures, from industry, students and accreditation bodies show the importance of outside influence on the business schools and marketing departments’ integration of sustainability in research and teaching.

**4.2.6 The marketing academy**

The sustainability marketing literature is still considered to be under studied, especially in A-level journals (Chabowski et al., 2011; Purani et al., 2014). The classification of sustainability marketing research as a ‘niche’ or ‘fringe’ received equal agreement from participants, as did the perception that sustainability marketing was more ‘mainstream’. However, all participants perceived a progressive change and increased acceptance of sustainability topics within
marketing research. Indeed, the period 2008 to 2011 had 51% of the total studies carried out on sustainability marketing research (Kumar et al., 2013), showing an increased research presence.

*It’s moving toward, I think, a little more acceptance but it’s a very slow process, it’s a glacial speed*  
*and you know whether or not we can afford to do that is sort of up for discussion.* (Christine)

Just under half of the participants saw the marketing academy as not accepting sustainability research. Reflections as to why that was usually revolved around the lack of presence in top marketing journals and comments received at conferences. Some previous research may support this claim. In Prothero and McDongah’s (2014) review, the top three marketing journals (Journal of Marketing, Journal of Marketing Research and the Journal of Consumer Research) published only nine articles on sustainability between 1998 and 2013. Furthermore, Kilbourne and Beckmann (1998) found that between 1971 and 1997, marketing research had a “narrow, managerialist focus” on environmental issues. This managerialist focus was also reinforced more recently, with much research (40%) in sustainability/environmental marketing related to marketing management (i.e. consumer attitudes, responses toward environmentalism/CSR and green marketing practices) (Leonidou & Leonidou, 2011).

*There’s a number of special issues about sustainability and those have added to the conversation and*  
*I don’t know if we’ve really kind of cracked the top journals very well.* (Christine)

*I’ve gone to so many marketing conferences and presented this very subject and I usually get a good turnout but a get a lot of, what do you call it, backtalk from the audience, ‘this is just a fad’, ‘this is not important’, ‘climate change doesn’t exist’ it’s like give me a break.* (Rachel)

There were two participants who felt that sustainability was not niche or fringe anymore. However, these participants didn’t specifically state that it was mainstream either. Others were less optimistic and still saw sustainability marketing as niche or fringe, suggesting that mainstream marketing had yet to fully integrate sustainability.
Well, I think, I suppose that sustainability has moved from being the lunatic fringe, with sort of
dancing around trees and wearing tie-dyed shirts, and its moved into the sort of background concern,
so its moved from fringe to concern. (Ron)

It’s still very much a niche. It’s far from being the mainstream. (Stewart)

Some academics were critical, suggesting that while sustainability may seem like it was used in the
‘mainstream’ (i.e. special issues, increased publications and inclusion in journals), it wasn’t ‘true’
sustainability. Consequently, these participants saw sustainability defined in ‘weakly’ held terms,
such as sustaining business or gaining a competitive advantage. Indeed, sustainable development
as a fuzzy concept does allow many scholars to claim they are examining or discussing
sustainability (Hedlund-de Witt, 2014). As discussed previously, sustainability has many
interpretations about what, who, and the solutions it involves (Hopwood et al., 2005).

The relationship between marketing and sustainability is usually seen to be a non-
contention for marketing. However, scholars in macromarketing, critical marketing and outside
the marketing discipline (i.e. sociology), see substantial relationships between sustainability and
marketing, raising questions about limits to growth, consumer behaviour, and links with
materialism and (un)happiness (Varey, 2011). Marketing management, a large subset of
marketing research, especially in relation to environmental and sustainability marketing
(Kilbourne & Beckmann, 1998; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014; Wilkie & Moore, 2003), believes
the eco-efficiency of green products will contribute to sustainable development. As such, the
answer to unsustainable consumption is more consumption of green products (Pereira Heath &
Chatzidakis, 2012). While this is a step in the right direction, most scholars still ignore
overconsumption, in relation to resources, inequity (unequal distribution) and social aspects of
production (e.g. living wage, working conditions) (Varey, 2011).
First of all, sustainability is not what they’re doing, its green marketing. Which is a step in the right direction, but a lot of – this is what’s disturbing to me – if you study this, particularly if you study critical theory and ideology, they’re in the process of commandeering the word ‘sustainability’.

(Paul)

In contrast, three participants felt that sustainability was welcomed and accepted in top tier marketing journals. These academics, usually experienced academics, felt that good quality research would get published regardless of the topic. In this instance, the problem of sustainability research was that it is usually more qualitative, which not all journals are accepting of, and that it was harder to integrate into existing theory.

I wouldn’t say that A-level journals are less accepting of this, I haven’t experienced that personally.

In any case, when you’re writing an article it has to be good quality. (Toni)

Some others who felt sustainability marketing was much more accepted in the ‘mainstream’ reflected that special issues and conference tracks existed for sustainability in the marketing discipline. Indeed, most marketing conferences, such as the Academy of Marketing, European Marketing Academy and the Academy of Marketing Science, frequently include tracks on sustainability, ethics and corporate social responsibility.

Feeling support for sustainability from external bodies and the academic community demonstrates the importance of acceptance and acknowledgement to further sustainability’s integration within marketing academia. However, this acceptance and acknowledgement becomes even harder to pin-point and change when deep (power) structures of marketing are addressed such as institutional culture revolving around the DSP.
4.2.7 The Dominant Social Paradigm

The engagement of sustainability was seen by participants as in conflict and contrast to the traditional philosophy of business (Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Springett, 2010; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008). Consequently, a major ideological barrier some participants saw was the DSP evident in faculty, universities, colleges, and departments, and the world in general, as preventing the further integration of sustainability in marketing departments. This finding corroborates Toubiana’s (2014) findings on profit-driven ideology preventing the integration of social justice in business education. Furthermore, Doherty et al. (2015) found that a large barrier to EfS and RME were colleagues believing strongly in the ‘profit maximisation paradigm’. Overall, participants thought society, governments and universities adhered to the DSP.

*We can’t undo things, we can undo some things but we can’t un-ring bells, we’ve got technologies and we’ve all got used to living the way that we’re used to living so it’s not gonna change over night, there is a dominant social paradigm, if there’s not a shift in that then we will continue in the consumer frenzy.* (Rosie)

Everyone holds their own worldview, but societies also tend to have dominant worldviews (van Egmond & de Vries, 2011). The current DSP emphasises economic growth, laissez-faire economics, humans’ rule over nature, individual property rights, and technological fixes to environmental problems (Kilbourne, 2004). This dominant worldview is said to create and perpetuate the current environment, social and economic issues (Beddoe et al., 2009; Borland & Lindgreen, 2013; Matutinović, 2007), and is largely espoused by business schools and marketing departments (Beusch, 2014; Petocz & Dixon, 2011; Springett, 2010; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008). However, the failure of the current institutions to solve environmental and social issues has led to a questioning of the DSP as it is no longer helpful in interpreting social reality (Pirage & Ehrlic, 1974).
Participants felt that marketing academics were also seen to adhere to the DSP. This findings is in line with Toubiana’s (2014) and Green’s (2013; 2015) research which reveals that there is possibly a dominant thinking, or ideology, in business schools which prevents the ability to both see the importance of social justice and green issues in business studies and the ability to address these issues in research and teaching.

Yeah I think there’s a conflict, you can’t be, say that your profit is your objective and shareholders are the only ones you’re going to listen to, you have to change where its stakeholders, where profit is not the first objective and that’s a huge shift, and I don’t, given the current state of the world military industrial complex I don’t see that changing very often. (Rachel)

I mean I think there’s partially a belief that the market is gonna fix things. (Diane)

That may sound very harsh, and I know there’s a lot of academics out there trying to address this stuff, but it’s very inadequate if they’re staying in an…dominant social paradigm. It won’t happen; it just won’t happen. (Maya)

In addition, two participants spoke about the corporatisation of the university and business school which are seen as problematic as it limits the incorporation of sustainability. This tension has been discussed by many scholars elsewhere (e.g. Bosselmann, 2001; Giroux, 2002). Specifically, corporations are becoming more entangled with the business school. For example “corporations increasingly dictate the very research they sponsor, and in some universities, such as the University of California, Berkeley, business representatives are actually appointed to sit on faculty committees that determine how research funds are to be spent and allocated” (Giroux, 2002, p. 433). Indeed, some participants stated this entanglement with industry was common place in universities. However, not everyone discussed this relationship in a bad light, some thought this involvement helped the business school be more relevant, while one participant specifically saw this association as a conflict towards critical research. This is in line with Murillo
and Vallentin (2016), who argue that institutional problems towards the business school becoming more socially embedded include the aim and funding of business schools.

In North America, how education is paid for – not paid for, but funded I guess – and seeing more of the corporate sponsorship…you have certain obligations that go with that. I think that’s a barrier… I’m trying to say business schools are partnered or have strong partnerships with the corporate world, and that doesn’t help lessen the barriers. (Toni)

The reason why adhering to corporate interest, and particularly the DSP (usually associated with such interest), is problematic for sustainability’s integration, is because the two concepts are seen to be fundamentally in conflict (Giroux, 2002; Springett, 2003, 2005). One philosophy is based on continuous consumption, while the other focuses on ‘enoughness’ (Gorge et al., 2015).

And I actually think these are very real tensions and incompatibility between these ideas and sustainability. Most businesses and corporations for example tend to be focused around growth – growing markets, growing consumptions, growing profits and we know that the world has got limited resources, so it’s not possible to always having growing productivity and growing consumption. Eventually all the resources are going to reach a crisis point. So, no, I mean – I would say that when you’re a social marketer or a critical marketer or even an environmentalist in marketing, you tend to be sort of going against the grain I would say. (Ben)

The parameters, the worldview, whatever you want to call it, the epistemology, the ontology has to change. Fundamentally change, if we’re to get anywhere towards sustainability. (Maya)

Some participants also mentioned the very confronting nature of sustainability to more ‘mainstream’ or commercial marketing academics. The barrier towards more mainstream attention of sustainability was seen to be the actual acknowledgement that marketing has contributed to current environmental and social issues.
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Maybe I did something that’s not ethical or maybe I did things that aren’t sustainable, that’s very confronting for people and people don’t like to do that. I think it’s part of the culture of marketing departments and business schools in a way. (Ben)

Putting up the mirror of sustainability to marketing professionals and theorists is suggesting that we are all somehow implicated in where we are right now in the state of the planet, and we are, and nobody wants to be implicated, nobody wants to say I was part of something that you know was devastating or could be devastating. So it’s an uphill battle, it’s like talking to, you know…misogynist about feminism, they don’t want to hear it. (Christine)

Figueiró and Raufflet (2015) also identified that there are terminology barriers preventing sustainability integration in management education. The terminological challenges relate to the tension between holistic sustainability definitions and narrow or instrumental definitions, the debate about the balance of environmental, social and economic concerns in business (rather than just economic), and the complex nature of sustainability which requires new approaches to education. Along similar lines, the participants suggested that acknowledging sustainability as important to marketing (in education and research) required a mindset, or worldview shift, from an economic focus of business to one which includes environmental and social concerns, as well as change in pedagogy (i.e. transformational education). However, the DSP was seen as preventing this acknowledgement, and because of this, environmental or social concerns are of no relevance to them personally, or to marketing and business specifically.

I think the problem with the dominant social paradigm is you aren’t aware of it because it’s the dominant social paradigm. Like, you aren’t particularly aware of the floor you’re standing on, it’s just there. So I think a lot of the problem is we just accept the current situation as normal, and therefore as right and therefore as acceptable. In some ways it’s a bit like, if you bring a child up in terrible circumstances, it will still just accept those as normal. So I think institutionally, a lot of my
colleagues have never particularly challenged the way they think of marketing or any aspect of their lives really, because the dominant social paradigm says it’s okay. (Bob)

4.2.8 Conclusion

It is only through the experiences of sustainability marketing academics that we can begin to understand what struggles and barriers may exist towards the successful integration of sustainability within marketing academia. This study found that while participants perceived a progressive change and acceptance of sustainability topics within marketing, some felt it was a slow process that had yet to enter mainstream marketing (i.e. top tier journals). Similarly, a lack of knowledge and inertia was seen as another main barrier in faculty; this is consistent with the literature examining EfS (Beusch, 2014; Dawe et al., 2005; Naeem & Neal, 2012; Thomas, 2004). Because of this attitude towards sustainability in their business school and department, participants felt isolated, sometimes regarding research discussions and partnerships, and in other times in relation to the reliance of sustainability education and research on only one faculty member.

Outside the academic community, the business community was seen as not demanding sustainability literate students, and many saw this lack of pressure for sustainability (and pressure for other areas such as social media marketing and analytics) on the business school as a key barrier to sustainability marketing education. Conversely, research has pointed towards the external pressure of industry, NGOs and accreditation bodies as exerting pressure for sustainability integration in education (Doherty et al., 2015). Second, students were more likely to be seen as a key driver for sustainability integration, with some participants reflecting on the positive experiences they have encountered with students. Previous research also shows the importance of student demand (Beusch, 2014), and students have been shown to be influential
in EfS (McNamara, 2010). Knowledgeable faculty must be available to respond to this student demand; however, participants felt that the number of faculty available in this area was limited.

Lastly, this study found that the DSP present in university, college, department and faculty mindsets presented major ideological or philosophical barriers towards sustainability’s integration within marketing. This mindset prevented faculty from seeing the importance of social and environmental issues in business studies and the ability to address these issues in research and teaching.

This study has also shown that without passion, participants would have little incentive to engage with sustainability within the academy or their institutions, especially since sustainability research was rarely published in A-level journals, and that the time taken to create or integrate sustainability marketing was not valued or incentivised by their college or department. This passion was translated into various interpretations of sustainability in marketing.

4.3 Sustainability worldviews

This broad theme of underlying sustainability worldviews was unpacked to further explore the relationship between marketing and sustainability. The analysis found that while similar conceptions of sustainability were articulated by participants, how sustainability was integrated into marketing differed among participants. Specifically, some participants focused on the marketing mix, while others discussed marketing values, marketing’s ability to change behaviour, and the need to critically reflect on the underlying marketing and business assumptions. In addition, the reasons for engaging with sustainability, both as a concept in society and marketing was different amongst participants, with some referring to sustainability knowledge as providing new ways to ‘do’ business, while other participants saw sustainability education in marketing as a personal and societal need. Furthermore, the conception of marketing as the ‘bad guy’ was
acknowledged but disputed by some. However, most participants felt sustainability marketing entirely replaced the traditional marketing paradigm. The differing themes which are discussed in this section can be seen in Figure 4.6.

Figure 4.6 Theme Three

4.3.1 Sustainability definitions

Little differences existed with participants understanding of sustainability. Most participants identified the three (economic, social and environmental) pillars of sustainability, and usually cited the Brundtland Report (1987) as influencing their definition. This is similar to other studies on academic sustainability perceptions (von der Heidt & Lamberton, 2014; Wright & Horst, 2013). However, most participants didn’t explain what was meant by each pillar, merely referring to the ‘the triple bottom line’, ‘three pillars’ or ‘people-planet-profit’.

*I mean think about the Brundtland Commission definition, which is what most people use. I think that pretty much covers it. I know it’s from the UN conference on sustainability. That is the sort of triple bottom line description. From my own experience, they know how to word.* (Christine)
Like other studies, participants acknowledged that sustainability was a broad and difficult concept to discuss (Cotton et al., 2007; Reid & Petocz, 2006), however all participants understood the ‘basics’ (Brundtland) of sustainability.

*I think sustainability has gotten quite tricky because it means different things to different people now but I don’t think we’ve got a better word, so it one of the things of many of us working who feel we are working in the field are struggling with, what do we actually mean by sustainability. (Rosie)*

However, many confessed either explicitly or implicitly that they tended to focus on just environmental issues. Previous research focused on the sustainability conceptions held by academic staff has found the same (Reid & Petocz, 2006; Wright & Horst, 2013). This implicit focus on sustainability was shown through how participants addressed sustainability in marketing (i.e. only environmental impact of products).

In addition, the purpose for implementing sustainability usually revolved around the idea of limited resources. However, some participants could be construed as implementing sustainability in marketing and business to sustain business, not society per se. Indeed, the motivations for pursuing business sustainability varies from self-interested concerns (i.e. compliance), to profit-driven motives (i.e. improved reputation), to altruistic concerns (i.e. concern for future generation, issues of social justice) (Van Marrewijk, 2003). Boyle (2015) also found divergent reasons for engaging with sustainability, with some sustainable tourism academics in the economic paradigm focused on student jobs and sustaining the tourism industry, while others in the ecological paradigm focused on preserving nature, but most balanced the two perspectives. Similarly, participants in Study One, also had extremes of focusing purely on economic reasons for sustainability (sustain industry, student jobs) or environmental reasons (limits to growth, avoid catastrophe), while most others balanced the two viewpoints.
You know, when I’m doing social business, you can talk about sustainability and within that we’re talking about sustaining the business, keeping it going, you know, through the careful use of resources to the careful use of managing, human resources within that business activity as well, in order to not exploit the available resources that we have. So, that we’re able to go about our daily business without exhausting the resources that we have to have. That’s how I would describe it.

(Louise)

While there was relative agreement amongst participants what sustainability meant, this perspective was more divergent in the context of marketing.

4.3.2 Sustainability in marketing

Addressing and incorporating sustainability within marketing also differed amongst participants. Sustainability was seen to address the marketing mix (with a stronger focus on products and services), change consumer behaviour towards suitable lifestyles, be more responsible, and as a paradigm replacement. Most participants discussed multiple concepts in relation to sustainability marketing (i.e. incorporated multiple concepts into their interpretation). Marketing was usually seen by participants as an amoral set of tools, which unfortunately has been used for ‘bad’ (i.e. overconsumption), but which could equally be adjusted to bring about ‘good’ (i.e. sustainable lifestyles, sustainable products). All participants, bar one, which discussed green marketing saw this concept as a separate concept to sustainability/sustainable marketing, as the former was seen as a focus on product design, catering to a green segment that may not be out in the marketplace, and as having a reputation for green washing.

4.3.2.1 Marketing mix

Sustainability marketing was seen to embed sustainability principles into the product, price, promotion and distribution; the former two of which were most readily communicated by participants. Marketing’s responsibility is now extended from production to disposal, taking into
account the socio-ecological product life cycle (e.g. including who produces the product; child labour, living wage, employee benefits) (Charter, Peattie, Ottman, & Polonsky, 2002; McEachern, 2012) and ecological product life cycle (e.g. recyclable materials) (Zeriti, Robson, Spyropoulou, & Leonidou, 2014). As well as full cost accounting (e.g. carbon emissions during production and consumption, and fair wage labour), the job of marketers is also to make customers aware of areas like product lifetime costs, taking into account durability, repairability, and water/energy use (Belz & Peattie, 2010). Sustainable products are created, whereby the products re-use materials and are recyclable. In the best case, products are designed as cradle-to-cradle (Finney, 2014; McEachern, 2012; Peattie, 2001). In regards to distribution, carbon emissions are taken into account as well as retail outlets, while promotions are focused on communicating the firms and products sustainability initiatives and charitable deeds (Jones et al., 2008).

The marketing mix, and we go step by step from the product and product design, design for environment, bio-mimicry, cradle to cradle, and I want them to understand and they have to do all those things, they have to report, they choose an industry and report to the rest of the class on what kinds of new products or product development and improvements are coming out that make them more sustainable. And packaging and things like that. And then promotion which we’re in now, and how you design promotion and how you communicate with consumers and how is that different because it’s a green product, and, or a green idea, and you know, they have to educate and empower the consumers as well as try to persuade them to buy or change their behaviour and whatever...And then we’ll do pricing after that and the idea of externalities and internalities, can you internalise the cost, or are they externalised, I’ll have them do a price comparison of the regular and the green versions of the product. And then place, channels, the distributions, so we’ll talk about logistics and supply chain, transportation, retail. There’s some stores that are specialised and just sell green
products, and other mass-merchandisers that are now having more and more green products on their shelves. (Patricia)

Many participants also placed an extra emphasis on sustainable product design. Such a focus was presented as a closed-loop circular system; the cradle-to-cradle approach based on biomimicry (McDonough & Braungart, 2002). This is in contrast to a cradle-to-grave approach which seeks increased recyclability and an extended product lifespan through durability, reparability and repurposing of materials (Braungart, McDonough, & Bollinger, 2007).

So it’s thinking of it in terms of a circular fashion as opposed to a linear, which we tend to think of in marketing – from beginning to end….So it’s a closed loop. (Toni)

In the cradle-to-cradle model there are two distinct metabolisms: the biological metabolism and the technical metabolism (Braungart et al., 2007). Biological nutrients are designed as nutrients for living systems which can be returned to the natural environment after use (e.g. a crisp packet is biodegradable). Technical nutrients are material, usually synthetic or mineral, that can remain in a closed-loop system of manufacture, recovery, and reuse (e.g. reusing the parts of a fridge for new models or other innovations) (Braungart et al., 2007).

Previous research has shown that sustainability integration within curriculum focuses on innovation rather than behaviour change (Sherren, 2006). Conversely, in the literature, the most common avenue to sustainability is changing consumer behaviour; to make sustainable choices which conserve resources and minimise environmental damage (Shove, 2010; Sibbel, 2009).

4.3.2.2 Social marketing

Another common explanation of how to integrate sustainability and marketing by participants was to focus on changing consumer behaviour through social marketing toward more sustainable lifestyles (Belz & Peattie, 2010; McEachern, 2012). In the participants’ eyes, current consumption levels were seen as unsustainable, and thus marketing seen to be responsible for
promoting sustainable lifestyles, and in some cases to demarket certain products. Some scholars strongly recognise consumers as leaders for change; consumer demand is seen as a reason to engage in sustainable activities (e.g. Rettie, Burchell, & Riley, 2012). However, this assumes that the problem of unsustainable consumption lies in a lack of information and knowledge by the consumer (Hopwood et al., 2005; Rakic & Rakic, 2015).

In social marketing, individual behaviour change is possible as individuals are assumed to have the ability to make informed decisions regarding their own behaviour (Hoek & Jones, 2011; Shove, 2010; Wymer, 2011). Social marketing has successfully promoted individual behaviour change in a number of areas, such as smoking, alcohol consumption, and healthy eating (Carins & Rundle-Thiele, 2014; Ross Gordon, McDermott, Stead, & Angus, 2006; Stead, Gordon, Angus, & McDermott, 2007). Social marketing for sustainability has usually focused on only a small subset of industries and behaviours, such as household energy use, recycling, transportation, pollution and water (Takahashi, 2009). Social marketing for other fruitful areas in sustainability are limited, such as agriculture (i.e. meat and dairy consumption) (de Boer, Schösler, & Aiking, 2014) and consumption reduction (Peattie & Peattie, 2009).

*The other way of looking at it is that marketing can be very persuasive, it's very useful, it can be an educator. And therefore, if marketing can be put to good use, positive use, then it could be a very powerful vehicle for changing behaviour.* (Maya)

*If we know the consumer as intimately as possible, we can influence the way they behave. So, we can still use marketing and marketing messages to get people to consume less. Consume less often. Consume differently. Change to new products, new services etc….If we want to become more sustainable, we need marketing to achieve that.* (Nick)

Similarly, the idea of needing to ‘sell’ sustainability as a concept was also discussed by some participants. Some scholars have also taken this literal approach when talking about sustainability
marketing; ‘marketing sustainability’ has come to encompass the ‘promotion’ aspect of the marketing mix (Fuentes, 2015; Lim, 2016). This can be based on promoting sustainability through consumption of specific consumer goods, or more broadly in social marketing advocating the benefits of a sustainable lifestyle. The general purpose was to make sustainability appealing to the public.

*I mean one of the things fairly consistently as the reasons why I think we have trouble making substantial progress for sustainability is that sustainability is a bit of a hard sell. So in some ways I think we need to do marketing on sustainability as a concept.* (Bob)

Other participants took the sustainability marketing concept further and discussed the need to change the principles of marketing, making it more responsible.

**4.3.2.3 Responsible marketing**

Some participants addressed sustainability more broadly within the context of creating a more responsible marketing discipline. This usually revolved around new values, especially reflecting on needs versus wants, and consuming within ecological and social limits/bounds.

*To me it does try to solve an issue in marketing. And that is I think it’s trying to make marketing and marketers take responsibility for their actions, for their strategies, for the tactics they use… I think if you call yourself a marketer and you’re not confronting or at least considering the issues of sustainability, then you’re a fraud.* (Stewart)

*Socially and environmentally responsible marketing can meet the present needs of consumers and businesses, we’re not going to do without but we want to do it in such a way that we preserve the ability of future generations to meet their needs.* (Patricia)

In extension, three participants discussed that they also spoke to their students about the current ecological and social issues in society. This helped to paint marketing as part of a larger world, so
Chapter Four: Study One Findings

to speak. Indeed, there has been a reduced emphasis on the ability of marketing to meet, address and solve ecological and social issues, rather than focusing on profitable consumer wants (Belz, 2005). Sustainability can take ecological and social issues as a starting point to marketing, creating products and services based on solving these issues (Belz, 2005).

So, if you’re teaching in the marketing environment, in a sense it’s recognising that things like physical environment and part of it… So, I think that idea that it’s part of the world we live in, therefore marketing needs to respond. (Bob)

A few participants also took the perspective that solutions need to be addressed by marketers, not products. Previous research has advocated a move from products to services (e.g. Charter et al., 2002; Murphy, 2005), and thus a focus on satisfying needs through renting, sharing and collaborative consumption (Peattie, 2001).

And when you start thinking about it in terms of needs, rather than in terms of products that actually really opens up the conversation. About what’s actually the most sustainable way to meet those needs? (Bob)

Beyond responsible marketing, some participants reflected on the need to address marketing’s involvement with unsustainability.

4.3.2.4 Bad guy

The vast majority of participants acknowledged marketing’s negative role in consumer culture and perpetuating environmental problems. Only one academic strongly disagreed with such a view and saw marketing as the scapegoat for critics. Regardless, all the participants thought there was a positive role marketing could play in addressing environmental and social problems. Many critical and macromarketing scholars have criticised the current ideology and institution of marketing with questions of consumer sovereignty, sustainable consumption and consumption
ideology (e.g. Kilbourne et al., 1997; Sanne, 2002; Schaefer & Crane, 2005; Varey, 2010). Consequently, marketing is the spokesperson for the DSP (Kilbourne, 2004).

Marketing has been used to create the problems we are in, and absolutely to create the feeding frenzy of consumption. There's nothing inherently in the tools of marketing that say it can't be used to solve the problem. I don't necessarily – most people would say that marketing is part of the problem, and it is, but it's not necessarily part of the problem it's just the way it's been used…. I think marketing rightly has got a bum rap for what it's done. But it's also an essential part of the solution. (Andrew)

Marketing was seen by participants as the anti-thesis or oxymoron to sustainability. Participants were very critical of how others saw marketing, suggesting that most ‘outsiders’ would rightly place the blame of unsustainability or overconsumption to marketing.

Marketing is the villain and the hero. (Patricia)

Sustainability in marketing, it can be a bit of an oxymoron. (Ruby)

However, participants also discussed how they saw marketing as addressing sustainability and overconsumption; in this sense, sustainability marketing was a new paradigm.

4.3.2.5 Replacement

To move beyond such a superficial change as merely addressing the marketing mix, for example, marketing would have to change paradigms. Most participants pointed out that sustainability marketing replaces the old or traditional marketing paradigm as has been discussed in the previous section. The biggest success would be if there were no need to name it ‘sustainable marketing’, instead, it would just be ‘marketing’. Unfortunately, many had little hope for this happening, because of the deep roots of the DSP in marketing, the business school and society,
and because of this sustainability marketing was merely seen as an add-on or specialisation, rather than a complete re-definition.

*It's kind of unnecessary – it should be an unnecessary idea to even have sustainability. We need to concentrate on this – if we designed to live as we lived previously, as the natural world lives, we wouldn’t need to think about sustainability, we would just think about doing stuff that doesn’t damage. So, this notion that sustainability is a separate thing to what we do is part of the failure in our understanding. It’s why having courses on marketing sustainability makes it ‘other’ – puts sustainability outside the norm. It’s an elective, rather than integrated. (Andrew)*

*At the moment, sustainability sits as a separate subject within the degree courses. You would think that in the future, it shouldn’t be a separate subject, it should be part and parcel of teaching business or teaching marketing. That every aspect of it should be sustainable from the very beginning… I think probably what will happen is that the word sustainable will disappear. It will be called marketing, but it will be sustainable. In many respects that is what should happen. (Nick)*

A common point of discussion was the need to acknowledge, question and change key aspects of the DSP, specifically consumerism, and a need for new business models and ideas of growth.

*A different business model. The bottom line for me and the research I’ve been doing is that capitalism as its practiced in the US simply is not sustainable. It can never be. So, we need a different model that can somehow incorporate the best from capitalism and get rid of the worst. Get rid of the excessive. (Paul)*

Some scholars have acknowledged the barriers consumers face with sustainable consumption; such as our persuasive consumption ideology, institutional barriers, and social norms (Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012). As such, marketing and its basis on neo-classical economics and roots in capitalism are seen as key perpetrators of social, economic and environmental problems (Belz, 2006; Belz & Peattie, 2010; Gordon et al., 2011; Jones et al., 2008; Pereira Heath &
Chatzidakis, 2012). In addition, planetary boundaries are acknowledged and the current way of viewing people and nature (as anthropocentric) was seen as a key issue in our battle with sustainability (Martin & Schouten, 2014; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). One participant specifically felt that the environment should be our starting point, not consumer wants.

Marketing would look very different...if environment was the start point. (Maya)

Belz (2005) and Gordon et al. (2011) also argue that sustainability marketing is ineffective without institutional change. Others have argued the same for social marketing, wherein larger institutional and socio-technical regimes must be targeted for societal change (Kemper & Ballantine, 2017; Kennedy, 2016). In fact, current institutional design actively encourages unsustainable consumption.

I guess I’ve become more and more dubious that, that a green growth paradigm is the answer. When I started, it was very much that marketplace is the answer so we can direct people to changing their consumption, so you’re buying X but X has more recycled content and can be recycled for instance and so we could consume our way out of the problem...and I guess I have moved away from that and I now believe that consumption is not the answer and that I actually think that we just need to fundamentally need to reduce our consumption. (Diane)

Without a realisation that marketing must be redefined, sustainability marketing is seen as “little more than a thinly veiled and cynical ploy to attract socially and environmentally conscious consumers while “sweeping” pressing environmental and social concerns “under the carpet”” (Jones et al., 2008, p. 126). Moreover, participants argued that without a critical reflection on the institutions, including dominant thinking in marketing itself and consumption and materialism, that academics fall short of truly addressing sustainability within marketing research and teaching; as has been articulated by previous conceptual articles (Belz, 2005; Gordon et al., 2011;
Kilbourne, 2004; Springett, 2010). Participants also reflected on other ways forward in addressing these institutional barriers.

4.3.3 Opportunities for change

Eight participants suggested that only a worsening of social, economic or environmental crises would incite change in consumers, businesses and the marketing academy. While this was less than half of the participants, this was the most agreed upon ‘solution’ for wide scale change in the marketing academy and society as a whole. Wright and Horst (2013) found the same when interviewing university faculty leaders, while Kagawa (2007) also found that 37% of student respondents wrote about crises, disasters and deep concern, sometimes pessimism, about the future of the society. These students saw current and potential disasters as being the cause of The US Government, Western counties, globalisation and lack of economic justice, consumerism, capitalism, human greed, and underlying worldviews. Similar observations have been made by other scholars, “a transition will occur in any case, and that it will almost certainly be driven by crises” (Beddoe et al., 2009, p. 2488).

I’m beginning to think that ultimately, that Karl Marx was right in that to get any kind of change comes from crisis, it comes from disaster. I think it’s one of these things that fundamental change in trajectory of society, and the economy and politics and the way we think about practice of things like marketing, will only happen after some kind of catastrophe in which a lot of people die. Which sounds a terribly gloomy… But I just do not…human nature, being warned about consequences, doesn’t tend to be able to change. (Bob)

While most faculty were optimistic that sustainability will continue to be integrated in marketing, a total change of marketing or its paradigm to one that is entirely sustainable was not expected.
Marketing won’t be this super-responsible, sustainable discipline, you know – I think it will be slow growth, and I think commercial marketing still massively outnumbers the other perspectives.

(Ben)

Four participants felt or implied that to increase familiarity and interest in sustainability, courses and/or institutions should be established that help faculty integrate sustainability into their courses. For example, a sustainability workshop hosted by the American Marketing Association or the establishment of sustainability institutes at their university. Such initiatives would help increase faculty sustainability knowledge and help empower faculty to change curriculum and teaching practices.

And I have this idea that there’s also perceived faculty effectiveness, like, faculty have to feel confident that they could teach sustainability concepts in their courses, whether they were just going to introduce a few of the concepts in a regular marketing course, or a regular sociology – any field. You know, do they feel knowledgeable enough and confident enough, and that it’s important enough that they’re going to try it. Just as a consumer has to feel that, well if I recycle this bottle, it does matter.

(Patricia)

All faculty suggested that the DSP, and thus a lack of perceived importance of sustainability within the marketing discipline, is very difficult to change. Some participants suggested that the dominant industrial worldview will only change with a new cohort of PhD students who are interested, or at the very least educated, in sustainability. It is only by replacement of the ‘old’ generation of marketing academics that new life is breathed into the discipline.

Part of me feels like well eventually the establishment is going to die out and we can leave it to the younger generation who might make some serious structural changes. (Claire)

However, one participant pointed out that even now while there may an increased interest in sustainability in PhD students, most are still not specialising in this area. This was very likely due
to insufficient exposure in PhD programmes and the somewhat limited ability for emerging scholars to publish in sustainability research.

Again, due to a lack of sustainability marketers and a lack of those who are in positions in power, some participants felt they would still fail to ultimately make radical changes, which is why a few participants saw that there would need to be a change in government and also an acceptance of entirely different way of doing business.

> So, I actually think some of this comes back to the legal institution of corporations and companies is that, at the moment the legal obligation of the corporation is to deliver shareholder value, that’s what they have to do. They’re legally bound to do that …and really, in the legal foundation of corporations, there’s nothing really about sustainability or harm to society or health and wellbeing or quality or anything like that. So really I think it’s the foundations of corporations that need to be looked at, to get change. Because why would corporations change what they’re doing, they’re doing what they legally have to do and they’re in control of it. (Ben)

Overall, participants were uncertain about how to bring about change in the worldview of business and marketing faculty and departments. As previously discussed, more opportunities existed within one’s own department for curriculum innovation and change, and the willingness to sacrifice some professional goals for possibly more rewarding personal ones in advancing sustainability’s integration within marketing research and education.

### 4.3.4 Conclusion

The different discourses of sustainability in marketing highlight the fact that there seems to be a difference of understanding and opinion about what it means to be truly sustainable in the marketing context. Participants reflected on the various avenues by which sustainability could be addressed in marketing, focusing on making the marketing mix entirely sustainable, utilising
social marketing to change consumer lifestyles, creating a more responsible marketing discipline, and questioning the very paradigm of marketing itself.

The DSP was seen as an inhibitor in the institutional integration of sustainability in marketing across research and curriculum, and overall in marketing theory. Participants considered this obstacle almost impossible to overcome, with only crises, replacement of the older generation of faculty, increased faculty development programmes, and better EfS in PhD programmes offered as possible solutions.

4.4 Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the three major themes that emerged in the 18 interviews with sustainability focused marketing academics. The first theme focused around the notion that professional was personal, and specifically discussed the various ways in which sustainability interests were formed, how sustainability was addressed in marketing pedagogy and publishing, and the role of faculty in sustainability integration. The second theme discussed the role of institutional barriers towards sustainability integration in marketing academia, while the last theme expanded on the various sustainability interpretations in marketing theory and how change could be incited.

Interview findings indicate that the most powerful barriers towards the integration of sustainability and marketing are institutional and philosophical. These findings suggest that a large barrier persists in the marketing academic community with a preference for the status quo and a perceived ignorance or apathy towards social and environmental problems. The publish and perish mentality and the perceived associated barriers of being unable to publish in top tier marketing journals on the topic of sustainability prevent academics from fully devoting their time to sustainability marketing. Participants expressed concerns about the lack of knowledge and apathy towards sustainability in their departments and the broader academy. This lack of
knowledge and understanding meant sustainability was seen by participants’ colleagues as an add-on or specialisation.

However, participants had no issues integrating sustainability in courses or creating new sustainability marketing courses, the biggest issue was creating wider curriculum reform, incentivising research in sustainability marketing and the lack of significance, importance and urgency for the need to integrate sustainability within marketing academia. Overall, participants felt that the business philosophy dictates the purpose of business (profit not social benefit) and constrains thinking about the urgency and need to address social and environmental issues (business-as-usual approach).

Overall, these findings contribute to the first and second objective of this research, addressing why and how sustainability is integrated within marketing education and research, and what barriers and opportunities exist for better sustainability integration in the future. Furthermore, this research expands on the strong personal commitment of individual academics, the importance of the college/university and external student, industry and academic community support in integrating sustainability within marketing; or better yet, to integrate marketing within sustainability. While, this chapter brings together Study One’s findings, the Discussion Chapter (Chapter Eight) will contain a more thorough discussion about Study One and Study Two, bringing together these findings, examining how these address the objectives and how the findings can contribute to marketing knowledge.

Overall, Study One has demonstrated that academics do have the power to advocate for sustainability integration into education and research, especially those in positions of higher power, and they can easily incorporate their values of sustainability into their courses. The question now remains, how many academics in the marketing academy are passionate about sustainability, and thus are willing to take on the personal challenge of being a change agent? In part, Study Two sought to address this question.
Chapter Five

Extended Literature Review for Study Two
5.0 Introduction

While a few studies have investigated faculty’s views about sustainability in the business curricula (e.g. Beusch, 2014; Doh & Tashman, 2014), only one has focused specifically on marketing academics and three on marketing students. Scholars have previously argued that there are diverging values, attitudes and beliefs (worldviews) about what sustainability means and how it can or should be taught in marketing and business studies (e.g. Giacalone and Thompson 2006; Springett 2010). Previous research has also questioned how many marketing academics are actually qualified, or at least open to and willing, to teach (Nicholls et al., 2013) and research sustainability, and what the sustainability literacy is of marketing students (Wilhelm, 2008).

Furthermore, Study One found that faculty and student mind-sets, or worldviews, might be barriers towards sustainability’s successful integration within marketing academia. Previous research has also found that students and faculty are significant barriers towards EfS (Doh & Tashman, 2014; von der Heidt et al., 2012). Marketing research publications also indicate a lack of interest in sustainability (Purani et al., 2014). Indeed, most marketing academics may see sustainability as a ‘non-pressing issue’ (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). Giacalone and Thompson’s (2006) paper, among others, identify the business school as believing in a worldview which promotes continual economic growth and materialistic development as progress (Cotgrove, 1982; Hopwood et al., 2005; Kilbourne et al., 2001; Mitchell & Saren, 2008; Springett, 2003). However, this worldview has never been empirically examined in faculty but has been covered to some extent by the work of Kilbourne and his colleagues who utilised the DSP scale on students.

Thus, investigation into what extent marketing academics and students hold a sustainability worldview dominated by business and economic principles would be beneficial to understanding the business schools’ and marketing departments’ dilemma of integrating
sustainability. These sustainability values, beliefs and attitudes are related to aspects of environmental, social and economic issues, and Study Two aims to address the sustainability perspective from a holistic point of view.

Hopwood et al. (2005) discusses the “different trends of thought” (p.38), or worldviews, on sustainable development which tries to combine concerns about environmental issues with socio-economic issues. Figure 5.1 shows the overlapping three dimensions of sustainability (International Centre for Local Environmental Initiatives (ICLEI), 1996). Sustainability views, in the most holistic sense, have differing opinions about the state of environmental (including consumption) issues, human ingenuity to fix environmental problems (i.e. through knowledge and technology), economic growth (especially in relation to well-being and prosperity based on increased global trade and industry), and inequality and poverty (Hopwood et al., 2005). The issues and viewpoints discussed by Hopwood et al. (2005) demonstrate that there are diverging beliefs on the status and existence of current social, environmental and economic dimensions, and value orientations of individuals based on the need to address these issues and its solutions (i.e. through the free market, regulation, transformation of institutions).
Taking a holistic approach to values, beliefs and attitudes related to sustainability, I also take an approach which sees the worldview of sustainability involving issues of industry and trade; social equality and fairness; the social goal of economic growth; business/marketing activities and their impacts on society; status of consumption activities in relation to the environment, and the responsibility of individuals and business in controlling/attributing consumption; anthropocentrism and human exemptionalism; and status of environmental issues. Consequently, various environmental, economic and social values, beliefs and attitudes of business faculty and students will be examined.

The NEP scale by Dunlap et al. (1984, 2000) and the DSP scale by Kilbourne et al. (2001) measure agreement with the current dominant (industrial) worldview, going beyond values, beliefs or attitudes and instead tapping into a deeper understanding of the world and its assumptions. The NEP and DSP are both conceptually and empirically negatively correlated (Dunlap, 2008; Shafer, 2006; Speth, 2010). Figure 5.2 displays this polarisation. These survey instruments tap into the two sides of the same coin – a worldview which on one end supports and appreciates nature, while the other end supports and appreciates human ingenuity and exploitation. These are related to sustainability, as both belief in the DSP and NEP cover and relate to environmental, economic and social views. Specifically, de Witt (2016) discussed social visions and anthropology beliefs of sustainability worldviews which relate to both the NEP (i.e. anti-anthropocentrism and anti-exemptionalism), and DSP (i.e. laissez fare economics and technological innovations).
Consequently, the aim of this second study is to include a more thorough examination of the values, beliefs and attitudes related to the DSP and NEP, and as such, examine a worldview, which is conceptually on one hand supportive of sustainability (NEP and anti-DSP beliefs), and on the other hand hostile towards sustainability (anti-NEP and DSP beliefs). In other words, a worldview which rejects any social, economic and environmental issues in society, and thus a preference for the status quo, and one which understands the various sustainability issues in society. Since the DSP and NEP scales were judged as insufficient to measure the beliefs and attitudes related to sustainability, specific studies and scales were examined which addressed sustainability itself (i.e. knowledge and attitudes). In addition, consumption and marketing issues were also addressed, as these were of most interest to how marketing faculty and students responded to responsibility, as well as the obligations of business. Based on previous research, it was thought that denial of marketing responsibility to environmental and/or social problems,
rejection of consumption issues and a belief in profit maximisation could contribute to a worldview which was resistant to sustainability (Hopwood et al., 2005; Kilbourne, 2004; Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012; Varey, 2011). Figure 5.3 displays the combined environmental, economic and social views of sustainability.

Figure 5.3 Economic, social and environment sustainability views
Within this chapter, the DSP and NEP studies are discussed, and given these studies did not offer in-depth insight into broader sustainability dimensions, this section is followed by a discussion of the studies which focussed specifically on the sustainability beliefs and attitudes of business faculty and students. Finally, other economic and social perception studies are discussed, primarily focused on business faculty and student samples, to expand knowledge in these dimensions.

5.1 The New Environmental Paradigm scale

Created in the late 1970s, the NEP scale has been frequently used to measure environmental concern, values, attitudes and worldviews (Dunlap, 2008). The NEP and DSP are theoretically related to Schwartz’s (1999) harmony–mastery cultural value dimension, tapping into an important aspect of human beliefs (Hawcroft & Milfont, 2010). Societies are faced with two solutions to regulate human activity, fitting harmoniously into the world through preservation (harmony values/NEP worldview), or exploiting and changing the world (mastery values/DSP worldview) (Hawcroft & Milfont, 2010). The scale was initially created in 1978 with 12-items (Dunlap & Van Liere, 1978), and was revised in 2000, generating a total of 15 questions, wording eight pro-NEP items and seven anti-NEP items (Dunlap, 2008; Dunlap et al, 2000). Dunlap et al. (2000) hypothesised there were five facets of the scale: the reality of limits to growth, anti-anthropocentrism, the fragility of nature’s balance, rejection of exemptionalism, and the possibility of an eco-crisis, instead of the original three facets from the 1978 scale.

The NEP is a frequently used validated scale, with an average Cronbach Alpha of 0.71 (Hawcroft & Milfont, 2010). While studies have used several variations of the NEP (i.e. shortened), researchers have been urged to use the 15-item NEP scale (Hawcroft & Milfont, 2010). Researchers have been urged to decide whether to treat the scale as single or multi-dimensional, based upon their own findings, since many studies have had mixed results (Dunlap...
et al., 2000). As a result, Amburgey and Thoman (2012) sought to determine whether the NEP scale could be used as a single measure or as a multidimensional scale representing the five facets. Their confirmatory factor analysis found that a single factor solution represented a nearly acceptable fit, while a model reflecting five first-order dimensions with variation explained by second-order factors produced an overall good fit. There have been several studies which have used the NEP scale and have conducted research in various countries and on representative, student and environmentalist samples (Hawcroft & Milfront, 2010), as well as some which specifically used the scale on business faculty and students (e.g. Hodgkinson & Innes 2001; Lang, 2011; Shafer, 2006).

A recent PhD thesis investigated the perceptions of business faculty about the importance of social and environmental responsibility in business. Oelfke’s (2014) study found that faculty at schools that incorporated CSR and sustainability across three or more courses in the business curriculum had higher levels of environmental concern than faculty at business schools with a major in CSR and sustainability. However, no differences were found between tenure category and years in academia for environmental concern (NEP scores), perceived importance of social responsibility (PRESOR scale), and the level of integration of social and environmental responsibility into the business curriculum (based on number of courses and major). When comparing the disciplines of accounting, finance, economics, and quantitative analysis ($M_{\text{NEP}} = 3.12$) to other business disciplines (including marketing) ($M_{\text{NEP}} = 3.37$), the former was found to have significantly lower ecological concern. As far as can be ascertained at the time of writing, this is the only study of its kind to utilise the NEP scale on business faculty.

There also remains a lack of studies using the NEP on business students (Prebežac, Schott, & Sheldon, 2014), however studies which do examine them usually find they are more supportive of the DSP than students in different disciplines. Specifically, Lang (2011) found that business students scored 1.47 lower on the NEP scale, on average, than non-business students.
when controlling for political ideology, gender, and financial security. Similar studies have shown differences between business and science majors (Hodgkinson & Innes, 2001; Ridener, 1999; Sherburn & Devlin, 2004). Hanson-Rasmussen et al. (2014) found that NEP scores had a significant positive relationship with a business student’s perception of their likelihood to pursue jobs within environmentally sustainable organisations. Previous research on university students also shows an association between environmental concern and country of residence, age, gender, education and political ideology (e.g. Benckendorff, Moscardo, & Murphy, 2012; Cordano, Welcomer, Scherer, Pradenas, & Parada, 2010; Dunlap et al., 2000; Schultz & Zelezny, 1999).

Only two studies have used the DSP and NEP on the same sample. Shafer (2006) used the DSP scale from Dunlap and Van Liere (1984) and found that MBA students were on average in the middle of the scale, suggesting they didn’t agree or disagree strongly with the DSP. However, their use of the NEP scale showed low to moderate support for an ecological worldview in MBA students. The NEP scale was significantly negatively correlated with six of the seven DSP factors (opposition to government regulation and to centralize government power and control, faith in continuing economic growth and prosperity, and in future material abundance, and support for individual rights and for private property rights with limited government), with one factor not significantly correlated (faith in science and technology). Similarly, Lewis (2009) used the DSP scale created by Kilbourne et al. (2001) and the NEP scale, and found both the scales to be associated with environmental friendly behaviour, with the former being the better predictor. However, the internal reliability of the DSP measures is questionable, as Shafer (2006) did not provide internal reliability measures, while Lewis (2009) found very low internal reliability scores of 0.15 0.25 and 0.53, for economic, political and technological respectively.
Table 5.1 displays the NEP and DSP studies found for business faculty and students. The DSP and NEP scores should be interpreted with caution as both these scales varied between studies (i.e. they may have used the shortened versions).

5.2 The Dominant Social Paradigm scale

The DSP of the Western world, and increasingly developing countries, is the belief in economic growth, laissez faire economics, humans rule over nature, individual property rights and technological fixes to environmental problems (Kilbourne et al., 2001). The DSP scale was created by Kilbourne et al. (2001) and is divided into an economic, political, and technological scale, and has been adjusted over subsequent studies. Table 5.2 displays the coefficient alphas of previous DSP studies. Unlike the NEP scale, the DSP scale produces fluctuating Cronbach alpha results, with the political items (especially) receiving consistently low internal reliability (<0.60) and non-significant effects on environmental attitudes (Kilbourne & Carlson, 2008; Kilbourne & Polonsky, 2005). Researchers have suggested that the low Cronbach alpha values may be due to the DSP scale being a formative construct rather than a reflective construct (Polonsky, Kilbourne, & Vocino, 2014). However, the economic and technology scales have received higher internal reliability (>0.70). Numerous studies have been conducted using the DSP scale, mostly authored by Kilbourne and his colleagues, however, these studies have been conducted mainly on business students. Subsequently, there are not yet comparative studies, like the NEP, that examine whether there is any difference between business students and students of other disciplines.

Polonsky et al. (2014) created new scales to measure the DSP including a scale on individualism and an expanded scale on political to include private property. The study found that the DSP to be a formative construct consisting of four observed variables – political, individualism, economic, and technological, thus traditional means for identifying internal reliability do not apply. They found that the belief in individualism, private property,
### Table 5.1 DSP and NEP scales used on business faculty and students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kilbourne et al. (2001)</td>
<td>113 business, economics, and/or social science students from the United States, 128 from Denmark, and 145 from England</td>
<td>USA, Denmark and England</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hodgkinson &amp; Innes (2001)</td>
<td>391 first year students</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>M_{NEP}=3.72 (Commerce) (5-point)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Kilbourne, Beckmann, & Thelen (2002) | 89 business students from England, 146 from Austria, 107 from The Netherlands, 129 from Denmark, 102 from Australia, 57 from Spain, and 112 from the USA | England, Austria, The Netherlands, Denmark, Australia, Spain, and USA | M_{DSPTEC}=4.30-4.71  
M_{DSPPOL}=2.67-3.74  
M_{DSPECON}=2.68-4.08 |
| Cordano, Welcomer, & Scherer (2003) | 149 undergraduate business students                                  | USA                                          | M_{NEP}=4.99 (Original)  
M_{NEP}=4.70 (Revised scale) (7-point) |
| Sherburn & Devlin (2004)            | 70 economics and environmental major undergraduate students            | USA                                          | M_{NEP}=3.27 |
| Kilbourne & Polonsky (2005)         | 148 business students from Australia and 122 from New Zealand         | Australia and New Zealand                    | N/A  |
| Shafer (2006)                       | 302 MBA students                                                       | USA                                          | M_{DSP}=2.50 - 3.50*  
M_{NEP}=3.10* |
| Kilbourne and Carlson (2008)        | Study 1: 87 control and 119 in the social responsibility class Study 2: 194 observations | USA                                          | M_{DSPTEC}=3.70-4.10 (3.00, after experiment)  
M_{DSPECON}=3.60-4.00 (3.00 after experiment) (7-point scale) |
| Lewis (2009)                        | 292 students (35% business major)                                     | USA                                          | M_{DSP}= need to calculate  
M_{NEP}= need to calculate |
| Cordano et al. (2010)               | 301 Chilean and 256 American undergraduate and postgraduate business students | USA and Chile                                | M_{NEP}=5.21 (Chile)  
M_{NEP}=4.86 (USA) (7-point shortened version) |
| Lang (2011)                         | 1,225 first year students                                              | USA                                          | M_{NEP}=2.70 (Business-lowest of all sample)  
(33.8 total) (4 point) |
| Benckendorff et al. (2012)          | 139 undergraduate business and tourism students                        | Australia                                    | M_{NEP}=3.73 |
| Polonsky et al. (2014)              | 1,174 respondents                                                      | China, Hong Kong, Taiwan and Singapore       | N/A  |
| Hanson-Rasmussen et al. (2014)      | 309 business students                                                  | USA                                          | M_{NEP}=3.31 |
| Oelfke (2014)                       | 251 business faculty                                                   | USA, multiple universities. Sample from institutions accredited by the ACBSP | M_{NEP}=3.49 (Marketing, Merchandising, and Communications) |

*Converted from 0-4 scale to 1-5 scale
economic growth, and technology, was related to materialistic values (happiness and success). However, materialistic values were related to success, but not happiness, and were negatively related to environmental concern and behaviours. It is also the only study to find that as belief in the DSP increased so did environmental concern, but was the only study of its kind to conduct its research in Asian countries (China, Hong Kong, Taiwan and Singapore).

5.3 Sustainability studies

Many studies have used a case study method approach to examine sustainability and EfS perceptions among business students and faculty. Table 5.3 displays sustainability perception studies on business students and faculty. These case study approaches rarely used established scales and thus it is hard to compare studies. At this point in time, only one study has investigated the sustainability perceptions of marketing faculty and three studies have investigated the sustainability perceptions of marketing students. Few studies have investigated simultaneously faculty and student views about sustainability in the business curricula.

Delong and McDermott (2013) surveyed 51 deans in AACSB-accredited institutions with an undergraduate marketing programme about the integration of sustainability within the marketing curriculum and the perceived importance of sustainability in the marketing curriculum. The marketing deans/head of departments reported that they considered sustainability content important in the marketing curriculum with a mean score 5.31 out of 7, which received a higher mean than the perceived importance of sustainability in the business curriculum (4.86). Similarly, in a study comparing male and female marketing students, Weaven et al. (2013) found that females scored higher on the perceived role of ethics and social responsibility in business, tended to have more positive attitudes towards business education’s role in addressing CSR, and were more environmentally concerned than males. Conversely, male marketing students rated themselves to have higher sustainability knowledge than females.
### Table 5.2 DSP items and their internal reliability across studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advancing technology provides us with hope for the future</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The bad effects of technology outweigh its advantages</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future resource shortages will be solved by technology</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancing technology is out of control.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When environmental problems are bad enough, technology will solve them</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancing technology provides us with hope for the future</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The good effects of technology outweigh its bad effects</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humans can control the bad effects of technology</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We should keep developing newer technology</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology has made my life better</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Coefficient alpha</strong></td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.74 (3 items)</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Political scale items

| The average person should have more input in dealing with social problems | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Business interests have more political power than individuals | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Political equality can be attained only by major changes in election procedures | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| In political orientation are you liberal or conservative | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Political questions are best dealt with through free market economics | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| **Coefficient alpha** | 0.62 | 0.29 | 0.60 (3 items) | <0.40 | 0.25 | N/A |

#### Economic scale items

| We focus too much on economic measures of well-being | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Individual behavior should be determined by economic self-interest, not politics | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| The best measure of progress is economic | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| If the economy continues to grow, everyone benefits | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
Economic goals are more important than environmental goals
I prefer a society that tries to increase economic growth
Economic well-being should be the goal of society
The best measure of social progress is economic growth
The primary role of the government should be to increase economic growth

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Coefficient alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic goals are more important than environmental goals</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer a society that tries to increase economic growth</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic well-being should be the goal of society</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The best measure of social progress is economic growth</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The primary role of the government should be to increase economic growth</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coefficient alpha: 0.67, 0.61, 0.76 (5 items), 0.70, 0.15, N/A
Only Perera and Hewege (2016) and Pantelic et al. (2016) have investigated in-depth marketing students conceptions of sustainability and associated marketing and business practices. Perera and Hewege (2016) found that the majority of students in an Australian international marketing course had self-rated themselves to have a reasonable level of awareness of sustainability issues, with just over half being motivated to learn about sustainability to become a part of a sustainable society (52%), rather than being able to work in a sustainable organisation in the future (20%), which was the next most chosen option. However, when asked about their valued information sources for sustainability, only 18% indicated university lectures. Marketing students’ conceptions of sustainability related to the environment, customers’ attitudes towards sustainability, business opportunities related to sustainability trends, and the existing sustainability initiatives of international firms; the idea of sustainability as a “trend” was a common conception. Students viewed sustainability from a reductionist or business perspective; such as attributing sustainability marketing practices to increased market demand, failing to see the need to address sustainability as a social responsibility of business. Lastly, Pantelic, Sakal, and Zehetner (2016) found that marketing students in Austria, Portugal and Serbia believe marketing has the ability to encourage change in sustainable customer behaviour, and influence companies to adopt more sustainable practices. Further, students believe that business schools do not put significant emphasis on sustainability education in marketing. Similar limited item surveys on sustainability perceptions are seen in other business school studies.

Doh and Tashman (2014) found that while business school faculty members and PhD students feel that CSR, sustainability, and ethics are common themes throughout their curricula, few felt these topics were important. Conversely, Beusch (2014) found that sustainability education was perceived to be very important by 45% of the students and by 57% of staff and researchers at the School of Business, Economics and Law at the University of Gothenburg, with students, staff and researchers increasing their perceived level of importance by about 20%
### Table 5.3 Comparison table of business student and faculty sustainability perceptions studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Country/Institutes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sleeper, Schneider, Weber, &amp; Weber (2006)</td>
<td>Sustainability in curricula</td>
<td>851 undergraduate business students</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>USA, one university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reid, Petocz, &amp; Taylor (2009)</td>
<td>Sustainability concept</td>
<td>44 business students</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>Australia, one university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petocz &amp; Dixon (2011)</td>
<td>Sustainability concept</td>
<td>35 third year students from the business faculties</td>
<td>Intensive workshop</td>
<td>Australia, seven universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boyle (2015)</td>
<td>Sustainability in curricula</td>
<td>31 sustainable tourism academics</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Australia, one university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piper, Mang, Knox, &amp; Waddell (2012)</td>
<td>Sustainability opinions / Sustainability in curricula</td>
<td>355 undergraduate students in business and non-business</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Canada, one university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharma and Kelly (2012)</td>
<td>Sustainability concept knowledge and attitude / Sustainability in curricula</td>
<td>30 second-year business students and 30 final-year accounting students</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>New Zealand, one university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naeem and Neal (2012)</td>
<td>Sustainability concept</td>
<td>48 Deans and Heads of Departments</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Sent to a list of the biggest 200 business schools operating in the Asia-Pacific region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delong &amp; McDermott (2013)</td>
<td>Sustainability in curricula</td>
<td>51 marketing deans/HODs</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>AACSB-accredited institutions with marketing program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weaven et al. (2013)</td>
<td>Sustainability opinions / Sustainability in curricula</td>
<td>224 undergraduate marketing students</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Australia, one university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beusch (2014)</td>
<td>Sustainability opinions</td>
<td>2,748 staff members and students (web-survey and 250 active teachers/researchers (email survey)</td>
<td>Review of internal documents, surveys, and interviews and seminars</td>
<td>Sweden, one university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doh &amp; Tashman (2014)</td>
<td>Sustainability in curricula</td>
<td>103 business school faculty members and PhD students</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Email lists of the ONE and Social Issues in Management divisions of the Academy of Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>von der Heidt &amp; Lamberton (2014)</td>
<td>Sustainability opinions / Sustainability in curricula</td>
<td>16 interviews with Business Unit Assessors</td>
<td>Interview and content analysis</td>
<td>Australia, one university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toubiana (2014)</td>
<td>Sustainability concept / Sustainability in curricula</td>
<td>8 professors in business faculties</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>Canada and Israel, one university each</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green (2015)</td>
<td>Sustainability concept / Sustainability in curricula</td>
<td>11 economic lecturers</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>British Columbia, Canada, three universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perera &amp; Hewege (2016)</td>
<td>Sustainability concept and the concept in business</td>
<td>160 students in an international marketing course</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Australia, one university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pantelic et al. (2016)</td>
<td>Sustainability concept in marketing / business</td>
<td>182 marketing students</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Austria, Portugal, and Serbia, one university each</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
since the 2006 survey. Additionally, the study found that 64% of the staff and 49% of the students thought they had sufficient knowledge of environmental and sustainability issues, with men being more confident. Numerous staff were satisfied with the current level of sustainability work in teaching and research, and there was student demand to combine sustainability issues with traditional management and business courses (Beusch, 2014). Previous research has also found differences in sustainability knowledge confidence levels between genders in student studies (e.g. Kagawa, 2007). Other studies have also examined the understanding of sustainability by students through qualitative methods.

Reid, Petocz, and Taylor (2009) found in their qualitative study that many business students used the language of weak sustainability, such as the idea of keeping things going. This environmental focus of sustainability is also common among business students in other studies (e.g. Rogers, 2011; Weaven et al., 2013), students in general (e.g. Kagawa, 2007), and other faculty studies (e.g. Cotton et al., 2007; Reid & Petocz, 2006; Wright & Horst, 2013). Specifically, the study found that business students described sustainability in a ‘tiered’ fashion (p.20), from a narrow and limited perspective to a more broader and inclusive perspective:

*Distance* – sustainability is approached via a definition (maybe a dictionary definition of “keeping something going”) but essentially to keep the concept at a distance and avoid engagement with it.

*Resources* – sustainability is approached by focusing on various resources, either material (minerals, water, soil), biological (fish, crops), or human (minority languages, populations, economies).

*Justice* – sustainability is approached by focusing on the notion of “fairness” from one generation to the following one, or even within one generation: the idea here is that sustainability can essentially only be achieved under these
conditions.

These categories or classifications work only from the top down or in a tiered fashion; that an individual may describe sustainability in terms of both resources and justice but not distance and justice. Such reflection on business students’ perceptions and attitudes toward sustainability are currently lacking in the literature.

Sharma and Kelly (2012) found that many accounting students had not learnt about sustainability prior to university but felt that their sustainability knowledge was reasonable and important to have. Additionally, the majority of students felt that sustainability was useful in their studies and for their future, and most students were also supportive of sustainability teaching. Investigating attitudes, Piper et al. (2012) found that first-year business students had more favourable attitudes toward a triple-bottom line approach than fourth-year students, however the findings are somewhat inconsistent between specific questions, with female students possessing more favourable attitudes than their male counterparts. However, non-business students were found to have more favourable attitudes toward a triple-bottom line approach, rather than profit maximisation, than business students. Similarly, Sleeper et al. (2006) found that students held positive views about business education covering social issues. Students tended to agree more than disagree with statements in the authors’ newly designed business education’s role in addressing social issues (BERSI) scale, agreeing to such statements as “learning to help others is an important part of business education” and “business school graduates should know how to help solve social problems”. However, again, non-business majors had higher BERSI scores than their business counterparts.

Given these perceptual differences between non-business and business majors, and the lack of studies on business students, more studies are needed to assess business students’ knowledge, attitudes and perceptions of sustainability in the business context. Sidiropoulos (2014, p. 481) has suggested that “more systematic research is required using a common
instrument to collect information regarding students’ existing views, attitudes and behaviours towards sustainability”. Indeed, no studies have used the same instrument, with the exception of replications of few questions originally used by Kagawa (2007) and Cotton et al. (2007). The same can be said about studies investigating business faculty perceptions.

Von der Heidt and Lamberton’s (2014) mixed methods study investigated the extent to which sustainability had been embedded in three first year programmes at Southern Cross University (business focused) in Australia. The study found that while many business-tourism academics interviewed held strong sustainability beliefs, this did not usually translate into curriculum and teaching practices. The meaning of sustainability to participants differed between their “own definition” and what it meant in education, with the later containing higher-order conceptualisations. Faculty had a general feeling that sustainability was separate to business. The research also showed that most participants placed a low level of importance embedding sustainability in their own business subjects and a preference for teaching practical examples of sustainability rather than sustainability theory.

Likewise, Naeem and Neal (2012) found that most deans and heads of departments supported developing and teaching new and more sustainable business models, and wished to see sustainability as a core course in their institutions (however, this was rarely the case). Additionally, Boyle (2015) interviewed Australian sustainable tourism academics and sought to understand sustainability and what sustainability meant within tourism teaching and learning practices. The research found that the majority of the sample did not know what was meant by EfS, most preferred to use other terms than ‘sustainability’, finding the concept too vague and contested, and approaches to EfS were influenced by academics ideology and worldview.

Similar findings are seen in other sustainability studies on academic perceptions across the university. Christie et al. (2015) found that academics view EfS as an additional or add-on topic, rather than an overarching theme, but faculty were generally supportive of EfS and
integrated it because of the relevance of sustainability to their subject matter. In contrast to Shephard and Furnari (2013), respondents often disagreed that only individual teachers should decide if they want to include EfS in their classes, suggesting there was room for “top-down” approaches. Further, most respondents thought EfS should be taught by teaching critical thinking skills, as was also found by Wright and Horst (2013) when interviewing university leaders. Similarly, Christie et al. (2013) found that educators preferred lectures, tutorials, critical thinking and discussion as modes of teaching, but these pedagogical approaches were already commonly used regardless of discipline or topic. Consequently, Christie et al. (2013, p. 1) concluded that “EfS is not currently associated with pedagogical innovation”, suggesting there may be a gap between espoused and actual teaching approaches for EfS (Boyle, 2015).

On a deeper level, Toubiana (2014) interviewed Canadian and Israeli business faculty members about their definitions of social justice. The research found that participants struggled with the presence of the profit-dominated ideology within business schools, “as it prevented students from pedagogically engaging with ideologies espousing values other than profit” (p.92). The ideology was problematic as participants believed alternative concepts of business and social justice could not be engaged in within their institutions, and in business practice if this ideology continued to dominate.

Similarly, Green (2015) interviewed eight economics lecturers and found that only four of the interviewees expressed a personal concern for the environment and overall, sustainability was not salient within their initial undergraduate economics course (ECON101). The majority felt that the ECON101 curriculum should not be revised to include sustainability. Views expressed by the lecturers included that sustainability was not well defined in economics, and a sustained view that self-interest prevails and that economic growth, increased consumption, and a healthy environment can be achieved simultaneously. Such ideals about the compatibility between economic growth and environment protection are also seen in the general (American
and Spanish) public (Drews & van den Bergh, 2016; Kaplowitz, Lupi, Yeboah, & Thorp, 2011).

While there have been numerous studies on sustainability beliefs and attitudes, particularly in relation to EfS, studies have lacked a common survey instrument to allow for comparison between studies. Most survey studies discussed in this section have used multiple choice and open-ended questions to seek answers. Consequently, previous studies have not been able to conduct more thorough statistical analyses due to the type of survey questions used (nominal and ordinal). Moreover, only a few studies examine and compare faculty and student views (e.g. Beusch, 2014); for example, Obermiller and Atwood (2014a) found faculty were more sustainability literate than students and exhibited more sustainability-supportive attitudes and behaviours than students.

While research has focused on basic notions of sustainability, specifically environmental, worldviews, there is little research about the sustainability values, beliefs, and attitudes of marketing academics and students. This is particular important as each discipline has their own culture (including background and theories) which play a role in the development and acceptability of opinions and beliefs (Christie et al., 2015; von der Heidt & Lamberton, 2014). Furthermore, studies focused on sustainability rarely examine in-depth social and economic beliefs and attitudes related to sustainability. Consequently, other studies which examine the economic and social dimensions of sustainability are discussed in the next sections.

5.4 Economic perception studies

The DSP scale by Kilbourne et al. (2001) provides a good overview of the economic dimension of sustainability, however other studies have investigated support of free-market ideology, profit making, the importance of social responsibility and ethics in business, and consumer sentiment toward marketing and advertising. These studies broadly touch on the economic dimension of sustainability, namely issues of industry and trade, economic growth, business/marketing
activities and their impacts on society, and the responsibility of individuals and business in attributing to (over-)consumption (Hopwood et al., 2005; Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012).

In a series of three studies, the morality of profit-making was examined. Padelford and White (2009) found that student perceptions of the morality of profit making can be impacted by reading of news on increasing petrol prices, but implicit beliefs about the economic ethos were more stable and harder to change. In a follow up study, it was found that different populations had varying views of the morality of profit making. The study found that undergraduate business students on average had a more positive view of the morality of profit-making for big businesses than non-business majors (Padelford, Westbrook, White, Peterson, & Gatlin, 2012; Padelford & White, 2009). However, no such differences were found when examining the morality of profit-making for individuals and small businesses (Padelford et al., 2012). Business students also had a more negative of perception of profit-making for big businesses when compared to profit-making for individuals and small businesses (Padelford et al., 2012). Additionally, MBA students had more positive views of the morality of profit-making for big businesses and individuals but not for small businesses when compared to undergraduates (Padelford et al., 2012). The profit-making scale touches slightly on the ethics of business, however, other studies specifically measure the importance of ethics in business.

The Perceived Role of Ethics and Social Responsibility of Business (PRESOR) scale was developed by Singhapakdi, Kraft, Vitell, and Rallapalli (1995; 1996) as a tool for measuring the perceptions of the importance of social responsibility and ethics in business, and its impact on organisational effectiveness. PRESOR is found to be correlated with ethical ideology (idealism and relativism) (Singhapakdi et al., 1996). Results have indicated that students are somewhat neutral in their perception of the importance of CSR in profitability, more supportive of social responsibility in the long-term success of the firm, but did not agree that social responsibility was important in the short term success of the firm (Elias, 2004).
Studies using the PRESOR have found that marketing students and practitioners both equally see the importance of ethics for successful business (Singhapakdi & Marta, 2005). There is also a suggestion that age affects ethical perceptions, with those who are older having less optimistic perceptions of ethics in business (Elias, 2004; Haski-Leventhal, Pournader, & McKinnon, 2015; Piper et al., 2012). Females have also been found to be more supportive of CSR (Elias, 2004). Further, culture has also been found to affect the perceived importance of ethics and social responsibility. For example, results indicated that business students from the USA and New Zealand had higher perceptions compared to business students from India (Marta, Singhapakdi, Rallapalli, & Joseph, 2000). Other studies go beyond measures of profitability or the importance of ethics and CSR and instead focus on the perception of business motives themselves.

Deloitte (2016) conducted a survey on Millennials and found that most are quite sceptical of short-term profit maximisation and the majority believe businesses have “no ambition beyond making money”. However, MBA students have been found to have different attitudes, with a study finding that more almost two-thirds see maximising shareholder value as a primary responsibility of business (Aspen Institute Center for Business Education, 2008). Gender differences have also been found for CSR perceptions, with females holding more positive views that businesses have a responsibility beyond profit (Lämsä, Vehkaperä, Puttonen, & Pesonen, 2008). Extending the outlook of business to marketing and advertising allow the most, arguably, visible aspects of business practices to be evaluated.

In the 1980s, Gaski and Etzel (1986) modified the scale created by Barksdale and Darden (1972) and called it the new scale the Index of Consumer Sentiment toward Marketing (ICSM). The scale has been used in an annual study in the USA and has been used in other countries as well such as New Zealand, Germany, China and Canada, and differences between these countries have been found. For example, New Zealanders have been found to be more
critical of marketing than other countries (Burns, Gupta, & Buerke, 2015; Cui, Chan, & Joy, 2008; Cui, Lui, Chan, & Joy, 2012; Ganglmair-Wooliscroft & Lawson, 2012). Gender differences have also been found, with females more critical of marketing (Dubinsky & Hensel, 1984), and men more critical of advertising (Gaski, 2008). Overall, gender has a small and mixed effect on marketing attitudes (Gaski, 2008). After more than two decades of study in the USA, education, income and age effects were hypothesised but have not been found (Gaski, 2008). A recent study by Pereira Heath and Chatzidakis (2012) found that the majority of consumers view consumption as excessive, but do not relate this to environmental damage, and believe that overconsumption is caused by marketing efforts. Similarly, other research which has assessed belief in consumption issues, such as studies by Zavestoski (2001) and Bowerman (2014), have also shown high levels of concern with excessive consumption. Marketing perception studies, and specifically the scale ICSM, has rarely been used on marketing or business students and faculty.

Moosmayer (2011) found five clusters of management academics based on their economic and social values, and intention to teach values to students. Specifically, Integrative value agents, who combine economic and social values with a high intention to influence values, were more likely to be older faculty, male (non-significant), have a greater teaching focus, are in HRM or management, and are from India, China and Canada. Social value agents, who had strong social values with a strong intention to influence values, while displaying below average representations in economic values, were more likely to be older faculty, male (non-significant), have a lighter teaching role (non-significant), are in HRM or organisational studies and from Japan, Scandinavia, or the UK. Economic value agents were those who had strong economic values and an intention to influence values but neglect social values, and were more likely to be younger faculty, female (non-significant), have a lighter teaching role, be in marketing, and from the UK, France, Germany, Austria, or Switzerland. Value conscious individualists exhibited
average value consciousness in economic and social concerns but have no strong intention to influence student values, and were more likely to be mid-range academics, female (non-significant), have a higher teaching focus role (non-significant), be in marketing or management, and from Spain, Scandinavia or China. Lastly, Value sceptics, who had low intentions to influence student values and low economic and social concerns, were more likely to be young faculty, female (non-significant), have a light teaching role (non-significant), in Finance, and live in the USA, Germany, Austria, or Switzerland. This study sheds light on the differences in economic and social values in business faculty, as well as demonstrating that personal values are usually translated into the classroom, which was also seen by Boyle (2015).

Other studies which have not surveyed business faculty and students also shed light on economic beliefs. For example, belief in free-market is associated with lower levels of belief in global warming (Heath & Gifford, 2006). Drews and van den Bergh (2016) surveyed the Spanish general public and found that most view economic growth and environmental sustainability as compatible, while just over 20% favour ignoring growth as a policy aim and about 15% wish to stop economic growth altogether. Specifically, ignoring growth as a policy aim was strongly linked to the idea that growth is a wrong priority for society, while stopping economic growth altogether was slightly linked with environmental limits to growth. Furthermore, Gallup polls (2017) have asked respondents about the trade-off between economic growth and the environment for a number of years. They found that from 1987 to 2009 the environment was given priority by the majority of respondents, but from 2009 to 2014 the economy was given priority by the majority. This switched again back to the environment from 2015 onwards. Other studies have also attempted to create scales which measure attitudes and values to economic issues such as O’Brien and Ingels (1987) and Cotgrove (1982). However, these scales have rarely been used in any subsequent studies.
Overall, economic and business perception studies show that while the public may be sceptical of business principles, ethics and marketing, business students may also hold similar critical beliefs. However, the evidence is mixed. Yet gender, age and region might affect perceptions of the ethics of businesses and CSR, as well as the importance of such practices on profitability and obligation to society.

5.5 Social perception studies

Examining the studies focused on sustainability beliefs and attitudes in business faculty and students, it can be seen that rarely are the social aspects investigated in-depth, such as inequality, fairness and poverty. As such, it was necessary to conduct further research into the social dimension of sustainability. With no such social research found with business faculty and student samples, especially on the Left-Right scale, an overview of important studies using this scale are discussed below, as well as measures which explore belief in a just world.

The Left-right or Socialist/Laissez Faire scale has been used for the annual British Social Attitudes study for a number of years (Park, Curtice, Clery, & Bryson, 2010) and has been frequently used in political and worker/union studies. While the scale focuses on inequality and exploitation, it represents the more central value of equality (Evans, Heath, & Lalljee, 1996). A recent poll from the UK showed differences in support by political party for belief in inequality, with more conservative party supporters seeing less inequality in society than liberals (NatCen Social Research, 2016). Similar conservative and liberal views have been found in the USA (Pew Research Center, 2014). Furthermore, country differences have also been found with less support for welfare and income redistribution in the USA than in Europe (Niehues, 2014). Past research has shown a small positive effect for age (Hasenfeld & Rafferty, 1989), a negligible effect of gender, and education has also shown a weak association, however lower social classes usually hold more left-leaning social attitudes (Surridge, 2010). Though
specifically for the belief in income distribution, previous research has suggested that women, those with low education, and the elderly are more supportive of redistribution, as well as those who live in more unequal societies (Finseraas, 2009).

Beliefs and ideologies contribute to the legitimisation and justification of the status quo, and belief in a just world (BJW) has been suggested as contributing to this justification (Hafer & Choma, 2009). Lerner (1965) first introduced the BJW concept and asserted that good things tend to happen to good people and bad things to bad people. Many studies have used the BJW scale since its inception in the 1970s (Furnham, 2003) and it has been associated with conservatism, authoritarianism and internal locus of control (Furnham, 2003; Rubin & Peplau, 1975). In addition, distributive justice has been associated with BJW, suggesting those who belief in a just world may believe that self-efficacy and effort will get you everywhere, showing possible preference towards relatively laissez-faire public policy rather than a safety net for all citizens (Benabou & Tirole, 2006). As such, the BJW may be related to attributions that legitimise the circumstances of individuals, particularly predicting that internal, rather than external, circumstances lead to positive or negative outcomes, such as blaming the poor and the elderly for their poor financial situation, and blaming sexual harassment victims (Hafer & Choma, 2009). Consequently, the BJW is also found to be associated with perceived fairness in society (Hafer & Choma, 2009).

Research has found effects of demographics on BJW. O’Connor, Morrison, McLeod, and Anderson (1996) found a small association between gender, with males slightly more likely to believe in a just world. In regard to political ideology, those who are politically right wing tend to favour the status quo and believe in a just world (Dittmar & Dickinson, 1994; Furnham, 2003). Specifically, Dittmar and Dickinson (1994) found that those who endorse faith, private property, and long-established ways of doing things, and those who think the best strategy to success is caution and flattery of the powerful are associated with higher BJW, while individuals
who view the practices of those in power as corrupt, have a positive view of human nature which thrives through changes in society, or those who undertake radical revolutionary actions, were less likely to believe in a just world. Lastly, socio-political and religious factors may influence country differences in BJW (Doliński, 1991). Overall, belief in inequality (left-right scale) and a non-just world (BJW) seems to be associated with people who are politically left leaning and more likely female.

5.6 Summary

This chapter discusses previous research on the DSP and NEP, including previous findings related to student and faculty samples, with the former dominating the research. These findings show that support exists for the DSP and low to moderate support for the NEP in business student samples (Kilbourne & Carlson, 2008; Lang, 2011; Shafer, 2006). While the NEP and DSP measure worldviews, going beyond attitudes, beliefs or values and instead tapping into a deeper understanding of the world and its assumptions, there are other instruments which claim to measure social and economic values, beliefs and attitudes which were discussed at the end of the chapter. These studies help to paint a greater picture of values, beliefs and attitudes that may be supportive towards sustainability compared to those who are not.

Research was discussed on sustainability and EfS perceptions in student and faculty samples, focusing both in and outside the business school. Overall, previous research has found that environmental perceptions prevail in sustainability (Cotton et al., 2007; Reid & Petocz, 2006; Wright & Horst, 2013). In addition, some studies have found that most students were found to be quite familiar with sustainability and find it important, while other studies have suggested only a few know what is meant by sustainable development (Beusch, 2014; Cotton et al., 2007; Doh & Tashman, 2014; Kagawa, 2007; Sharma & Kelly, 2014; Sleeper et al., 2006). In faculty samples, there is an interest in student-centred pedagogies for EfS (Cotton et al., 2009),
as well as critical thinking (Christie et al., 2015). Lastly, faculty studies also show that academics are constrained by their own worldview when it comes to interpreting and integrating sustainability (Boyle, 2015; Green, 2015; Toubiana, 2014).

However, studies that investigate business faculty members’ and students’ perceptions of sustainability usually do so either on an institutional scale (one case study approach) or focus on a low-level sustainability understanding (e.g. self-rated knowledge, multi-choice options about the importance of sustainability and sustainability education) utilising survey research.

In sum, there is a lack of studies examining the sustainability worldview of marketing faculty and students. There is also a number of dimensions related to a sustainability worldview; a worldview which is most receptive to the principles of sustainable development and which would encourage the adoption of sustainability topics in marketing research and teaching. Going beyond the measurement of the DSP and NEP, including insight into the beliefs and attitudes about sustainability itself, marketing’s impact on society, businesses obligation towards society and consumption issues, are especially prudent to marketing faculty and students. The institutional barriers identified in Study One include the mindsets of faculty and students, and as such, investigation into the worldviews of these members provides evidence for the (non-) support of sustainability’s integration within marketing academia.
Chapter Six

Study Two Methodology
6.0 Introduction

Study Two utilised an international online survey to obtain a large generalisable sample of sustainability values, beliefs and attitudes. In Study Two, the aim was to provide a profile of the sustainability worldviews held by marketing faculty and students. The surveys provide an overview of fundamental marketing and consumption assumptions that marketing academics and students hold, which allows the discipline’s theoretical and philosophical beliefs related to sustainability issues (i.e. equality, consumption issues) to be examined.

The values, beliefs and attitudes of marketing faculty and students are critical to curriculum development and teaching strategies (Doh & Tashman, 2014; Thomas, 2004; von der Heidt et al., 2012). Study One showed that students’ demand for certain topics drive the integration and course creation of new topic areas, while the beliefs of academics strongly influence the content of curriculum. Previous research has stated that assessing sustainability knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and values in marketing students is warranted (Wilhelm, 2008), as well as providing evidence about how many marketing academics are qualified to teach sustainability (Nicholls et al., 2013). Consequently, Study Two seeks to shed light on the current sustainability mindset of marketing faculty and students.

In this chapter, issues of research method, data collection, the measuring instrument and data analysis are discussed. An online survey was distributed to marketing academics and students enrolled in universities around the world, focusing on Australasia, North America and Europe. The data was collected through Qualtrics and exported to a IBM *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS Statistics) file (version 23).
6.1 Explanation and justification of method

A quantitative approach was chosen to provide generalisable findings, specifically allowing for a greater sample size, and a descriptive research design (Malhorta, 2010). In particular, a quantitative method provided the means to assess the prevalence and structure of a sustainability worldview in marketing students and academics. The survey method is a common form of quantitative research. There are several methods to collect surveys and each provides both advantages and disadvantages. An online survey was used as opposed to a face-to-face, telephone or mail survey to reduce the data collection period and increase the convenience of data collection (Malhorta, 2010). Online surveys have the advantage of reaching a wide range of potential respondents, are convenient for participants to access, and are low in cost (Bethlehem, 2009). Moreover, online surveys are a common instrument in the assessment of environmental worldviews (e.g. Christie et al., 2015; Cotton et al., 2007; Kagawa, 2007).

6.2 Survey development

The survey questions were developed in English to allow statistical comparison and to avoid the misinterpretation of terms and meanings (especially sustainability) if translated. Academics have a high level of English proficiency due to the domination of English language journals (Altbach, 2008). In addition, tertiary education students where the survey was distributed have a high to moderate level of English proficiency (Education First, 2016).

The survey was designed to specifically measure beliefs on consumption, economic growth, business, marketing, and the environment. In addition, beliefs and attitudes toward sustainability were measured. To choose which scales would be used to measure each construct a thorough search of the literature was conducted.

As I am only interested in the values, beliefs and attitudes related to sustainability, to
measure the worldview of students and faculty, social visions and anthropology beliefs need to be examined; these are related to the economic (i.e. business, consumption, and marketing), environmental and social (i.e. equality) dimensions of sustainability (De Witt et al., 2016; Olsen et al., 1992). In addition, attitudes and beliefs of sustainability and sustainability marketing were investigated.

Specifically, separate scales were used to measure business purpose, economic growth, economic growth trade-offs for social welfare, inequality, marketing impact, consumption issues (including the ability for technology to fix environmental issues and resource shortages), environmental and sustainability beliefs. Consequently, eight scales were used alongside 10 multiple-choice questions about specific sustainability attitudes and beliefs, and 16-17 demographic questions (only 10 demographic questions for the student sample).

Three pre-tests were conducted to validate the scales. These pre-tests were conducted at the University of Canterbury, firstly on 2nd year marketing students (n = 48), followed by 1st year marketing students (n = 21), and lastly 3rd marketing students (n = 28). Once the scales reached satisfactory internal reliability levels, the decision was made to proceed with the main survey distribution. Previous research has suggested that scores of 0.60 or higher are acceptable for further analysis, dependent upon evidence of validity (i.e. face validity), good theoretical and/or practical reasons for the scale, and that the scale has under 10 items (Hair, Anderson, Babin, & Black, 2010; Loewenthal, 2001). However, a more generous cut-off is given by Nunnally (1967) of 0.50. Due to small sample size, small number of items in each scale, good face validity and the exploratory nature of this research, some items which were below the 0.6 cut-off were kept. Table 6.1 displays the survey items alongside their reference and internal reliability coefficient.
6.2.1 Social (inequality)

The Socialist/Laissez Faire scale was designed by Evans, Heath, and Lalljee (1996) based on their previous studies and contains five items which can be seen in Table 6.1 (Evans & Heath, 1995; Heath, Evans, & Martin, 1994). The Socialist/Laissez Faire scale has been used for the annual British Social Attitudes study for many years (Park et al., 2010), and has been frequently used in political and worker/union studies. While the scale focuses on inequality and exploitation, it represents the more central value of equality (Evans et al., 1996). The balanced scale has more often been used in research, rather than an unbalanced scale (e.g. Evans et al., 1996; Park et al., 2010). The balanced scale received a Cronbach alpha of 0.81 (Park et al., 2010), 0.82 and 0.84 (Evans et al., 1996), showing good internal reliability. In this study, the scale received a Cronbach alpha of 0.65.

While both the Right-Wing Authoritarianism (RWA) scale and Belief in a Just World (BJW) scale were considered, both did not seem to capture social aspects as did the left-right scale, and both suffered from being long scales. Specifically, the need to measure prejudice or more abstract views on optimism/pessimism were not objectives of this study. For example, right-wing authoritarianism has been associated with prejudice, discrimination, and hostility against members of out-groups (Whitley, 1999), while the BJW scale asserts that good things tend to happen to good people and bad things to bad people (Lerner, 1965), and has been associated with conservatism, authoritarianism and internal locus of control (Furnham, 2003; Rubin & Peplau, 1975).
### Table 6.1 Survey items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Pre-test use</th>
<th>Cronbach alpha</th>
<th>Pre-test use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Social (inequality)       | Left-right or socialist/Laissez faire | Evans et al. (1996)                | Government should redistribute income from the better off to those who are less well off  
Big business benefits owners at the expense of workers  
Ordinary working people do not get their fair share of the nation's wealth  
There is one law for the rich and one for the poor  
Management will always try to get the better of employees if it gets the chance | 3rd pre-test only                   | $\alpha = 0.82 - 0.84$ (Evans et al., 1996) | $\alpha = 0.65$                     |
| Business objective        | Business purpose             | N/A                                | The purpose of business is to attend to the needs and wants of society regardless of whether these hurt the natural environment                                                                               | 2nd & 3rd pre-test                  | N/A             | $\alpha = 0.57$ (deleting “overall”) |
|                          |                              | Kilbourne et al. (2001)            | Business interests have more political power than individuals                                                                                                                                              | All pre-tests                       | N/A             |                   |
|                          |                              | N/A                                | Business interests are only directed towards profits, not the betterment of society                                                                                                                          | 2nd & 3rd pre-test                  | N/A             |                   |
|                          |                              | Obermiller and Arwood (2014a)     | The only proper objective of business is to maximise its profits  
Businesses have an obligation to make positive contributions to society                                                                                                                               | All pre-tests                       | N/A             |                   |
|                          |                              | N/A                                | Overall the business community has a positive impact on society                                                                                                                                            | 2nd & 3rd pre-test                  | N/A             |                   |
### Economic growth

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kilbourne et al. (2001)</th>
<th>3rd pre-test only</th>
<th>( \alpha = 0.67 ) (Kilbourne et al., 2001), ( \alpha = 0.70 ) (Kilbourne &amp; Carlson, 2008), ( \alpha = 0.76 ) (Kilbourne &amp; Polonsky, 2005)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual behaviour should be determined by economic self-interest, not politics*</td>
<td>3rd pre-test only</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The best measure of progress is economic*</td>
<td>3rd pre-test only</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the economy continues to grow, everyone benefits*</td>
<td>3rd pre-test only</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic goals are more important than environmental goals*</td>
<td>3rd pre-test only</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We focus too much on economic measures of well-being</td>
<td>3rd pre-test only</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gallup (2017)</th>
<th>2nd &amp; 3rd pre-test</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic growth should be given priority, even if the environment suffers to some extent</td>
<td>All pre-tests</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Social welfare vs economic growth

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N/A</th>
<th>2nd &amp; 3rd pre-test</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We should be more concerned about social welfare (such as happiness, life satisfaction etc.) than economic growth</td>
<td>All pre-tests</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reducing poverty in the world should get a higher priority than economic growth</td>
<td>All pre-tests</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Drews and van den Bergh (2016)</th>
<th>2nd &amp; 3rd pre-test</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Making income distribution more equal should get a higher priority than economic growth</td>
<td>All pre-tests</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Marketing’s impact

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Idea from O’Brien and Ingels (1987)</th>
<th>All pre-tests</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marketing creates artificial wants, leading people to buy things they do not actually need</td>
<td>All pre-tests</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising helps consumers make informed choices; it does not manipulate anyone*</td>
<td>All pre-tests</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Idea from Schwarzkopf (2011)</th>
<th>All pre-tests</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The market is a form of democracy – people vote for the things they approve of with their dollars*</td>
<td>All pre-tests</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cotgrove (1982)</th>
<th>All pre-tests</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There are forces at work in modern societies which stimulate a lot of artificial wants for things we do not really need</td>
<td>All pre-tests</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Chapter Six: Study Two Methodology

| Idea from Hossain and Marinova (2013) | The marketing profession is at least partially responsible for promoting unsustainable consumption  
The marketing of consumer goods and services contributes negatively to current social problems  
The marketing of consumer goods and services contributes negatively to current environmental problems | All pre-tests  
2nd & 3rd pre-test  
2nd & 3rd pre-test |
| N/A | The only concern of marketers should be the profitability of their products/services, not the environmental consequences of their marketing activities*  
There seems to be an ignorance about the limits of the planet (in terms of natural resources) in marketing  
Marketing needs to change for it to be able to successfully integrate the concept of environmental sustainability | 2nd & 3rd pre-test  
N/A  
Similar version in 1st, & ‘as is’ in 2nd and 3rd pre-tests |

| Dunlap and Van Liere (1984) | The Western world is going to have to drastically reduce their level of consumption to combat growing environmental problems | All pre-tests |
| N/A | The Western world is going to have to change what they consume, such as switching to sustainable or green products, to combat growing environmental problems | 2nd & 3rd pre-test |
| Cotgrove (1982) | Our present way of life is much too wasteful of natural resources | All pre-tests |
| Idea from Kagawa (2007) | We, as a society, should drastically change our way of living to combat growing environmental problems | All pre-tests |
| N/A | We, as a society, are very preoccupied with acquiring and accumulating things  
Our society's strong focus on buying things has a positive effect on us as individuals* | 2nd & 3rd pre-test  
2nd & 3rd pre-test |
| Kilbourne and Carlson (2008) | Future natural resource shortages will be solved by technological innovations*  
When environmental problems are bad enough, technology will solve them* | 2nd & 3rd pre-test |

* $\alpha = 0.80$ (Kilbourne & Carlson, 2008)  
$\alpha = 0.53$
### Environment

**The New Environmental Paradigm**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dunlap et al. (2000)</th>
<th>We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When humans interfere with nature it often produces disastrous consequences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Human ingenuity will insure that we do not make the earth unlivable*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Humans are severely abusing the environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Despite our special abilities humans are still subject to the laws of nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The so-called “ecological crisis” facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All pre-tests

\[ \alpha = 0.83 \] (Dunlap et al., 2000);

Average \( \alpha = 0.68 \) (Hawcroft & Milfont, 2010)

\[ \alpha = 0.82 \]
### Additional categorising questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sustainability attitudes, definitions and concepts</th>
<th>Question 1</th>
<th>Question 2</th>
<th>Question 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dunlap, Gallup, and Gallup (1993)</td>
<td>Who should have the primary responsibility to protect the environment?</td>
<td>The government</td>
<td>3rd pre-test only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Business and industry</td>
<td>only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Individual citizens</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The government, business and industry, and individual citizens should all have equal responsibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Chapter Six: Study Two Methodology

| Sustainability Marketing Definition | Cotton et al. (2007) | Developing new technologies to reduce the impact of harmful by-products of production  
Maintaining biodiversity in the local environment  
Recycling waste products  
A significant degree of local production and consumption  
Helping people to avoid starvation and disease  
Social progress which recognises the needs of everyone  
Exploiting natural resources for human benefit while maintaining critical natural capital  
Maintaining high and stable levels of economic growth  
Putting the needs of nature before those of humanity | All pre-tests |
|------------------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------|
| Sustainability Education          | Interview participants | Use of cradle-to-cradle design (production that is waste free)  
Demarketing (decrease the demand for a product)  
Changing consumer behaviours towards more sustainable consumer behaviours  
Changing consumer attitudes towards more sustainable attitudes  
Nothing, it's not a marketers job  
Marketing green products  
Understand the needs of green consumers  
Monitoring the ethics and sustainability of supply chain members | All pre-tests  
N/A |
| Von der Heidt et al. (2012)        | To what extent do you agree sustainability is extremely important to marketing students | All pre-tests  
N/A |

*reversed item*
6.2.2 Business objective

Numerous scales are available which measure the perception of the importance of social responsibility and ethics in business. The most common is the PRESOR scale developed by Singhapakdi, Kraft, Vitell, and Rallapalli (1995, 1996). PRESOR has been used in multiple studies, particularly on marketing professionals (Singhapakdi et al., 1995), academics (Oelfke, 2014), and students (Singhapakdi & Marta, 2005). The morality of profit-making scale developed by Padelford and White (2006) was also considered as it measured attitudinal dimension and business behavioural dimension of the ethics of profit-making. However, only items in the scales provided by Obermiller and Atwood (2014a, 2014b) and Kilbourne et al. (2001) addressed the very purpose or objective of business.

As such, building upon the work of Obermiller and Atwood (2014a, 2014b) and Kilbourne et al. (2001) who addressed business obligation, purpose and power, three additional items were created to address business impact and obligation, creating items which addressed this both positively and negatively (worded). Consequently, the following items were produced and retained from the pre-tests:

i. “Overall the business community has a positive impact on society”

ii. “Business interests are only directed towards profits, not the betterment of society”

iii. “The purpose of business is to attend to the needs and wants of society regardless of whether these hurt the natural environment”

The business scale achieved a Cronbach alpha of 0.57 if the item “overall the business community has a positive impact on society” was deleted. This was considered acceptable because of the small number of items, their face validity, and the increased stability gained by using a scale rather than separate items (Kilbourne et al., 2001; Loewenthal, 2001). Due to the items relevance about the impact of businesses on society this item was kept.
6.2.3 Economic growth

The economic growth scale sought to measure beliefs in the need for economic growth and its benefits. All five items from Kilbourne et al.’s (2001) economic scale were retained and included an additional item about the trade-off between economic growth and the environment, previously used in Gallup polls (2017). No political items from the DSP scale were used as it consistently scores low on internal reliability (<0.60) and has been found to have a non-significant effect on environmental attitudes (Kilbourne & Carlson, 2008; Kilbourne & Polonsky, 2005).

While there were a few other scales measuring economic dimensions, for example, which have measured industrialism (Cotgrove, 1982) and support for the free-market (Heath & Gifford, 2006); however, the former suffers from low internal reliability (<0.60), while the latter doesn’t contain items about economic growth. In addition, neither of these scales or the DSP economic scale captured the trade-off between economic growth focus and social welfare. This is an important aspect to consider as a recent study by Drews and van den Berg (2016) found that there was two positions related to a lesser focus on economic growth; agrowth, which believe that growth is a wrong priority, while degrowth supporters had more agreement with environmental limits to growth. So, given Drews and van den Berg (2016) addressed this trade-off, a selection of items from their study was used in the pre-test but received very low internal reliability (perhaps as their own scales were mostly below the 0.60 threshold), and thus only one item was retained, while two additional items addressing social welfare were created:

i. “We should be more concerned about social welfare (such as happiness, life satisfaction etc.) than economic growth”

ii. “Reducing poverty in the world should get a higher priority than economic growth”
In the pre-test, the economy scale received an alpha coefficient of 0.70. This would have been increased to 0.79 if the items “we focus too much on economic measures...” and “economic growth should be given priority...” were deleted. However, due to importance of these questions themselves and the volatility of the analysis due to the small sample, these items were retained. While the economic growth vs. social welfare scale received 0.80 and would have received 0.81 if “reducing poverty...” was deleted, given this would have resulted in only a minor gain in internal reliability, the item was retained.

6.2.4 Marketing’s impact

Marketing has long subscribed to an ideology about consumer sovereignty (Schwarzkopf, 2011). Ideas beyond consumer as a voter or chooser has “been resisted more in marketing and consumer research than in other areas because it has the potential to question some fundamental, axiomatic assumptions in the discipline” (Fitchett & Caruana, 2015, p. 1). This marketing ideology, containing a stable set of arguments, such as consumer sovereignty, meeting wants and needs, everything can be a ‘product’ and all social actors can be consumers, provide legitimacy to marketers and the market economy (Marion, 2006). For example, the service-dominant logic has been hailed as the new logic for marketing, but it reinforces the role of the consumer as chooser (Fitchett & Caruana, 2015). Examining such questions in the survey “enable ‘unspoken’ wider political and economic assumptions underpinning marketing to be opened up” (Fitchett & Caruana, 2015, p. 2).

Barksdale and Darden (1972) first conducted research on consumer attitudes toward marketing, and their scale has been used in several studies over the years (Cui et al., 2008). Specifically, Barksdale and Darden (1972) measured consumer attitudes toward marketing mix variables, consumerism, government regulation, and consumer responsibility. In the 1980s, Gaski and Etzel (1986) modified the scale created by Barksdale and Darden (1972), calling it the
ICSM. Similar scales have been developed for scepticism towards advertising (e.g. Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1998) and advertising attitudes (e.g. Andrews, 1989; Muehling, 1987). Additionally, Pereira Heath and Chatzidakis (2012) also examined consumer perceptions of marketing and consumption, and created their own scales, however no internal reliability measure was given. Yet, none of these scales addressed the impact and effect of marketing on society. Consequently, an entirely new scale and set of items were created to address principles of marketing and its relationship with manipulation. The following items aimed to address manipulation:

i. “Marketing creates artificial wants, leading people to buy things they do not actually need”

ii. “Advertising helps consumers make informed choices; it does not manipulate anyone”

iii. “The market is a form of democracy – people vote for the things they approve of with their dollars”

iv. “There are forces at work in modern societies which stimulate a lot of artificial wants for things we do not really need”

With a lack of sustainability research in marketing and sustainability education in the marketing curriculum (DeLong & McDermott, 2013; Purani et al., 2014), it could be argued that the effect of marketing on society, specifically the natural environment, has somewhat been overlooked by the marketing academy. An entirely new scale and set of items were created to address marketing and its impact on the environment; these items were adapted and generated from the works of O’Brien and Ingels (1987), Schwarzkopf (2011), Cotgrove (1982) and Hossain and Marinova (2013).

i. “The marketing profession is at least partially responsible for promoting unsustainable consumption”

ii. “The marketing of consumer goods and services contributes negatively to current social problems”
iii. “The marketing of consumer goods and services contributes negatively to current environmental problems”

iv. “The only concern of marketers should be the profitability of their products/services, not the environmental consequences of their marketing activities”

v. “There seems to be an ignorance about the limits of the planet (in terms of natural resources) in marketing”

vi. “Marketing needs to change for it to be able to successfully integrate the concept of environmental sustainability”

In the pre-test this scale received an alpha coefficient of 0.64, which would have increased to 0.72 if the following items were deleted: “the market is a form of democracy…”, “marketing creates artificial…”, “the concern of marketers…” and “there are modern forces…”. However, due to the exploratory nature of the research and the sufficient 0.64 Cronbach Alpha value, it was decided to keep these items as these questions were paramount to understanding fundamental marketing principles (Fitchett & Caruana, 2015; Marion, 2006; Schwarzkopf, 2011).

6.2.5 Consumption issues

Consumption in the Western world is exceeding the world’s capacity. Indeed, if everyone consumed like those in Australia we would need 4.8 earths. Previous studies have touched upon consumption issues, such as Zavestoski (2001) and Bowerman (2014), but failed to ask how to address consumption issues. Consequently, building on Dunlap and Van Liere (1984) and Cotgrove (1982), items about consumption levels were created to address the need for change, how change should come about, and why change is needed:

i. “The Western world is going to have to change what they consume, such as switching to sustainable or green products, to combat growing environmental problems”
ii. “We, as a society, should drastically change our way of living to combat growing environmental problems”

iii. “We, as a society, are very preoccupied with acquiring and accumulating things”

iv. “Our society's strong focus on buying things has a positive effect on us as individuals”

This consumption issues scale received an internal reliability of 0.82.

As part of addressing consumption issues, the Kilbourne and Carlson (2008) technology scale was also included, as this scale has received high internal reliability in previous studies. In the pre-test the technology scale only received a Cronbach alpha of 0.55, however due to the importance of the measure, its previous high internal reliability, and that the pre-test Cronbach alpha was over the threshold of 0.50 as suggested by Nunnally (1967) for exploratory research, this scale was kept.

6.2.6 Environment

To measure environmental concern or values, the revised 15-item NEP scale was used and in the pre-test the NEP scale received an alpha coefficient of 0.82.

6.2.7 Additional categorising questions

Sustainability items were taken from previous studies to address sustainability attitudes and beliefs. Study One’s interview findings were used to create the sustainability marketing item, seeking to understand the conception of sustainability in marketing. As these were non-scale items, no internal reliability tests were conducted.

Specifically, a single item scale for measuring perceptions of climate change was adapted from the Yale School of Forestry and Environmental Studies, and asked “Do you think that global warming is happening?” Compared to the Yale study, the response options were changed from “yes”, “no” and “I don’t know” to “definitely yes” “probably yes”, “probably no” and
“definitely no”, as previously implemented (Walther, 2013). Previous research indicates greater familiarity with “global warming” than with “climate change”, so this term was instead adopted (DEFRA, 2002).

To measure sustainability definitions, the sustainability achievement standards from the Australian Government’s Australian Learning and Teaching Council was consulted (ALTC, 2010). They offer five ‘levels’ in relation to conceptual sustainability skills and these levels have previously been used by von der Heidt and Lamberton (2014) to understand business faculty’s perception of sustainability. Due to the complex nature of Level Five as a multi-choice option – it contains many concepts which are not mutually exclusive and therefore double-barrelled – only the first four levels were used as multi-choice options. Sustainability attitudes were measured using Cotton et al.’s (2007) multi-choice question, but I removed the option “I don’t know what is meant by SD” to measure purely attitudes, not knowledge (the same was done by Kagawa, 2007). Lastly, to measure sustainability conceptualisation, Study Two used Cotton et al.’s (2007) nine-item five-point Likert scale.

6.2.8 Predictive and concurrent validity

Two scales were used to provide concurrent validity, which provides accuracy of the survey instruments. Concurrent validity is part of criterion validity and measures how well the instrument correlates with similar measures of the same construct (Litwin, 1995). The NEP scale was also seen as a useful instrument to check predictive and concurrent validity. Consequently, concurrent validity for the business, consumption, marketing, equality and the two economic scales was assessed by correlating these with the NEP scale ($r = 0.31-0.652 \ p <0.01$) and showed a significant positive relationship with all scales as expected.
6.3 Questionnaire details

All questions were closed-questions for ease of analysis. Most items were measured using five-point Likert scales that were anchored from 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree. Other items asked respondents to select the ‘best’ option from a multi-choice set. Likert and Likert-type scales are very common in surveys, especially those in consumer behaviour and those measuring environmental values, and agree-disagree scales are especially common. Previous research has shown that 5 answer categories rather than 7 or 11, yield data of higher quality (Revilla, Saris, & Krosnick, 2013). In addition, many validated scales used in the survey were based on a 5-point scale (i.e. NEP, Left-Right scale). Questions which were positively worded represent the construct of interest (critical view of business, consumption and marketing, and positive view of sustainability) (DeVellis, 2012).

On the introduction page (Information Sheet and Consent Form), respondents were informed that they could stop the survey at any time. In addition, respondents were informed that all data provided would be anonymous. The survey instrument was estimated to take 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

The questionnaire was divided into eight sections. Section A asked basic screening questions regarding position at tertiary institute (academic, student, PhD, and discipline). Section B contained the left-right scale. Section C was comprised of the items related to business. Section D collected economic beliefs on limits to growth and the effect on people and the environment. Section E of the instrument was designed to collect beliefs of marketing, covering the impact and ethical and persuasive nature of marketing. Section F covered consumption beliefs, focusing on the planets resources and consumption issues. Section G collected data on the NEP scale and other sustainability questions, including attitudes and beliefs. Section H of the instrument was designed to collect the demographic information of the respondents such as age,
gender, time in academia and industry, and publication figures. Lastly, Section I asked respondents to indicate their religion and political ideology. The survey in its entirety can be seen in Appendix G.

The questionnaire was developed using Qualtrics, which enables online data collection. Qualtrics was chosen for data collection as it has a partnership agreement with the University of Canterbury. In the email and listserv messages, respondents were asked to click on a live URL link to the Qualtrics survey.

6.4 Data collection

The sampling method and level of external validity affect the degree to which the results can be generalised (Bethlehem, 2009). In quantitative research, sampling can be based on probability or non-probability sampling, and in the former procedure all subjects have an equal probability of being included in the sample (Kolb, 2008). Probability sampling includes simple random, systematic random, stratified random, cluster and area sampling (Sontakki, 2009). Non-probability sampling includes convenience, snowball, purposeful and quota control samples (Sontakki, 2009). Convenience sampling was chosen as probability sampling would have been ineffective due to the small and finite population available, and that contact information was accessible for potential respondents. Convenience sampling also has the advantage of being time and cost effective (Malhorta, 2010).

The student surveys were collected from October 10 2016 to April 2 2017 to coincide with both the Northern (beginning Semester 1, 2016) and Southern (beginning Semester 1, 2017) Hemisphere tertiary institutions’ semester dates. A total of 339 people completed the student survey. Overall, 46 universities (23 in Europe, 8 in Australia, seven in the USA, five in New Zealand and three in Canada) sent out invitations to students enrolled in marketing and business courses. The correspondence was usually only limited to one class/course and had anywhere
from 10 to 700 students. As students are time poor, incentives were used to encourage more participants to complete the survey. The incentive for students was a lottery draw of 20 x $US50 (split into regional prizes of similar value) Amazon or similar vouchers. Unfortunately, the response rate is unable to be calculated due to the unknown number of initial students who viewed/received the survey.

The academic survey was live from October 17 2016 to February 12 2017. A total of 437 faculty completed the survey. To recruit participants, public postings were made on several Listservs and a macromarketing Facebook group. Second, personal emails were sent to email addresses publicly listed in the proceedings of two generalist marketing (academic) conferences held in 2015, and one in 2016 which contacted only the presenters. Third, most UK, Canadian, Australian and New Zealand marketing departments, and a selection of European and US marketing department websites were consulted to obtain faculty email addresses. An invitation was sent to these personal emails and a follow up email was sent a few weeks later. Unfortunately, the response rate is unable to be calculated due to the unknown number of initial faculty who viewed/received the survey (Facebook views, ELMAR subscribers etc.). However, the response rate was 15.6% for personal emails. This compares well with previous research on marketing faculty samples ranging from a response rate of 10.1% to 19.3% (Bailey, Hair, Hermanson, & Crittenden, 2012).

Again, as faculty were time poor, incentives were used to encourage more participants to complete the survey. Respondents were offered the opportunity to win 1 of 10 x $US100 Amazon vouchers and 1 x 2017 Academy of Marketing Science Conference Registration. Lottery draws have been shown to most effective in gaining a higher response rate compared to small guaranteed incentives and donations to charity (Deutskens, De Ruyter, Wetzels, & Oosterveld, 2004). In addition, more prizes of lesser value have been shown to garner a higher response rate than a smaller number of prizes with higher value (Deutskens et al., 2004).
6.5 Ethical approval

Ethical approval was gained from the University of Canterbury Ethics Committee. See Appendix H for the approval letter. Online survey respondents were assured of anonymity and were reminded that withdrawal was permitted at any stage in the survey. Consent was given by the individual when the ‘next’ arrow was clicked and the survey began. The Consent Form and Information Sheet can be seen in Appendix I.

While respondents who wished to enter the prize draw were asked to enter an email address, every effort was made to make sure survey responses and email addresses were not linked together.

6.6 Data analysis

Numerous statistical techniques were employed to further analyse the data: factor analysis, cluster analysis, cross tabulation, independent t-test and one-way ANOVA. The statistical software SPSS Statistic 23.0 was used to analyse the data. All results were considered significant at the 0.05 level.

An independent sample t-test was used to analyse the effect of demographic characteristics with only two categories (i.e. gender, taught a sustainability course) on sustainability worldview. An independent sample t-test tests for differences between the means between two populations (Malhotra, 2010). This parametric test has several assumptions and requires that the dependent variable to be normally distributed, populations variance able to be calculated, and a known mean to be present (Malhotra, 2010).

One-way ANOVA is used to test the mean differences between two or more populations (Malhotra, 2010). One-way ANOVA requires one independent categorical variable and a dependent variable that is metric (Malhotra, 2010). There are several assumptions of the One-
way ANOVA for valid results; normal distribution, equal variances, groups containing approximately the same sample size, and independence (Malhotra, 2010). If the one-way ANOVA F-test or the Welch test (in the case of unequal variance) (Ruxton, 2006) identified a significant difference, then the appropriate post-hoc test was consulted to determine which groups where significantly different from each other. One-way ANOVA was used to analyse the effects of education, academic rank, number of publications, number of publications in the top 4 marketing journals, years in academia and industry, political affiliation, religion, year of study, highest qualification, country of highest qualification earned and country of residence on social, economic, business, marketing, environmental and sustainability values, beliefs and attitudes.

Factor analysis groups variables according to shared variance enabling unique factors to be listed for each construct further aiding the Cronbach alpha for internal consistency. In addition, factor analysis is conducted to reduce the number of items in a survey and summarise the items into a simple to understand construct (Malhorta, 2010).

Cluster analysis is performed to similar group cases, or in other words, places individuals in groups which answered the questions in a similar manner (Everitt, Landau, Leese, & Stahl, 2011). This is the most important analysis which reveals the worldviews present in academics and students, allowing characteristics (i.e. demographics) to be linked to specific consumption, economic, business, marketing, environmental and sustainability beliefs.

6.7 Reliability and validity

While constructivist studies evaluate their research based on trustworthiness and authenticity, rather than internal and external reliability (Yvonna S. Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011), due to the nature of quantitative research I think it is prudent to discuss reliability in the context of Study Two. Reliability refers to the ability to produce consistent results and “the extent to which the measures are free from random error” (Malhotra, 2010, p.318). Reliability was increased in
this research by pre-testing the survey, to ensure it functioned as expected (instructions and items) (Malhotra, 2010). Reliability was checked through the coefficient alpha (Cronbach alpha) and values higher than 0.60, in cases when measuring values, demonstrate reliability of the survey instrument (Hair et al., 2010).

Internal validity refers to the observed effects on the dependent variable(s) that can be attributed to the independent variable(s) (Malhotra, 2010). In contrast, external validity refers to the ability to generalise the findings (Hair et al., 2008). In survey research, content, criterion, construct, convergent, discriminant and nomological validity need to be taken into account (Litwin, 1995; Malhorta, 2010). Content validity was assessed by the supervisors of this thesis, as well as myself, and this was aided by criterion validity which involved concurrent validity though the use of the NEP scale. Moreover, nomological validity was checked with the correlation of the scales in the predicted direction. Similarly, convergent and discriminant validity were checked; specifically all economic, social and environmental scales were correlated positively.

Systematic and random errors affect survey research. Researchers cannot eliminate random error, but can overcome and address systematic errors and try to eliminate them (Malhorta, 2010). These systematic errors include coverage error, selection error and measurement error (Bethlehem, 2009). Additionally, the sampling method and level of external validity affect the degree to which the results from the study can be generalised to the general population (Bethlehem, 2009). Furthermore, controlling the risk of nonresponse, coverage, and sampling error is critically important in online surveys as they are at greater risk of these (Vicente & Reis, 2010).

Nonresponse basis was reduced through the use of incentives and the length of the survey was kept to a minimum (maximum of 10 minutes) to increase response rate and decrease dropout rates (Vicente & Reis, 2010). Similarly, selection error can also occur as online surveys are based on self-selection (Sontakki, 2009). However, using varied recruitment methods to
increase the number of respondents tries to alleviate self-selection error (i.e. through personal email and Listerv postings) (Bethlehem, 2009). Likewise, coverage error occurs when certain populations are underrepresented (Malhorta, 2010). It remains possible that those surveyed may not be representative of the marketing academic and student populations, however every effort was made to distribute this to both marketing faculty and students in the three selected regions. Lastly, measurement error is also a possibility in survey methods due to the misunderstanding of survey questions, however a pilot study was used to pre-test the survey instrument to reduce this error (Bethlehem, 2009).

6.8 Chapter summary

In this chapter, the method used in Study Two of this thesis was discussed. As a generalisable overview of the sustainability worldviews of marketing students and academics was sought, an international survey was launched. The most appropriate research design, sampling technique, data collection and data analysis were chosen to undertake this survey. How the research aimed to increase reliability and validity was also discussed.

The survey contributed to new findings on the profile of marketing students and academics. The result of this assessment provides the ability to understand the current mindset of both students and academics in the marketing discipline. Through this examination, research can begin to assess the demand for, willingness to learn, and the importance and understanding of sustainability in marketing. The findings of the survey will be discussed in Chapter Seven.
Chapter Seven

Study Two Findings
Chapter Seven: Study Two Findings

7.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the data gathered from an international survey on marketing faculty and students. In total, 437 marketing faculty and 339 marketing students were surveyed from around the world. The survey was designed to measure values, beliefs and attitudes on six sustainability related constructs, namely: equality, business, economic growth (need for economic growth and objective of economic growth over social welfare), marketing, consumption (including technologies ability to fix environmental problems/shortages), and the environment. In addition, a number other items measured specific sustainability beliefs (definition, concepts and global warming) and attitudes.

This chapter starts with the demographic profile of the sample, specifying the distribution of gender, experience and region of residence for both faculty and students. Next, descriptive statistics are provided for sustainability attitudes, definitions and concepts, as well as global warming beliefs and the perceived importance of sustainability in marketing education. These statistics aim to provide the overall attitudes and beliefs towards sustainability, allowing us to examine support for and knowledge of sustainability in the marketing academy.

Factor analysis results are then presented to derive the factors related to the six sustainability related constructs, followed by reliability analysis to determine the internal consistency of each factor. Next, socio-demographic differences between faculty and students, between genders, expertise (rank, expertise and specialisation for faculty and year at university for students) and region are examined for each construct to allow socio-demographic differences in beliefs in the marketing academy to be examined.

The results of two cluster analyses are then presented, with this analysis being used to classify respondents into groups and identify the differing sustainability worldviews of faculty and students. This allows the reader to understand the interpretation and prevalence of a
sustainability worldview. To understand the worldviews, mean factor scores are used to describe each cluster (worldview) and profiled using the socio-demographic information to examine any differences between clusters.

7.1 Data cleaning

Only completed survey responses were analysed. The total number of survey responses was 557 for marketing faculty staff and 504 for students majoring in marketing. The dropout rate, those who started the survey but did not complete it, was 21.5% and 29.0% respectively for faculty and students. In addition, responses which had taken less than 5 minutes to complete were deleted. It was estimated that respondents taking less than 5 minutes would provide insufficient time to reflect on the survey questions based upon the response times of the pre-test. Due to the self-contained nature of the questions no maximum time limit was applied. Consequently, the total sample size of completed responses was 437 marketing academic staff and 339 students majoring in marketing (247 undergraduate, 27 postgraduate, 50 PhD students and 15 MBA students).

7.2 Demographic profile

Table 7.1 displays the faculty characteristics of the sample. The faculty sample contained 63.0% males and 35.8% females (1.2% did not identify their gender). This is representative of the gender faculty divide at AACSB business schools in marketing departments (62.7% males and 37.3% females) (AACSB, 2016). A number of regions were represented, with 45.3% from North America, 24.6% from Australia or New Zealand, 12.4% from the UK or Ireland, 13.2% from Western Europe, and 4.4% from other countries (Eastern Europe, Asia, Africa, and South America).

With regard to academic rank, 51.0% were emerging scholars (postdoctoral researchers/lecturers/instructors/assistant professors or equivalent), 20.9% were experienced academics (associate professors or equivalent), and 28.1% were senior academics (professors or
professor emeritus). This spread of rankings is similar to those seen in Australian universities (54% male and 70% female emerging scholars), with associate professors (24% male, 19% female) and professors (22% male, 11% female) slightly overrepresented in the sample (Broadbent, Troup, & Strachan, 2013).

### Table 7.1 Socio-demographics of marketing faculty

<table>
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<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
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<td><strong>Country of residence</strong></td>
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<td>Western Europe</td>
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<td></td>
<td>North America</td>
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<td>UK/Ireland</td>
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<td>MBA</td>
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<td><strong>Years in industry</strong></td>
<td>1-10</td>
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<td>60.7</td>
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<td>11-20</td>
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<td></td>
<td>41+</td>
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<td><strong>Years in academia</strong></td>
<td>1-10</td>
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<td>31-40</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41+</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research interest (up to three)</strong></td>
<td>Consumer Behaviour</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing Management</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>35.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consumer Behaviour/Societal Marketing</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing Management/Consumer Behaviour</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Societal Marketing</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consumer Behaviour/Societal Marketing</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing Management/Societal Marketing</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consumer Behaviour/Strategy or Research</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategy or Research</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In regards to qualifications, 87.8% held a PhD, which is slightly higher than present in the faculty population in AACSB institutes (81.3% average) (AACSB, 2016). When examining academic experience, most had been in academia for 1-30 years, while industry experience also varied with most spending little time in industry, with 60.7% spending 1-10 years in industry. Faculty focused mainly on consumer behaviour and marketing management research topics, with 36.0% primarily researching marketing management and 25.4% a combination of consumer behaviour and marketing management. Less research interest was expressed in societal marketing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.2 Socio-demographics of marketing students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demographic Variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Status</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Country of residence (Students)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Year of study (undergraduate only)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The student sample consisted of 72.1% undergraduate, 8.3% postgraduate, 15.4% PhD, and 4.2% MBA students, as can be seen in Table 7.2. While not all students were from AACSB institutes, such institutes have on average 2.8% PhD, 69.7% undergraduate, 14.4% MBA, and 13.1% specialised masters students (AACSB, 2016), suggesting the sample has an
overrepresentation of PhD students and an underrepresentation of MBA students. The sample included 38.1% males and 61.9% females; consequently the sample may be skewed towards females. For example, at AACSB accredited institutes 53.9% of undergraduate students are male (AACSB, 2016). A number of regions were represented, with 57.2% from Australia or New Zealand, 22.4% from North America, 14.7% from the UK or Ireland, 4.1% from Western Europe, and 1.5% from other countries (Asia, Eastern Europe, Africa and South America).

For undergraduates, most were in their third year. In the sample, 28.0% had enrolled in a course primarily focused on ethics, sustainability, societal issues or the environment, while 72.0% had not. Similarly, PhD students also focused mainly on consumer behaviour and marketing management research topics, with 22.7% primarily researching marketing management and 38.6% a combination of consumer behaviour and marketing management. Again, less were seen to specialise in societal marketing. With regard to experience, 47.9% of PhD students had not published, while 47.9% had between 1-5 publications, and 4.2% had more than 21 publications. In terms of teaching experience in sustainability, only 7.5% of PhD students had taught a sustainability course.

7.3 Sustainability attitudes, definitions, and concepts

This section discusses the sustainability attitudes and beliefs related to sustainability definition and conceptualisation (including sustainability marketing). Results are displayed for the faculty and student sample to examine the differences between the two samples and then the pooled sample to provide average beliefs.

As can be seen in Table 7.3, respondents were asked about their attitude towards sustainability using a multi-choice question. Marketing faculty and students’ attitude towards sustainability were overwhelmingly high, with most thinking it was “a good thing” (72.6%) and with 22.0% identifying themselves as “passionate advocates”. This is in line with Kagawa’s
(2007) findings with students at the University of Plymouth, with 71.5% of respondents thinking sustainability “a good thing” and 20.3% of respondents considering themselves as “a passionate advocate”.

Table 7.3 Sustainability attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How would you describe your attitude towards sustainability?</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think it is a waste of time and effort</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not really bothered</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is OK if others want to do it</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think it is a good thing</td>
<td>74.6%</td>
<td>69.9%</td>
<td>72.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am a passionate advocate</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
<td>23.0%</td>
<td>22.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.4 provides the definitions of sustainability as described by the ALTC (2010). The majority (85.5%) of marketing faculty and students define sustainability as including the three domains of economic, social and environmental, however 14.4% still limit their perceptions to environmental concerns only.

Table 7.4 Sustainability beliefs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Which sustainability conception is most consistent with your own beliefs?</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sustainability is limited to the idea of ‘keeping self or business going’.</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainability is understood in terms of the environmental domain of sustainability.</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The three broad domains of economic, social and environmental are discerned and generational responsibility is acknowledged.</td>
<td>41.0%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>37.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainability goes beyond the three domains, critically recognizing the relevance of external authorities, societal rules and organizational agendas.</td>
<td>44.6%</td>
<td>52.2%</td>
<td>47.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked about their beliefs on which concepts were involved in sustainability; these items were measured on a 1-5 Likert scale (strongly agree-strongly disagree). Marketing faculty and students have a holistic understanding of sustainability as can be seen in Table 7.5, which displays the inclusion of social, economic and environmental elements in the definition of sustainability. The faculty findings compared to Cotton et al.’s (2007) study
(containing only 16% social science and business faculty) shows a greater acknowledgement of the holistic (i.e. beyond environmental issues) interpretation of sustainability. While Cotton et al. (2007) found no significant difference between disciplines and their conceptualisation of sustainability, the findings here suggest that marketing faculty, as well as students, see a greater need for the continual exploitation of natural resources and maintaining high and stable levels of economic growth. This may perhaps indicate greater support for a neo-liberal ideology in the sustainability context (Hopwood et al., 2005).

Table 7.5 Sustainability conceptualisations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Cotton et al. (2011)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% SA/A</td>
<td>% SA/A</td>
<td>% SA/A</td>
<td>% SA/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N = 776)</td>
<td>(N = 776)</td>
<td>(N = 776)</td>
<td>(N = 328)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing new technologies to reduce the impact of harmful by-products of production</td>
<td>91.3%</td>
<td>89.1%</td>
<td>90.3%</td>
<td>84.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintaining biodiversity in the local environment</td>
<td>92.7%</td>
<td>91.1%</td>
<td>91.1%</td>
<td>83.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recycling waste products</td>
<td>97.3%</td>
<td>92.4%</td>
<td>95.1%</td>
<td>81.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A significant degree of local production and consumption</td>
<td>72.3%</td>
<td>67.6%</td>
<td>70.2%</td>
<td>57.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helping people to avoid starvation and disease</td>
<td>76.2%</td>
<td>80.6%</td>
<td>78.1%</td>
<td>53.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social progress which recognises the needs of everyone</td>
<td>77.1%</td>
<td>79.0%</td>
<td>77.9%</td>
<td>51.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploiting natural resources for human benefit while maintaining critical natural capital</td>
<td>50.8%</td>
<td>34.0%</td>
<td>43.4%</td>
<td>46.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintaining high and stable levels of economic growth</td>
<td>37.9%</td>
<td>59.9%</td>
<td>47.3%</td>
<td>23.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putting the needs of nature before those of humanity</td>
<td>24.1%</td>
<td>45.7%</td>
<td>33.5%</td>
<td>21.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Previous studies have found that there is a greater understanding of environmental issues but ambiguity exists with social and economic issues (e.g. Cotton et al., 2007; Kagawa, 2007; Reid & Petocz, 2006; Reid et al., 2009; Wright & Horst, 2013). The findings presented here show some similar views, with more individuals uncertain about the involvement of the social and economic dimension of sustainability. Specifically, around 15% of faculty and students do not believe poverty and social progress which meets the needs of everyone is included in sustainability, while
for the economic dimension of sustainability, just under 50% believe this involves exploiting natural resources for human benefit while maintaining critical natural capital and maintaining high and stable levels of economic growth. For example, the majority (40.9%) of respondents didn’t agree or disagree that sustainability included putting the needs of humanity before those of nature, which shows the uncertainty surrounding the balance between meeting human and nature’s needs.

Furthermore, since there are still doubts about what sustainability marketing means (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014), this study helps shed light on academic views, as well as student views, on the role of marketing in sustainability. As can be seen in Table 7.6, respondents were asked about their level of agreement, measured on a 1-5 Likert scale (strongly agree-strongly disagree), about their belief about concepts related to sustainability in marketing. Utilising options discussed in Study One’s interviews, as seen in Table 8.6, most see sustainability in the marketing context including social marketing, while demarketing was seen as a less likely role. Overwhelming faculty and students agreed that taking into account sustainability was part of a marketer’s job.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Changing consumer attitudes towards more sustainable attitudes</td>
<td>93.9%</td>
<td>88.5%</td>
<td>91.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing consumer behaviour’s towards more sustainable consumer behaviours</td>
<td>93.8%</td>
<td>86.1%</td>
<td>90.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand the needs of green consumers</td>
<td>87.0%</td>
<td>89.0%</td>
<td>87.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring the ethics and sustainability of supply chain members</td>
<td>84.5%</td>
<td>88.5%</td>
<td>84.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of cradle-to-cradle design (production that is waste free)</td>
<td>86.1%</td>
<td>82.3%</td>
<td>84.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing green products</td>
<td>82.7%</td>
<td>86.8%</td>
<td>84.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demarketing (decrease the demand for a product)</td>
<td>55.4%</td>
<td>42.2%</td>
<td>49.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing, it’s not a marketers’ job</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In addition, as can be seen in Table 7.7, additional items from the marketing effect scale used in this study (more on this scale in the next factor analysis section) provide further ideas about sustainability marketing conceptualisations. These items were also measured on a Likert scale. The majority of marketing faculty and students believe that the marketing profession is at least partially responsible for promoting unsustainable consumption and that marketing needs to change for it to be able to successfully integrate the concept of environmental sustainability. In addition, about 70% agree that the market is a form of democracy, suggesting that marketing faculty and students do not believe that consumers are constrained by their income or other means to impact the marketing system (Schwarzkopf, 2011).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Faculty SA/A%</th>
<th>Students SA/A%</th>
<th>Total SA/A%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The marketing profession is at least partially responsible for promoting unsustainable consumption</td>
<td>86.1%</td>
<td>67.6%</td>
<td>69.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing needs to change for it to be able to successfully integrate the concept of environmental sustainability</td>
<td>63.3%</td>
<td>66.0%</td>
<td>64.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The market is a form of democracy – people vote for the things they approve of with their dollars</td>
<td>67.5%</td>
<td>73.7%</td>
<td>70.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.3.1 Responsibility to protect the environment

Respondents were asked in a multi-choice question about their beliefs on who should be primarily be responsible to protect the environment. Overwhelmingly, as seen in Table 7.8, marketing faculty and students thought the government, business and industry, and individual citizens should all have equal responsibility (80.0%). Research has found that belief in free market ideology is negatively associated with the perception that companies should respond to climate change (Unsworth, Russell, & Davis, 2016). Consequently, the findings presented here suggest that there may be a lesser belief in free market ideology, at least in relation to the treatment of environmental issues.
Table 7.8 Who should have the primary responsibility to protect the environment?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The government</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business and industry</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual citizens</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The government, business and industry, and individual citizens should all have equal responsibility</td>
<td>78.9%</td>
<td>81.4%</td>
<td>80.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.3.2 Climate change beliefs

Respondents were asked about their belief in global warming in a multi-choice question, with the summary results appearing in Table 7.9. The results demonstrate that overwhelmingly, marketing faculty and students believe in global warming (76.9%), however just over 20% are not certain that global warming is occurring (indicated by the response ‘possibly yes’).

Table 7.9 Do you think that global warming is happening?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definitely yes</td>
<td>73.5%</td>
<td>75.8%</td>
<td>76.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probably yes</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>20.1%</td>
<td>20.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probably not</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitely not</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Past research has also shown that 28% of Americans were extremely sure global warming is happening, 32% very sure, 37% somewhat sure and 3% not sure at all (Leiserowitz, Maibach, Roser-Renouf, Feinberg, & Rosenthal, 2015). Consequently, respondents had a high level of global warming belief, arguably more so than the general public.

8.3.3 Importance of sustainability in marketing education

Respondents were also asked about their belief in importance of sustainability education in marketing using a Likert scale. The mean agreement with the importance of sustainability
education in marketing was overwhelmingly high with most agreeing (88.0%), as seen in Table 7.10. This is in contrast to Doh and Tashman’s (2014) finding that while business school faculty members and PhD students felt that CSR, sustainability, and ethics are common themes throughout their own curricula, few felt these topics were important.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.10 Belief in importance of sustainability education in marketing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Please indicate to what extent you agree sustainability knowledge is extremely important to marketing students in their overall marketing degrees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree or disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.4 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is conducted to identify underlying factors, or dimensions, explaining correlations among variables (Malhorta, 2010). Factor analysis is conducted to reduce the number of items in a survey and summarise the items into a simple to understand construct. This type of analysis is also frequently used to examine scales and their internal reliability, usually alongside the Cronbach alpha measure. Since each scale was designed and created to measure distinct constructs, each scale was subject to separate factor analyses.

To understand the dimensionality of the scales included in this study, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted using the total sample of respondents (i.e. combining faculty and student data). EFA utilising Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Varimax rotation was performed to assess the underlying structure of all measures. Factor analysis was appropriate for all measures with the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy exceeding the recommended value of 0.50 by Kaiser (1974). In addition, the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance <0.05 across all analyses. Further, factors were retained with
eigenvalues greater than one (Kaiser, 1974). Items exhibiting low factor loadings (< 0.50) and high cross-loadings (> 0.50) were eliminated, as well as low communalities (< 0.50) (Hair et al., 2010).

Due to the exploratory nature of the study and the use of new scales, two items were deleted from the consumption issues, three items were deleted from the inequality scale, and four items were deleted from the business impact, marketing effects and the two economic scales. Further, the marketing effects scale was split into two factors (marketing impact, marketing wants), as was the consumption issues scale (consumption issues, technological fix) and business impact scale (business obligation and business influence). Internal reliability results for the items were all above 0.60 except for the two business scales (Business obligations, received a Cronbach Alpha of 0.57, and Business influence, a Cronbach Alpha of 0.47). Similar low internal reliability scores have been obtained when trying to measure business values (e.g. Kilbourne, Beckmann, & Thelen, 2002; Lewis, 2009; Moosmayer, 2011, 2012). Hair et al. (2010) suggests that the Cronbach alpha values should exceed a minimum of 0.60 for exploratory studies. Consequently, all but the business scales were deemed reliable. However, previous studies have utilised Nunnally’s (1967) 0.5 cut-off for exploratory research, which may suggest that the Business obligations scale is appropriate, at least for further analysis.

7.4.1 Social (inequality) beliefs

EFA utilising PCA and Varimax rotation was performed to assess the underlying structure of the inequality scale. A single factor solution was found, with three items deleted and three items remaining. The single factor explained 66.73% of the variance and received a Cronbach Alpha of 0.74. The findings of Study Two’s inequality scale mean ($M_{ineq} = 2.66$), as seen in Table 7.11, displays an average centre-left belief in inequality in society.
Chapter Seven: Study Two Findings

Table 7.11 Beliefs about inequality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha</th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inequality</td>
<td>Ordinary working people do not get their fair share of the nation's wealth</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>66.73%</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Big business benefits owners at the expense of workers</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There is one law for the rich and one for the poor</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.4.2 Business objective beliefs

EFA utilising PCA and Varimax rotation was performed to assess the underlying structure of the business objective scale. A two factor solution was found, with four items deleted, as seen in Table 7.12. The first factor, business obligation contained two items, explained 36.16% of the variance and had a Cronbach Alpha of 0.57, while the second factor, business influence contained two items and explained 33.20% of the variance with a low internal reliability of 0.47.

Table 7.12 Business effect beliefs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor Loading 1</th>
<th>Factor Loading 2</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business obligations</td>
<td>The purpose of business is to attend to the needs and wants of society regardless of whether these hurt the natural environment*</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>36.16%</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The only proper objective of business is to maximize its profits*</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business influence</td>
<td>Business interests have more political power than individuals</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>33.20%</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Business interests are only directed towards profits, not the betterment of society</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Due to the interest in the belief in business obligation towards society and its relatively good internal reliability (close to 0.60), the business objective scale was chosen to be used in further analysis, while the business influence scale due to its low internal reliability was deleted from
further analysis. Overall, with a mean score of $M_{bus} = 2.52$ on the business obligations scale, respondents somewhat agree that businesses have an obligation towards society beyond profit maximisation, contrary to Milton Friedman’s beliefs.

### 7.4.3 Economic growth beliefs

EFA utilising PCA and Varimax rotation was performed to assess the underlying structure of the economic growth scale. A one factor solution was found, with four items deleted, and four items remaining, which explained 57.60% of the variance and receiving a Cronbach Alpha of 0.75. The findings, in Table 7.13, show respondents somewhat agree that economic growth is not the best social goal especially over the environment ($M_{eco} = 2.43$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.13 Economic growth beliefs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*reversed item

EFA utilising PCA and Varimax rotation was performed to assess the underlying structure of the economic growth and social welfare scale. A one factor solution was found, with four items deleted and three remaining, which explained 69.24% of the variance and received a Cronbach Alpha of 0.78. As seen in Table 7.14, respondents somewhat agreed ($M_{eco} = 2.39$) that we should be more concerned with social welfare and related social issues than economic growth.
Table 7.14 Economic growth and social welfare beliefs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic growth and social</td>
<td>Reducing poverty in the world should get a higher priority than</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>welfare</td>
<td>economic growth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Making income distribution more equal should get a higher priority</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>69.24%</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>than economic growth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We should be more concerned about social welfare (such as happiness,</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>life satisfaction etc.) than economic growth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.4.4 Marketing’s impact beliefs

EFA utilising PCA and Varimax rotation was performed to assess the underlying structure of the marketing impact scale. A two factor solution was found, as can be seen in Table 7.15, with four items deleted.

Table 7.15 Marketing effect beliefs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marketing’s environmental</td>
<td>Marketing needs to change for it to be able to successfully integrate</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impact</td>
<td>the concept of environmental sustainability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There seems to be an ignorance about the limits of the planet (in</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>terms of natural resources) in marketing</td>
<td>0.72 37.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The marketing of consumer goods and services contributes negatively</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to current environmental problems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing and society creating</td>
<td>Marketing creates artificial wants, leading people to buy things</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wants</td>
<td>they do not actually need</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There are forces at work in modern societies which stimulate a lot</td>
<td>0.69 32.89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of artificial wants for things we do not really need</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The factor analysis reveals two factors. However, after conducting a Cronbach Alpha on both these factors, the marketing wants factor increases its internal reliability if the item about advertising is deleted.
Chapter Seven: Study Two Findings

The first factor, marketing’s environmental impact contained three items and explained 37.33% of the variance and had a Cronbach Alpha of 0.72, while the second factor, marketing and society creating wants, contained two items and explained 32.89% of the variance with a lower internal reliability of 0.69. While respondents somewhat agree that marketing and societal forces create artificial wants ($M_{wants} = 2.41$) and contribute negatively to the environment ($M_{mark} = 2.58$), the former statement generates greater agreement than the latter.

### 7.4.5 Consumption issues beliefs

EFA utilising PCA and Varimax rotation was performed to assess the underlying structure of the consumption issues scale. A one factor solution was found, with two items deleted. The first factor, consumption issues, contained four items, explained 73.04% of the variance and had a Cronbach Alpha of 0.87.

As seen in Table 7.16, the mean score $M_{con} = 1.97$ for belief in consumption issues suggests a high level of concern about consumption levels in the Western World exist as well as the need to reduce and change our consumption lifestyles.

#### Table 7.16 Consumption beliefs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>$\alpha$</th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consumption</td>
<td>Our present way of life is much too wasteful of natural resources</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We, as a society, should drastically change our way of living to combat growing environmental problems</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Western world is going to have to change what they consume, such as switching to sustainable or green products, to combat growing environmental problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>73.04%</td>
<td>1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Western world is going to have to drastically reduce their level of consumption to combat growing environmental problems</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter Seven: Study Two Findings

EFA utilising PCA and Varimax rotation was performed to assess the underlying structure of the ability for technology to fix environmental problems. As seen in Table 7.17, a one factor solution was found with no items deleted, and the factor explained 79.00% of the variance and had an internal reliability of 0.73. In addition, the mean of $M_{tech} = 2.42$ is in line with previous research which also shows some disagreement that technology can solve environmental issues (Kilbourne et al., 2002; Kilbourne & Carlson, 2008).

Table 7.17 Technological beliefs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>$\alpha$</th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technological fix</td>
<td>Future natural resource shortages will be solved by technological innovations*</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>79.00%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When environmental problems are bad enough, technology will solve them*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*reversed items

7.4.6 The New Environmental Paradigm Scale

For the NEP, it is necessary to conduct reliability analysis similar to those conducted by the original creator and subsequent users to determine the reliability of the NEP measure. However, previous studies have tended to adopt a single measure of the NEP, even if strictly speaking unidimensionality is not found (Harraway, Broughton-Ansin, Deaker, Jowett, & Shephard, 2012), or do not utilise factor analysis and only report the alpha (e.g. Schult, Shriver, Tabanico, & Khazian, 2004; Schultz, 2001; Steg & De Groot, 2008). Consequently, to enable the calculation of a NEP score, the 15-NEP items were subjected to an un-rotated factor analysis as described by Dunlap et al. (2000).

Due to the inconsistency of NEP studies, Dunlap et al. (2000) suggested that each study should determine, through factor analysis, if one, two or more factors with face validity emerge (Shafer, 2006). Consequently, EFA utilising PCA was performed on the NEP items only (as
implemented by previous studies, i.e. Shafer, 2006). The results indicated a four factor solution, however the factors lacked face validity as can be seen in Table 7.18. Only one item (“when humans interfered with nature it often produces disastrous consequences”) showed low item-total correlations (0.37) and all but four items loaded (> 0.50) on the first un-rotated factor (or all but two items loaded onto the first un-rotated factor if using 0.40 as the cut-off as used by Dunlap et al. (2000)). The first factor also explains a large amount of the variance, 30.84%, the second explained 9.80%, the third 7.67% and the fourth 6.87%, suggesting that the first factor by far explains the most variance.

Subsequently, the 15-items were subjected to internal reliability analysis. The Cronbach alpha was 0.83, and would have increased to 0.84 if the item “the earth has plenty of resources if we just learn to develop them”. Due to this inconsequential gain, as well as easier comparison to previous studies, it was decided to keep all items in the scale. Furthermore, since all but two items (using Dunlap et al.’s (2000) cut-off of 0.40) items load heavily onto the first unrotated factor, all items have strong item-total correlations (again, using Dunlap et al.’s (2000) cut-off of 0.33) and yielded an Cronbach alpha of 0.83 when combined into a single measure, a single scale was adopted (Dunlap et al., 2000; Shephard et al., 2009). Furthermore, this allowed for comparison with other studies which utilised the NEP scale.

To calculate the NEP score, the 15 items are added and divided. NEP scores for marketing academics (faculty and students) were an average of $M_{\text{NEP}} = 2.42$, this reversed is $M_{\text{NEPREV}} = 3.58$. The reversed measure is used to compare to previous studies, with low values representing a low ecological worldview and high values representing a high ecological worldview.

2 “The earth has plentiful resources if we just learn to develop them” received a loading of 0.36, “despite our special abilities humans are still subject to the laws of nature” received a loading of 0.37 and “humans will eventually learn enough about nature works to be able to control it” received a loading of 0.396
Table 7.18 New environmental paradigm scale factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Factor 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The so-called “ecological crisis” facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humans are severely abusing the environment</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>-0.29</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human ingenuity will insure that we do not make the earth unlivable</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>-0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When humans interfere with nature it often produces disastrous consequences</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>-0.36</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>-0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Despite our special abilities humans are still subject to the laws of nature</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To conduct a cluster analysis with the previously discussed factors, it is important that all scales are subjected to the same factor analysis procedure. As such, the same criteria was used to find a factor solution for the NEP scale; as seen in Table 7.19. Therefore, EFA utilising PCA and Varimax rotation was performed to assess the underlying structure of the NEP scale. A three-factor solution was found, with six items deleted. The first factor, eco-crisis, contained four items (containing two items from Dunlap et al.’s (2000) ‘the reality of limits to growth’ hypothesised facet and two from the ‘the possibility of an ecocrisis’ facet), explained 25.42% of the variance and had a Cronbach Alpha of 0.69, while the second factor, antianthropocentric, contained three items (identical to Dunlap et al.’s (2000) facet), explained 19.42% of the variance and had an internal reliability of 0.63. The third factor, human ingenuity, contained two items (containing an item from the ‘rejection of exemptionalism’ facet and another from ‘the reality of
limits to growth’ facet) explained 15.49% of the variance and had a low Cronbach Alpha of 0.48, as such, this low internal reliability dictates that this factor be deleted from any subsequent analysis. However, compared to the un-rotated solution, explaining 30.84% of the variance, the two-factor solution explains 44.84%, explaining 14% more of the variance.

Table 7.19 NEP factor analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eco-crisis</td>
<td>If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>25.42%</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Humans are severely abusing the environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antianthropocentric</td>
<td>Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>19.42%</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human ingenuity</td>
<td>The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Human ingenuity will insure that we do not make the earth unlivable</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>15.49%</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.4.7 Factor analysis summary

Factor analysis was used to identify the dimensionality and interpretation of the scales, and a summary table is provided in Table 8.20. All factors but the business influence factor were subject to further analysis, specifically in ANOVA analyses and cluster analysis. Utilising
Independent Samples T-Test and ANOVA analyses, the differences due to gender and expertise in each factor were examined. Demographic differences in sustainability beliefs can help to gain an understanding of who professional development and EfS should be targeted towards.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Factor(s)</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha</th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Left-right or Socialist/Laissez faire Business purpose</td>
<td>Inequality</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>66.70%</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business purpose</td>
<td>Social welfare and economic growth</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>69.24%</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The economy</td>
<td>Economic growth</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>57.60%</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social welfare vs economic growth</td>
<td>Marketing’s impact</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>50.02%</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing effects</td>
<td>Marketing wants</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>20.20%</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumption issues</td>
<td>Consumption issues</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>73.04%</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Technological fix</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>79.00%</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The New Environmental Paradigm</td>
<td>Eco-crisis</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>32.78%</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Antianthropocentric</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>13.00%</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An assumption of the independent samples t-test and ANOVA is that the dependent variable is normally distributed. For a dataset smaller than 2000 cases, skewness, kurtosis and Q-Q plot is used to test for normality (Razali & Wah, 2011). Examining the Q-Q plots, skewness and kurtosis, the population exhibited signs of being normally distributed (skewness and kurtosis between -2 and +2) (George & Mallery, 2010) as can be seen in Table 7.21, apart from the consumption scale which had a kurtosis of 2.09 but a skewness of 1.15; because of this small discrepancy and to remain consistent, parametric tests were deemed appropriate for all scales.
Table 7.21 Normal distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Err</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inequality</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business obligation</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic growth</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic growth and social welfare</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing impact</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing wants</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumption issues</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological fix</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco-crisis</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antianthropocentric</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.5 Socio-demographic differences

7.5.1 Experience and expertise

Several differences were found in sustainability beliefs between students and faculty, specifically undergraduate students. Faculty had significantly lesser belief in the need to attend to social welfare than economic growth ($M_{eco} = 2.51$) than undergraduate students ($M_{eco} = 2.27$), postgraduate students ($M_{eco} = 1.96$) and PhD students ($M_{eco} = 2.11$) ($F = 7.80$, $p = 0.00$). Undergraduate students had greater belief in marketing and society creating wants ($M_{wants} = 2.10$) ($F = 14.36$, $p = 0.00$) and consumption problems ($M_{con} = 1.84$) ($F = 3.72$, $p = 0.01$) than marketing faculty ($M_{wants} = 2.58$, $M_{con} = 2.06$). However, undergraduate students had greater belief in economic growth ($M_{eco} = 2.61$) than faculty ($M_{eco} = 2.33$, $F = 6.29$, $p = 0.00$) and undergraduate students had a lesser belief in business obligations to society ($M_{bus} = 2.79$) than faculty ($M_{bus} = 2.37$) and PhD students ($M_{bus} = 2.34$) ($F = 16.54$, $p = 0.00$). Subsequently, while undergraduate students had more critical views of economic growth prioritising over social welfare, marketing creating artificial wants, and consumption than faculty, students had a greater belief in the need for economic growth and business obligations only towards profit maximisation.
Similarly, there were significant differences found in sustainability beliefs across faculty rank. Postdocs, lecturers and senior lecturers had a lesser belief in economic growth ($M_{eco} = 2.25$) than professors ($M_{eco} = 2.47$, $F = 3.24$, $p = 0.04$). Postdocs, lecturers and senior lecturers also had a greater belief in the need to attend to social welfare than economic growth ($M_{ecso} = 2.40$) ($F = 3.78$, $p = 0.02$) and in consumption issues ($M_{con} = 1.97$) ($F = 4.66$, $p = 0.01$) than professors ($M_{eco} = 2.69$, $M_{con} = 2.26$). In addition, postdocs, lecturers and senior lecturers were less anthropocentric ($M_{anthro} = 2.26$) than professors ($M_{anthro} = 2.51$) ($F = 45.16$, $p = 0.01$). Overall, less experienced academics had more critical views of economic growth and consumption issues.

Similar age effects are found when examining time spent in academia. Specifically, younger academics had more critical views of economic growth and consumption issues and higher ecological values. Those who had spent 31-40 years in academia had a greater belief in economic growth ($M_{eco} = 2.74$) than those who had spent 1-10 years ($M_{eco} = 2.22$) and 11-20 years in academia ($M_{eco} = 2.27$) ($F = 5.00$, $p = 0.00$). Similarly, those who had spent 31-40 years in academia had a lesser belief in the need to attend to social welfare than economic growth ($M_{eco} = 3.14$) than those who spent 1-10 ($M_{eco} = 2.34$) or 11-20 years in academia ($M_{eco} = 2.45$) ($F = 6.00$, $p = 0.00$). Again, those who spent 31-40 years in academia had a lesser belief in consumption issues ($M_{con} = 2.53$) than those who spent 1-10 ($M_{con} = 1.91$) or 11-20 years in academia ($M_{con} = 2.02$) ($F = 3.42$, $p = 0.01$). Additionally, faculty who spent 1-10 years in industry had greater belief in marketing’s negative impact on the environment ($M_{mark} = 2.51$) than those who had spent 31-40 years in industry ($M_{mark} = 3.04$) ($F = 2.91$, $p = 0.02$). Lastly, those who had published 51-60 articles were more antianthropocentric ($M_{anthro} = 3.39$) compared to 6-10 articles ($M_{anthro} = 2.33$) ($F = 2.91$, $p = 0.00$).

In addition, researchers who had taught a sustainability course had lower economic growth beliefs ($M_{eco} = 2.08$) when compared to those who had not taught this type of course ($M_{eco} = 2.35$, $t = -2.28$, $p = 0.02$). Similarly, researchers who had taught a sustainability course had
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a greater belief in marketing’s negative impact ($M_{mark} = 2.30$) ($t = -2.25$, $p = 0.03$) and in marketing and society creating wants ($M_{wants} = 2.19$) ($t = -2.65$, $p = 0.01$) when compared to those who had not taught such a course ($M_{mark} = 2.61$, $M_{wants} = 2.59$). Lastly, in regards to specialisation, societal marketing researchers held a greater belief in the need to attend to social welfare than economic growth ($M_{eco} = 1.82$) than marketing management scholars ($M_{eco} = 2.49$) and combined marketing management and consumer behaviours scholars ($M_{eco} = 2.54$) ($F = 3.62$, $p = 0.00$).

Previous research has shown that both age and education may affect sustainability beliefs. Past research has shown that age is usually negatively related to the NEP (Dunlap et al., 2000) as well as climate change beliefs (Hornsey, Harris, Bain, & Fielding, 2016). Wiernik, Ones and Dilchert (2013) and Hornsey et al. (2016) found a small, but generalisable relationship, for age, suggesting that older individuals are more likely to engage with nature, avoid environmental harm, and conserve raw materials and natural resources, and believe in climate change. Conversely, while this study did not measure age specifically, lecturers are typically younger than professors, and the findings of this research suggest that younger faculty had more positive NEP scores, contrary to previous research. In addition, the findings here are in contrast to previous research by Oelfke (2014), who found no differences between tenure category and years of faculty membership for environmental concern.

7.5.2 Gender

Several differences were found in sustainability beliefs between genders, with females being more critical or aware of societal issues and more environmentally concerned, in line with previous studies. Specifically, females had a greater belief in business obligations to society ($M_{bus} = 2.44$) ($t = -3.76$, $p = 0.00$), the need to attend to social welfare than economic growth ($M_{eco} = 2.30$) ($t = 2.78$, $p = 0.01$), in marketing and society creating wants ($M_{wants} = 2.33$) ($t = 2.28$, $p = 0.02$), and in
consumption issues ($M_{\text{con}} = 1.85$) ($t = 4.17, p = 0.00$) ($M_{\text{bus}} = 2.62, M_{\text{eco}} = 2.47, M_{\text{wants}} = 2.48, M_{\text{con}} = 2.08$). In addition, in regards to environmental concern, females were more antianthropocentric ($M_{\text{anthro}} = 2.21$) ($t = 2.94, p = 0.00$) and concerned about the eco-crisis ($M_{\text{crisis}} = 2.17$) ($t = 7.89, p = 0.00$) than males ($M_{\text{anthro}} = 2.64, M_{\text{crisis}} = 2.33$). The survey also shows that males had a greater belief in economic growth ($M_{\text{eco}} = 2.35$) ($t = 2.92, p = 0.00$) and in technological fixes to environmental issues ($M_{\text{tech}} = 2.92$) ($t = 5.84, p = 0.00$) compared to females ($M_{\text{eco}} = 2.50, M_{\text{tech}} = 3.27$).

In support of the present study, Weaven et al. (2013) found that female marketing students had a greater belief in the role of ethics and social responsibility in business than males. Similarly, female business students favoured the stakeholder model approach and placed more weight on corporate ethical, environmental, and societal responsibilities than their male counterparts (Lämsä et al., 2008). Drews and van den Bergh (2016) also found that females were associated with having a greater belief in environmental limits to growth. Likewise, somewhat in support of this study’s gender difference, Moosmayer (2011) found that management faculty with low economic and social concerns, and low intention to influence student values, were more likely to be female. He also found that faculty who had strong economic values and low social values, and had an intention to influence student values, were more likely to be male. There is also some evidence to indicate females are more critical of marketing (Dubinsky & Hensel, 1984), although men were found to be more critical of advertising specifically (Gaski, 2008). However, previous studies have not reported on gender differences on technological fixes to environmental issues (e.g. Kilbourne & Carlson, 2008; Kilbourne & Polonsky, 2005; Shafer, 2006).

Studies on the NEP show somewhat mixed results on gender effects. According to Zelezny, Chua, and Aldrich (2000, p. 443), most studies conducted between 1988 and 1998 found college female students had higher NEP scores (higher ecological values), measuring
environmental worldviews, than males in 10 of the 14 countries they surveyed. However, only
the gender difference in the USA was statistically significant. Shephard, Mann, Smith, and
Deaker (2009) and Harraway et al. (2012) also found that females had a more pro-ecological
stance than males, however, in the latter study the gender effect disappeared when area of study
was added to the regression model.

7.5.3 Regional

Region of residence and highest degree obtained were shown to affect several sustainability
beliefs. This difference in beliefs included inequality, with those who earned their highest degree
in Asia, Eastern European, Africa, South America or Africa ($M_{soi} = 2.00$) having a greater belief
in inequality in society than those who earned it in Australia or New Zealand ($M_{soi} = 2.60$),
Europe ($M_{soi} = 2.78$) or North America ($M_{soi} = 2.65$) ($F = 4.67, p = 0.00$). This would most
likely be because these regions suffer from greater inequality (Central Intelligence Agency, 2016).
However, the U.S.A suffers from higher inequality than some Eastern European countries
(Central Intelligence Agency, 2016). Research about inequality also points towards a country
effect based upon GDP per capita and economic growth, with richer countries usually perceiving
less inequality of opportunity (Brunori, 2016); this might explain the differences found in this
study.

Regional differences were also found for economic growth beliefs. Those who resided in
North America had a lesser belief in the need to attend to social welfare than economic growth
($M_{eso} = 2.62$) than those in Australia or New Zealand ($M_{eso} = 2.30$), UK or Ireland ($M_{eso} =
2.21$), and Asia, Eastern Europe, South America or Africa ($M_{eso} = 1.86$) ($F = 10.23, p = 0.00$).
Those who earned their highest degree in North America ($M_{eso} = 2.66$), had less belief in the
need for economic growth over social welfare than Europeans ($M_{eso} = 2.22$), UK or Ireland
($M_{eso} = 2.24$), and Asia, Eastern European, Africa, South America or Africa ($M_{eso} = 1.78$) ($F =$
5.33, \( p = 0.00 \). In regard to economic beliefs, previous studies have also shown a similar divide between countries, especially for the USA, Australia and New Zealand. Kilbourne et al. (2002) found as that The Netherlands, Spain and Australia were found to be ‘low-DSP’ countries while, the USA Denmark, England and Austria were high-DSP countries. Similarly, the WVS (2014) showed that more than 60% of individuals in the USA, Sweden, Singapore and Malaysia believe economic growth should be the main aim of their country, while this was less than 50% of individuals in Australia, New Zealand, China, Germany, Hong Kong, South Korea and Thailand.

Region effects were also found on beliefs in marketing’s negative impact and consumption issues. There was a significant difference between New Zealanders and Australians (\( M_{\text{wants}} = 2.49 \)), and Americans, with the latter having a having a lesser belief in marketing creating negative impact on the environment (\( M_{\text{wants}} = 2.73 \)) (\( F = 3.59, p = 0.01 \)). Again, region effects were found for beliefs in marketing impact on wants, specifically, New Zealanders and Australians had a greater belief in marketing and society creating wants (\( M_{\text{wants}} = 2.22 \)), than Americans (\( M_{\text{wants}} = 2.58 \)) and those from Europe (\( M_{\text{wants}} = 2.67 \)) (\( F = 8.04, p = 0.00 \)). In addition, those who earned their degree in Europe had a greater belief in consumption issues (\( M_{\text{con}} = 1.79 \)) than those who earned their degree in North America (\( M_{\text{con}} = 2.16 \)) (\( F = 3.82, p = 0.01 \)). Similarly, those who currently resided in Australia or New Zealand (\( M_{\text{con}} = 1.88 \)) had a greater belief in consumption issues than those residing in North America (\( M_{\text{con}} = 2.12 \)) (\( F = 3.89, p = 0.00 \)).

Previous research has also found that New Zealanders may be more critical of marketing than other countries. In 2000, New Zealanders scored -12.7 on the ICSM (and which has remained relatively stable over time) in comparison with the United States which recorded -6.66 (Ganglmair-Wooliscroft & Lawson, 2012).

Lastly, some differences in ecological beliefs were found between regions. Specifically, those who earned their highest degree in America (\( M_{\text{anthro}} = 2.60 \)) were more anthropocentric than those who earned their degree in Western Europe (\( M_{\text{anthro}} = 2.20 \)) (\( F = 4.55, p = 0.00 \)).
Previous research utilising the NEP scale has found that countries with greater emphasis on harmony, collectivism and intellectual and affective autonomy had higher NEP scores (greater ecological concern) than those countries who value conservativism and materialism (Milfront, Hawcroft & Fisher, 2008, as cited in Dunlap, 2008).

### 7.6 Cluster analysis

Cluster analysis is used to categorise respondents into a smaller subset of clusters (Malhorta, 2010). There are various cluster analysis techniques available which are able to create classifications. Consequently, cluster analysis was used to group faculty and student respondents into mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive groups with high homogeneity within clusters and low homogeneity between clusters (Everitt et al., 2011). As such, the differing worldviews of sustainability can be mapped in the marketing faculty and student body. As this study is essentially exploratory, cluster analysis was further employed to determine if respondents hold common values, beliefs and attitudes.

Utilising the nine factors from the previous analysis measuring the six key constructs, two separate cluster analyses were conducted on the faculty and student respondents. Separate analyses were conducted as there were several factors which differed significantly between faculty and students, as seen in the above section.

Groupings were identified following a two-step procedure (Hair et al., 2010). First, hierarchical cluster analysis using Ward’s method was applied to the mean item scores of the nine factors. Adopting the ‘stopping rule’, a substantive change in the within-cluster sum of squares helped identify the initial cluster solution as well as a visual inspection was performed of the horizontal icicle dendogram (Hair et al., 2010). Second, K-means cluster analysis was then used to adjust the clusters assuming the initial solution the hierarchical cluster analysis revealed. When unsure about the number of clusters, both options were considered (four or five clusters for
both faculty and students) and the one which provided the greatest difference between clusters and yielded the most interpretable results was chosen. To examine these differences ANOVA was carried out to determine whether the cluster centres were significantly different. The four cluster solution for both faculty and students resulted in most constructs being different between the clusters.

The profiles for each of the clusters were developed based upon the mean ratings of the factors, and the results of a series of ANOVAs (using post-hoc Scheffe tests when variances were equal and Tamhane when variances were unequal) to identify any pair-wise differences in mean factor scores, alongside Chi-square crosstabs.

### 7.6.1 Faculty cluster analysis

Table 7.22 displays the means for each factor corresponding to each grouping. Next, I will discuss each cluster in relation to these factor means as well as Chi-square analysis results to describe the demographic characters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mbus</th>
<th>Meco</th>
<th>Meco</th>
<th>Mloco</th>
<th>Mcon</th>
<th>Mtech</th>
<th>Mmark</th>
<th>Mwants</th>
<th>Mcrisis</th>
<th>Manthr</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sceptic</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passionate</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>2.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocate</td>
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<td>2.43</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>2.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 7.6.1.1 Cluster 1: Sceptics

Sceptics are almost ambivalent to businesses obligation to society beyond profit \((F = 27.81, p = 0.00)\), on par with Amivalents. They support a focus on economic growth \((F = 101.05, p = 0.00)\) rather than social welfare \((F = 136.43, p = 0.00)\), and do not see any issues in current inequality \((F = 180.11, p = 0.00)\) and consumption levels in society \((F = 124.41, p = 0.00)\) nor marketing’s negative impact on the environment \((F = 146.32, p = 0.00)\) and creating artificial wants \((F =
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109.65, \( p = 0.00 \)). Sceptics are not concerned about the eco-crisis (\( F = 48.11, \ p = 0.00 \)) and are anthropocentric (\( F = 112.80, \ p = 0.00 \)), and they also believe that environmental issues can be fixed with technological innovations (\( F = 42.75, \ p = 0.00 \)). Sceptics represent 4.81% of the sample.

Sceptics are more likely to be politically right or very right (\( \chi^2 = 165.53, \ p = 0.00 \)), male (\( \chi^2 = 12.73, \ p = 0.01 \)), professors (\( \chi^2 = 14.47, \ p = 0.04 \)), experienced in academia (21-40 years) (\( \chi^2 = 32.28 \ p = 0.00 \)), earned their highest degree in North America (\( \chi^2 = 31.70, \ p = 0.00 \)) and research a combination of marketing management and consumer behaviour (\( \chi^2 = 47.28 \ p = 0.01 \)). Sceptics are more likely to think sustainability is a waste of time and effort (\( \chi^2 = 189.00 \ p = 0.00 \)), and believe that sustainability is limited to the environment or the three domains (\( \chi^2 = 65.83, \ p = 0.00 \)), that citizens should have the primary responsibility to protect the environment (\( \chi^2 = 31.16, \ p = 0.00 \)), and that global warming is probably happening (\( \chi^2 = 111.00, \ p = 0.00 \)).

7.6.1.2 Cluster 2: Passionates

Passionates scored the lowest on all factors, showing the most critical and ecological beliefs. Specifically, Passionates are very critical of consumption levels (\( F = 124.41, \ p = 0.00 \)) and society’s focus on economic growth (\( F = 101.05, \ p = 0.00 \)) rather than social welfare (\( F = 136.43, \ p = 0.00 \)). Passionates are critical of current inequality in society (\( F = 180.11, \ p = 0.00 \)), marketing’s impact on the environment (\( F = 146.32, \ p = 0.00 \)) and on creating artificial wants (\( F = 109.65, \ p = 0.00 \)), and believe business has an obligation beyond profit to society (\( F = 27.81, \ p = 0.00 \)). Passionates concerned about the eco-crisis (\( F = 48.11, \ p = 0.00 \)) and are antianthropocentric (\( F = 112.80, \ p = 0.00 \)), and critical of technologies ability to solve environmental problems (\( F = 42.75, \ p = 0.00 \)). Passionates represent 25.40% of the sample.

Passionates are more likely to be politically left leaning (\( \chi^2 = 165.53, \ p = 0.00 \)), female (\( \chi^2 = 12.73, \ p = 0.01 \)), emerging academics who are postdocs, lecturers or senior lecturers (\( \chi^2 = 109.65, \ p = 0.00 \)).
14.47, $p = 0.04$) and have spent 1-10 years or 11-20 in academia ($\chi^2 = 32.28, p = 0.00$), and have earned their highest degree in these countries in Australia, New Zealand, UK, Ireland, Scotland, Eastern Europe, Asia, Africa or South America ($\chi^2 = 31.70, p = 0.00$), and have research interests in societal marketing or a combination of consumer behaviour and/or marketing management ($\chi^2 = 47.28, p = 0.01$). Passionates are more likely to be passionate advocates for sustainability ($\chi^2 = 189.00, p = 0.00$), and believe that sustainability goes beyond the three domains ($\chi^2 = 65.83, p = 0.00$), that the government or that everyone (business, government and individuals) should have responsibility to protect the environment ($\chi^2 = 31.16, p = 0.00$), and believe global warming is happening ($\chi^2 = 111.00, p = 0.00$).

7.6.1.3 Cluster 3: Ambivalents

Ambivalents, like their name sake, have ambivalent beliefs about marketing’s impact on the environment ($F = 146.32, p = 0.00$) and contributing to creating artificial wants ($F = 109.65, p = 0.00$), and society’s focus on economic growth rather than social welfare ($F = 136.43, p = 0.00$). Ambivalents have a somewhat more critical view of businesses obligation to society ($F = 27.81, p = 0.00$), society’s focus on economic growth ($F = 101.05, p = 0.00$) and consumption issues in society ($F = 124.41, p = 0.00$). However, Ambivalents are not too worried about current inequality in society ($F = 180.11, p = 0.00$). Ambivalents are slightly concerned about the eco-crisis ($F = 48.11, p = 0.00$), and are somewhat anti-anthropocentric ($F = 112.80, p = 0.00$), but they believe that technology has the ability to solve environmental problems ($F = 42.75, p = 0.00$) and. Ambivalents represent 30.89% of the sample.

Ambivalents are more likely to be politically centre-right ($\chi^2 = 165.53, p = 0.00$), male ($\chi^2 = 12.73, p = 0.01$), experienced academics (professors ($\chi^2 = 14.47, p = 0.04$) and spent 11-20 or 31-40 years in academia ($\chi^2 = 32.28, p = 0.00$)), and earned their highest degree in Australia, New Zealand, Western Europe, or North America ($\chi^2 = 31.70, p = 0.00$). Ambivalents are more likely to think sustainability is a good thing ($\chi^2 = 189.00, p = 0.00$), and believe that sustainability
is limited to the environment or the three domains ($\chi^2 = 65.83, p = 0.00$), that individual citizens should have the primary responsibility to protect the environment ($\chi^2 = 31.16, p = 0.00$), and that global warming is probably happening ($\chi^2 = 111.00, p = 0.00$).

### 7.6.1.4 Cluster 4: Advocates

Advocates have belief that businesses have an obligation to make a positive contribution to society ($F = 26.54, p = 0.00$). Advocates are somewhat critical of society’s focus on economic growth ($F = 137.55, p = 0.00$) rather than social welfare ($F = 166.64, p = 0.00$), and marketing’s impact on the environment ($F = 124.48, p = 0.00$), and on creating artificial wants ($F = 58.45, p = 0.00$). Additionally, Advocates are critical of consumption issues in society ($F = 231.27, p = 0.00$), and social inequality in society ($F = 169.76, p = 0.00$). They are concerned about the eco-crisis ($F = 48.11, p = 0.00$) and somewhat antianthropocentric ($F = 112.80, p = 0.00$), but believe somewhat that environmental issues can be fixed with technological innovations ($F = 27.64, p = 0.00$). Advocates represent the largest clusters with 38.90% of the faculty sample.

Advocates are more likely to be politically left, slightly left or slightly right ($\chi^2 = 165.53, p = 0.00$), female ($\chi^2 = 12.73, p = 0.01$), associate professor ($\chi^2 = 14.47, p = 0.04$), and earned their degree in North America, UK, Ireland, Asia, Africa, Eastern Europe or South America ($\chi^2 = 24.26, p = 0.02$). Advocates are more likely to believe sustainability is a good thing ($\chi^2 = 189.00, p = 0.00$), goes beyond the three domains of the economic, social and environmental dimensions ($\chi^2 = 65.83, p = 0.00$), that either the government or everyone should have primary responsibility to protect the environment ($\chi^2 = 31.16, p = 0.00$), and that global warming is happening ($\chi^2 = 111.00, p = 0.00$).
7.6.2 Students cluster analysis

Table 7.23 displays the means for each factor corresponding to student cluster. As before, I will discuss each cluster in relation to these factor means as well as Chi-square analysis results to describe the demographic characters of the clusters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mbus</th>
<th>Meco</th>
<th>Meco</th>
<th>Msoci</th>
<th>Mcon</th>
<th>Mtech</th>
<th>Mmark</th>
<th>Mwants</th>
<th>Mcrisis</th>
<th>Month</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Follower</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>2.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Believer</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>1.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporter</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>2.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doubter</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.6.2.1 Cluster 1: Followers

Followers have the lowest belief that business has an obligation to society beyond profit ($F = 22.92, p = 0.00$), the greatest belief in technologies ability to fix environmental issues ($F = 17.56, p = 0.00$), and fall in between being ecocentric and anthropocentric ($F = 63.83, p = 0.00$). 

Followers have a somewhat greater belief, on par with Supporters, in the need for society to focus on social welfare rather than economic growth ($F = 54.06, p = 0.00$). They are even more critical or concerned about marketing’s impact on the environment ($F = 91.62, p = 0.00$) and creating artificial wants ($F = 63.447, p = 0.00$) than Supporters, but remain ambivalent about society’s focus on economic growth ($F = 58.543, p = 0.00$). Supporters are somewhat concerned about inequality in society ($F = 47.60, p = 0.00$) and the eco-crisis ($F = 60.72, p = 0.00$), but are more critical about current consumption levels ($F = 55.69, p = 0.00$). They represent 30.68% of the sample.

Followers are more likely to have not enrolled in a university course with a primary focus on the environment, ethics, societal issues or sustainability ($\chi^2 = 8.60, p = 0.04$), be politically
either very left or slight right - right leaning ($\chi^2 = 46.28, p = 0.00$), think sustainability is OK if others are involved with it or believe it is a good thing ($\chi^2 = 69.86, p = 0.00$), and believe that sustainability is limited the environment only or the three domains ($\chi^2 = 24.71, p = 0.00$), the government should be primarily responsible for protecting the environment ($\chi^2 = 29.22, p = 0.00$), and that global warming is probably happening ($\chi^2 = 39.56, p = 0.00$).

7.6.2.2 Cluster 2: Believers

Believers had the most concerned or critical beliefs about sustainability. Specifically, Believers are very critical of consumption levels ($F = 108.00, p = 0.00$), and society’s focus on economic growth ($F = 58.543, p = 0.00$) rather than social welfare ($F = 54.06, p = 0.00$). Believers are critical of current inequality in society ($F = 47.60, p = 0.00$), marketing’s impact on the environment ($F = 91.62, p = 0.00$) and creating artificial wants ($F = 63.447, p = 0.00$), and believe business has an obligation beyond profit to society ($F = 22.92 p = 0.00$). They are antianthropocentric ($F = 63.83, p = 0.00$) and very concerned about the eco-crisis ($F = 60.72, p = 0.00$), and they may somewhat disagree, or almost ambivalent, to the possibility that technological innovations can solve environmental issues. Believers represent 24.48% of the sample.

Believers are more likely have enrolled in a university course with a primary focus on the environment, ethics, societal issues or sustainability ($\chi^2 = 8.60, p = 0.04$), to be politically very left - left leaning ($\chi^2 = 46.28, p = 0.00$), are passionate advocates for sustainability ($\chi^2 = 69.86, p = 0.00$), that sustainability is defined beyond the three domains ($\chi^2 = 24.71, p = 0.00$), that citizens, businesses and government should all be primarily responsible for protecting the environment ($\chi^2 = 29.22, p = 0.00$), and that global warming is happening ($\chi^2 = 39.56, p = 0.00$).
7.6.2.3 Cluster 3: Supporters

Supporters are critical of society’s focus on economic growth ($F = 58.543, p = 0.00$) and believe that society should focus more on social welfare rather than economic growth ($F = 54.06, p = 0.00$). Supporters are antianthropocentric ($F = 63.83, p = 0.00$) and concerned about the eco-crisis ($F = 60.72, p = 0.00$). However, Supporters are almost ambivalent to the possibility of technological innovations ability to fix environmental issues ($F = 17.56, p = 0.00$), and are less critical or concerned about marketing’s impact on the environment ($F = 91.62, p = 0.00$) and creating artificial wants ($F = 63.447, p = 0.00$) and about inequality ($F = 47.60, p = 0.00$) than Followers. Additionally, Supporters believe that there are consumption issues in the world ($F = 55.69, p = 0.00$), but only believe somewhat that businesses have an obligation to make a positive contribution to society ($F = 22.92, p = 0.00$). Supporters represent the largest of the clusters with 32.44% of the sample.

Supporters are more likely have enrolled in a university course with a primary focus on the environment, ethics, societal issues or sustainability ($\chi^2 = 8.60, p = 0.04$), to be politically slightly left, centre or slightly right ($\chi^2 = 46.28, p = 0.00$), think sustainability is a good thing or are passionate advocates for sustainability ($\chi^2 = 69.86, p = 0.00$), and believe that sustainability is beyond the three domains ($\chi^2 = 24.71, p = 0.00$), that only citizens, or citizens, businesses and government should all be primarily responsible for protecting the environment ($\chi^2 = 29.22, p = 0.00$), and that global warming is happening ($\chi^2 = 39.56, p = 0.00$).

7.6.2.4 Cluster 4: Doubters

Doubters are ambivalent to businesses obligation to society beyond profit ($F = 22.92, p = 0.00$), society’s focus on economic growth ($F = 58.543, p = 0.00$) rather than social welfare ($F = 54.06, p = 0.00$), consumption levels in society ($F = 108.00, p = 0.00$), but somewhat believes that marketing and societal influences help create artificial wants ($F = 63.447, p = 0.00$). Doubters do
not see any issues in current inequality ($F = 47.60, p = 0.00$) nor marketing’s negative impact on the environment ($F = 91.62, p = 0.00$). Doubters are quite anthropocentric ($F = 63.83, p = 0.00$) and are ambivalent to the current realities of the eco-crisis ($F = 60.72, p = 0.00$), they are also ambivalent to the possibility that environmental issues can be fixed with technological innovations ($F = 17.56, p = 0.00$). This cluster is the smallest of all the clusters and includes 12.39% of the sample.

Doubters are more likely to have enrolled in a university course with a primary focus on the environment, ethics, societal issues or sustainability ($\chi^2 = 8.60, p = 0.04$), be politically centre-right ($\chi^2 = 46.28, p = 0.00$), are not really bothered with sustainability or think it’s a good thing ($\chi^2 = 69.86, p = 0.00$), and believe that sustainability is limited to the environment only or the three domains ($\chi^2 = 24.71, p = 0.00$), that citizens or the government should be primarily responsible for protecting the environment ($\chi^2 = 29.22, p = 0.00$), and that global warming is probably happening ($\chi^2 = 39.56, p = 0.00$).

7.7 Chapter summary
Study Two found somewhat positive and critical sustainability beliefs in relation to equality, business, economic growth (need for economic growth and objective of economic growth over social welfare), marketing, consumption, and the environment. The research also found broad perceptions of sustainability (i.e. beyond the environmental domain) in marketing faculty and students, possibly more so than previous studies have revealed. However, a greater belief in market ideology to solve sustainability issues may also exist. The study found significant effects or associations between expertise, gender, and region of current residence and conferred highest degree on sustainability constructs.

Cluster analysis was also employed to examine the worldviews of sustainability. The cluster analysis revealed that the respondents were divided into four distinct groups within the
faculty and student sample. Chi-square was conducted and found that certain genders, regions and publication/academic experience were overrepresented in some groups.

Study One suggested that student and faculty mindsets might be a barrier towards the integration of sustainability within marketing academia. Subsequently, Study Two found that around 40% of marketing students and faculty may be ambivalent towards sustainability issues, suggesting that values, beliefs and attitudes may be a barrier towards integration in marketing academia. The next chapter discusses the findings of Study One and Study Two, the contribution to knowledge as well as practical implications.
Chapter Eight

Discussion

“I am convinced that the road to a transcendent education begins inside each of us - for the learning is not just about pedagogy and course content, but about the integrity of the teacher…and as Gandhi observed, “be the change we want to see in the world.” We must live and teach the standards of a different worldview…It is time to stop teaching students that the only legitimate strategy rests in senselessly hoarding goods while trying to beat the clock…It is our moral duty to teach them that what really matters is not what you have when it is check-out time, but what you did as you walked down the aisles”.

— Giacalone (2004, p.419)
8.0 Discussion

This is the first study of its kind to examine the sustainability views of both marketing academics and students. Overall, this research sought to address an overarching objective, which was to:

*Investigate the opportunities and barriers towards the integration of sustainability within marketing academia*

In addressing this aim within the chosen context of marketing academia, this research explicitly addressed the following objectives:

1. To understand why and how sustainability is addressed within marketing academia by sustainability interested marketing academics
2. To investigate the institutional, theoretical and philosophical barriers and opportunities towards the integration of sustainability within marketing academia
3. To examine the interpretation and prevalence of a sustainability worldview in marketing academics and students

The following chapter will summarise the findings from Study One and Study Two in relation to the three research objectives. Specifically, this chapter will synthesise the findings from the two studies, reflecting on how the findings addressed the research objectives and provide reflections on the research contributions to the literature and its practical implications.

8.1 Why and how sustainability is addressed within marketing academia by sustainability interested marketing academics

8.1.1 Understanding the ‘why’

The first objective of this thesis was to understand why marketing academics integrate sustainability into their marketing research and courses, and to understand how these academics
Chapter Eight: Discussion

integrate the concepts of marketing and sustainability. Consequently, the research found linkages between participants’ formation of interest in sustainability, their interpretation of sustainability in marketing, and instrumentally, how sustainability was addressed in marketing curriculum. This formation, interpretation and implementation process is shown in Figure 8.1.

![Figure 8.1. Why and how sustainability is addressed](image)

Firstly, the formation of a sustainability worldview revealed various avenues by which academic participants gained a passion and appreciation for sustainability in their personal and professional lives. These avenues included: upbringing, including parents and friends; education, including presentations, books and writing theses; and work. Most relevant for institutional and faculty change is the latter two; education and work. Participants revealed that experiences in education, whether through presentations, courses, conducting PhD research or reading books, opened their eyes to the importance of sustainability. In addition, those who experienced through research, teaching or service the importance for sustainability, show how experience in working with or researching sustainability companies, or even being required to teach sustainability, can change an individual’s perspective about sustainability. Much research has discussed the nature of academic freedom in higher education (Abdel Latif, 2014; Bolden,
Gosling, & O’Brien, 2014; Harley, 2002; Harley & Lee, 1997). However, research has also suggested that engaging in curriculum reform and innovation may result in faculty, as well as student, learning (Barber et al., 2014; Dobers et al., 2008).

Study One found three key areas which affected participants’ sustainability interest, namely upbringing, education and work. These findings extend previous research beyond sustainability managers in firms (Allen, Marshall, & Easterby-Smith, 2015; Mitra & Buzzanell, 2017; Wright & Nyberg, 2012; Wright, Nyberg, & Grant, 2012) towards academics in universities. The avenues, examples and implications of these sustainability interest or worldview formations can be seen in Table 8.1. The findings of Study One provide evidence to support the ability for education to bring about a worldview change, specifically through examining and questioning our own worldviews (Sterling, 2011; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008), as well as experiencing projects which involve hands-on learning (Bascoul et al., 2013; Radford et al., 2015; Seider et al., 2011).

Table 8.1 Sustainability interest/worldview formation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sustainability Interest</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Implications</th>
<th>Found in previous studies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Upbringing</td>
<td>Parents, family and friends</td>
<td>Socialisation processes</td>
<td>Farish (2010); Barlett (2008); Rimanoczy (2014); Schein (2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Presentations, tertiary education, literature works</td>
<td>Transformation education and learning</td>
<td>Barlett (2008); Schein (2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>Projects, Teaching sustainability</td>
<td>Community-service learning, experiential learning and volunteering</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Participants “cared deeply” about sustainability and sustainable education (Barber et al., 2014), which demonstrates that EfS, as well as sustainability research, is heavily dependent on faculty themselves, their interpretation of sustainability, and their passion to incorporate sustainability (Barber et al., 2014; Boyle, 2015; Cotton et al., 2009; von der Heidt et al., 2012). However, while sustainability interest in marketing faculty had a profound effect on their actions in their own personal lives, their interest was somewhat restricted in their professional life. Participants struggled professionally in their own eyes by choosing to research sustainability and felt that their integration of sustainability in marketing education was rarely valued. In addition, they felt their capacity to affect institutional change was limited. Indeed, as mentioned by Murillo and Vallentin (2016, p. 749) “the capacity of scholars, particularly young scholars, to challenge the system comes at the expense of their careers”.

Reflecting on the avenues for marketing academics interested in sustainability being change agents, institutional entrepreneurs, or academic activists, many participants suggested that there was a key need for such individuals to make institutional changes. Indeed, little opportunity for change without such change agents was seen for sustainability education (Lozano, 2006; Wood et al., 2016) and research. However, like the institutional entrepreneurship literature suggests, these individual change agents had a lack of power (Leblebici, Salancik, Copay, & King, 1991). Nonetheless, actions which could be undertaken without much or any resistance included the integration of sustainability in existing courses or even the creation of new courses. Yet, these initiatives were not valued in the promotion process as much as research projects and publications. Indeed, research has shown that extending change through policy and curriculum reform for sustainability education is much more difficult (Down, 2006).

Further, because of the power relations and issues surrounding fundamental principles of publications (i.e. concern that no one reads their work) (Hambrick, 1993), participants held much more positive views of their role as educators for sustainability rather than as sustainability
researchers. As such, most participants expressed very personal appeals about why they taught and researched sustainability. While most academics in Christie et al.’s (2015) study found that sustainability was included in teachings because of instrumental reasons, the participants here integrated sustainability for profoundly personal reasons, hoping to build students character, awareness and worldviews. This passion and sustainability interpretation resulted in many different ways that marketing and sustainability were integrated.

8.1.2 Understanding the ‘how’: Theory

The interpretation of sustainability within marketing differed amongst academics in Study One and revealed various reflections, and thus avenues, about how marketing theory can integrate sustainability. In addition, the reasons for engaging with sustainability, both as a concept in society and marketing, was different amongst participants, with some referring to sustainability knowledge as providing new ways to ‘do’ business, while other academics saw sustainability education in marketing as a personal and societal need (Gao & Bansal, 2013; Hahn et al., 2014). This reflection provides similar distinction between participants who advocated a need for EfS for student and societal development, while some referred to sustainability knowledge as offering students a competitive advantage in the workforce (Clarke et al., 2006).

Further, sustainability was integrated within marketing in several different ways, from more practical or strategic roles, to more philosophical and ideological issues. All but one participant acknowledged marketing’s negative role in consumer culture and perpetuating environmental problems (Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012; Varey, 2011). However, in their eyes, there was a positive role marketing could play in addressing environmental and social problems.

The differing interpretations of sustainability in marketing can be understood by recognising the differences in how individuals deal with competing institutional logics.
Marketing, like all business studies, predominantly follows a market logic, or DSP, that focuses on generating profit (Schneider, 2015). However, with emerging and pressing environmental, social and economic issues affecting individuals, organisations and society, a new competing logic of the sustainability logic has emerged (Kok, de Bakker, & Groenewegen, 2017). Table 8.2 shows the competing logics of the market and sustainability.

How organisations and individuals deal with these competing logics differs greatly and may depend on several contextual factors (Herremans et al., 2009). For example, the biggest criticism of current sustainability practices in firms is that the logic of sustainability has been comfortably merged into the market logic to prioritise economic goals, suggesting that sustainability problems open up new markets to exploit and can gain firms a competitive advantage (Hahn, Pinkse, Preuss, & Figge, 2015). Consequently, these competing logics allow various interpretations of the sustainable marketing logic to appear, some which prioritise consumer demand, cradle-to-cradle design, influencing consumers to change their behaviours and others which reflect on the institutions of society which inhibit sustainable consumption and marketing.

Table 8.2 The market and sustainable logic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Market logic</th>
<th>Sustainable logic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic system</td>
<td>Market capitalism</td>
<td>Sustainable capitalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sources of identity</td>
<td>Marketer as profit maximisation</td>
<td>Marketer as contributing to positively to society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sources of legitimacy</td>
<td>Profit maximisation</td>
<td>Contributing to society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basis of mission</td>
<td>Profit maximisation</td>
<td>Contributing to society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basis of attention</td>
<td>Create value for consumers</td>
<td>Create value for consumers and society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basis of strategy</td>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>Cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basis of time</td>
<td>Short-term (immediate sales)</td>
<td>Long-term effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of education</td>
<td>Work ready professionals</td>
<td>Create global citizens, critical thinkers and emancipated students</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inspiration drawn from Thornton & Ocasio (1999)

Reflecting on the interview participants viewpoints, as well as on the work of Gordon et al. (2011) and Belz (2005), I offer three ‘levels’ of sustainability marketing, as can be seen in
Table 8.3. The first ‘level’ of sustainability marketing, Sustainable mix marketing, in this research includes integrating sustainability throughout the whole marketing mix and takes a systems approach, incorporating environmental (sustainable, recyclable design), social (living wage) and economic issues (pricing to internalise social and environmental costs) into the marketing mix (Peattie, 2001). A closed-loop circular system, or more specifically a cradle-to-cradle approach (Braungart et al., 2007; McDonough & Braungart, 2002) were especially favoured amongst the participants. Here, the market logic remains dominant, as business and marketing practice are changed, but the objective of profit maximisation remains.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Reflective sustainable marketing</th>
<th>Sustainable lifestyle marketing</th>
<th>Sustainable mix marketing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New values, reflecting on needs versus wants, and consuming within ecological and social limits/bounds</td>
<td>Current consumption levels are seen as unsustainable</td>
<td>Cradle-to-cradle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing is seen as the spokesperson for the DSP</td>
<td>Marketing’s role to promote sustainable consumption</td>
<td>Socio-ecological product life cycle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need to change paradigms</td>
<td>Recognise consumers as leaders for change</td>
<td>Resource loops for recovering materials</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need to acknowledge, question and change key aspects of the DSP, specifically consumerism, a need for a new business model and ideas of growth</td>
<td>‘Sell’ sustainability as a concept</td>
<td>Firms and products sustainability promotion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Full cost accounting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dominant logic</th>
<th>Sustainable logic</th>
<th>Mixture of sustainable and market logic</th>
<th>Market logic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

The second ‘level’, sustainable lifestyle marketing, includes the need to include the 4Ps but also acknowledges that current consumption levels are unsustainable, usually by reflecting on either inequity between developed and developing nations or the earth’s limited resources (Achrol & Kotler, 2012). Consequently, sustainability marketing is seen to be responsible for promoting
sustainable lifestyles (Finney, 2014; Gordon et al., 2011; Martin & Schouten, 2014) and to demarket certain harmful or undesirable products/services (Achrol & Kotler, 2012; Bridges & Wilhelm, 2008; Kotler, 2011; Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012). Marketing is acknowledged to promote consumption and as it stands, is the antithesis to sustainability (Ferdous, 2010; Martin & Schouten, 2014; van Dam & Apeldoorn, 1996). In this level, both the market and sustainability logic are integrated, wherein established marketing practices are used to convince consumers to switch products and lifestyles.

The third ‘level’, Reflective sustainable marketing understands the barriers consumers face with sustainable consumption; such as our persuasive consumption ideology, institutional barriers, and social norms (Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012). Thus, sustainability marketing views responsibility lying with both the firms and the consumer (Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012). Marketing and its basis on neo-classical economics and roots in capitalism are seen as key perpetrators of social, economic and environmental problems. Consequently, sustainability marketing acknowledges the weaknesses of the current economic system and challenges us to question our preconceived notions of the ‘good’ of capitalism and neo-liberal economics, and its associated assumptions and ideology (Varey, 2011).

In addition, planetary boundaries are acknowledged and the current way of viewing people and nature (as anthropocentric) is seen as a key issue in our battle with sustainability (Borland & Lindgreen, 2013; Martin & Schouten, 2014; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). Consequently, there is a need for a change in the marketing paradigm (Achrol & Kotler, 2012; Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012). In addition, some participants addressed sustainability more broadly by creating a more responsible marketing discipline, specifically through new values, reflecting on needs versus wants, and consuming within ecological and social limits/bounds (Varey, 2011).
In a critical light, this new sustainable marketing paradigm seeks to acknowledge, question and change key aspects of the DSP and come up with new business models, and ideas of growth and progress (Belz, 2005; Gordon et al., 2011). As such, in this last level, sustainability logic has gained dominance of the market logic, wherein key assumptions of the market logic are examined (i.e. capitalism), and sustainability logic takes greater prominence by redirecting the organisational goal of profit maximisation towards envisioning a new role and goal of the organisation.

Possibly the more one draws on the dominant institutional logic the more likely discursive action is taken, while when one draws on the new sustainable logic the more likely more practical action is taken (Bertels & Lawrence, 2016). There may possibly be a pattern emerging amongst sustainability focused marketing academic participants. A split is emerging between those participants seeing sustainability changing the more practical and tangible elements of marketing, such as the marketing mix (especially product design), and those who see sustainability addressing the fundamentals and philosophy of marketing, such as addressing consumerism and the DSP. The former perspective features predominately in North America and Europe and by those who teach a societal or sustainability course, while the latter is dominated by those in Australasia and by those who do not teach a sustainability marketing course. Therefore, as a result of such emerging differences in perspective, academics may find it increasingly difficult to communicate more critical marketing dimensions in class.

Furthermore, using the suggestions for the meaning of sustainability in Study One, Study Two asked marketing faculty and students to indicate how much they agreed that these concepts, discussed by interview participants, should be addressed by sustainability in marketing. The survey found that marketing faculty and students thought sustainability marketing included changing consumer attitudes (91.4%) and behaviours (90.5%), understanding the needs of green consumers (87.9%), monitoring the ethics and sustainability of supply chain members (84.9%),
cradle-to-cradle design (84.4%), marketing green products (84.4%), and to a much lesser extent, to demarketing (49.4%).

Consequently, more marketing faculty and students felt that sustainability marketing should focus on social marketing for sustainable consumption behaviour and attitudes, rather than a green or cradle-to-cradle product focus, but overwhelmingly, students and faculty believed addressing sustainability was part of a marketers’ job. However, a preference for social marketing may be hard to conduct in reality if business-as-usual occurs, since social marketers have argued they are competing with marketers from large corporations who have much more resources at their disposal (Brennan & Binney, 2008). In addition, while the option to demarket products was the least desirable of all options, Peattie and Peattie (2009) have likened social marketing for consumption reduction to demarketing, especially to demarket unsustainable behaviour.

While the interpretation of sustainability marketing occurred both in theory and how participants taught sustainability in class, the latter situation also provided several different pedagogical approaches. The interpretation of sustainability by educators, as well as other associated concepts such as ethics, are crucial towards the way in which these topics are taught at the undergraduate and postgraduate level (Reid & Petocz, 2006). Specifically, this research adds to the literature about preferred approaches to sustainability education differing between disciplines (Reid & Petocz, 2006; Wood et al., 2016) and the differences between espoused EfS pedagogy approaches (in the literature) and actual practices (Christie et al., 2013)

8.1.3 Understanding the ‘how’: Pedagogy and change agent actions

While participants all differed on their interpretation of sustainability in marketing education, there was a very common usage of critical and transformational learning regardless of sustainability marketing interpretation. Such learning is acutely suited to the tension between business/marketing and sustainability worldviews (Sterling, 2007). For example, Stubbs and
Cocklin (2008) advocated teaching business students about differing worldviews, as this approach broadens the students’ perspectives on sustainability and “engaging them at the personal level” (p.216). The purpose of transformation education is to reflect on how we see the world; reflecting on our worldviews to understand its assumptions and limitations to (sustainability) causes and solutions (Sterling, 2011).

The challenge of implementing forms of pedagogy that match the complex nature of sustainability is a barrier to EfS (Wood et al., 2016). Evident in the findings is that most participants were informed by a liberal ideology or intrinsic beliefs. Most participants saw education as opening and expanding students understanding of the world, focusing on ‘education for life’ rather than for the ‘job’ (Clarke et al., 2006). Overall, EfS in marketing is perceived to be the process of learning ‘how’ to think rather than ‘what’ to think (Thomas, 2009). Critical thinking, transformative learning and community service-learning were seen as key pedagogy to sustainability marketing education. These suggestions are in line with similar suggestions for macromarketing education (e.g. Kilbourne & Carlson, 2008; Radford et al., 2015) and are informative to the domain of marketing education, providing feedback on the experiences of academics and real suggestions for the EfS agenda in marketing. Specifically, Table 8.4 displays how sustainability marketing theory may be applied in marketing education utilising interview findings and the literature.

Participants had no difficulty incorporating sustainability within their existing courses or creating their own sustainability marketing courses. Participants had the freedom to create or edit courses as they wished, as it was left up to them to decide what they taught. As such, interest in sustainability was seen very much as a personal agenda that translated into the workplace. Rusinko (2010) offered numerous ways sustainability education can be integrated within the business discipline. In this research, integration within existing courses was the most common
and preferred approach and, while sustainability marketing courses were also created, these were usually very reliant on one faculty member making them very vulnerable to elimination.

Table 8.4 Sustainable marketing education overview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Why?</th>
<th>Sustainable mix marketing</th>
<th>Sustainable lifestyle marketing</th>
<th>Reflective sustainable marketing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Integrate sustainability principles into core marketing practices.</td>
<td>Understand marketing’s role in unsustainability and social marketing’s ability to contribute to sustainable lifestyles.</td>
<td>Critically reflect on marketing and business assumptions, especially in relation to sustainability. Explore the (informal and formal) institutions that inhibit a shift towards a sustainable society and the ability for marketing to contribute to such (un)sustainability.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|       | Social marketing, ecological footprint, education for sustainability, global warming, natural capital |
|       | Macromarketing, social entrepreneurship, social justice, |

| Where? | Integrated: Introductory marketing course. | Integrated: Introductory marketing or consumer behaviour course. | Integrated: In all marketing courses (through discussions and topics). |
|        | Separate: Separate sustainability marketing course. | Separate: Sustainability marketing or social marketing course. | Separate: Sustainability marketing or social/sustainable business course. |


Furthermore, such diversion into another course was sometimes criticised by participants as it fuelled the idea that sustainability is merely an ‘add-on’ (Sharma & Hart, 2014), reminiscent of
similar observations made by sustainable tourism academics (Boyle, 2015). Research suggests that creating a stand-alone course requires more resources, and faculty and management commitment (Rusinko, 2010); in this case, the “best” solution (integration) might also be the easiest solution. However, it is through the creation of new courses, through curricular level change (Setó-Pamies & Papaoikonomou, 2015), and other avenues for academic activism, such as dialogue with students and colleagues about sustainability, that participants become, or could become, change agents or institutional entrepreneurs.

To be classified as institutional entrepreneurs, actors must not follow existing rules and practices associated with the dominant institutional logic(s) and also work to institutionalise the new rules, practices or logics (Garud et al., 2007). It is only through new or adjusted cognitive frames, that new practices can be justified and valid, and thus institutionalised (Garud et al., 2007; Seo & Creed, 2002). When a new cognitive frame is advised it can help mobilise other institutional actors, such as other faculty members or heads of departments, and thus generate the collective and powerful actions necessary to secure support for and acceptance of institutional change (Seo & Creed, 2002; Wijen & Ansari, 2007). Indeed, previous research has shown this can bring together various actors across space and status (Lounsbury & Crumley, 2007), such as actors in an academic community.

A role for faculty is to create projects and collaborate with other academics and organisations with shared values. The creation of outside partnerships and internal coalitions by sustainability champions shows the ability of these individuals to work across organisations and harness similar values (Barber et al., 2014; Reay & Hinings, 2009). Indeed, some participants specifically worked alongside sustainable businesses, and harnessed their relationship in the classroom, or at a minimum utilised green business case studies in class. Such industry engagement is highly valued by business schools and universities, and may have a high degree of perceived impact, as research and engagement with industry (Perkmann et al., 2013) is active
rather than passive; this situation may be classified as a ‘Win-Win’ situation. Furthermore, certain practices are more readily available to change agents because they require few resources (i.e. use of jargon) (Berman, 2012). Consequently, reflecting on the practices available to change agents in academic institutes, Figure 8.2 was created to offer the differing types of practices available dependent on the degree of recognition (promotion, incentive etc.) and the degree of perceived positive impact on society.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of Recognition</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>Status Building</td>
<td>Win-Win</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Slim Pickings</td>
<td>Personal Rewards</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8.2 Academic actions

The degree of recognition is strongly tied to institutional structure, as formal (i.e. prizes, grants, promotion), as well as informal (i.e. praise, colleague recognition and support) rewards are linked to current processes and values present in business schools. For example, research is measured as a success and thus recognised when it may be linked to ‘hot’, ‘relevant’ or valued topics to marketing (i.e. Marketing Science institute research priorities), published in top ranked marketing journals (i.e. based on scholarly ranking lists), and has a high number of citations. In contrast, usually bad or mediocre teaching evaluations rarely have much impact on evaluation or promotion, or at the very least, are ‘less worse’ than a lack of publications (Cederstrom &
Many participants felt disadvantaged as sustainability researchers, with some reflecting on the marketing academy’s rejection and takeover of sustainability (Dobers & Springett, 2010; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014; Springett, 2003). Specifically, publishing was sometimes seen as harder in the sustainability marketing field. Additionally, when sustainability was addressed in research, most scholarship was doing so in a managerial manner (not ‘true’ sustainability as some participants pointed out) (Kilbourne et al., 1997; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). Participants in Study One also reflected on their role as researcher and educator, and felt most critical about their ability as a researcher to influence change (i.e. to be a change agent). Doubts about who read research was a concern amongst participants, who felt sceptical of their research, and others, to really affect real change in the theory of marketing and the academy. As such, sustainability research could be classified as ‘Status Building’, with a high degree of recognition (in promotion, tenure and hiring processes) but low perceived direct impact on improving societal conditions.

More positively, participants had no issues integrating sustainability within their marketing courses, or creating new sustainability marketing courses in most cases. Of course, neither is the academics ability to research sustainability topics. However, what separated research and teaching was the participants feeling of impacting change and personal satisfaction, which the latter seemed to achieve, and a lack of recognition for efforts in innovating the curriculum. This practice I would classify as ‘Personal Rewards’; while academics may feel they contribute positively to society, this comes with a lack of recognition from their employers. Participants were genuinely hopeful on their impact on students and saw this as a good way to have direct impact on industry practices but also on society by educating and empowering citizens. This reflection in the research provides some counterviews on the academic profession, with much previous research showing the disinterest in teaching portrayed by many academics.
(Badley, 2002; Cederstrom & Hoedemaekers, 2012; Harley, 2002).

Furthermore, reflections about *why* and *how* sustainability marketing academics engaged with marketing research and education, demonstrates that there are various avenues and reasons why possible change agents act in certain ways. Consequently, this suggests that there may be patterns emerging (i.e. typology) which may help the reader to understand the role, identities and opportunities for change agents in universities.

### 8.1.4 Integrating the ‘why’ and ‘how’

Analysis reveals that participants who themselves had transformational experiences in education sought the same outcomes for their students as well as critical thinking, while those whose sustainability interests occurred during their upbringing preferred critical thinking and experiential learning. Consequently, based on the exploratory findings, specifically the differences between participant’s experiences and their recommendation for EfS, I create a typology of sustainability marketing educators as can be seen in Table 8.5. In reference to Wood et al.’s (2016) recommendation that future studies examine the preferred pedagogies of EfS academics and how these may follow disciplinary associations or personal identities, this typology sheds light on the personal identities, or more specifically, how academics became interested in sustainability, which may be related to preferred pedagogies for EfS.

The sustainability “transformer” wishes to engage in transformational learning, which may be through critical thinking or through discussing differing sustainability worldviews, which might arguably be their preference as they themselves had transformational experiences. The sustainability “thinker” wants to encourage critical thinking, especially to bring about the assumptions and contradictions of differing worldviews in regard to marketing and sustainability. These academics have usually experienced an appreciation for sustainability from their upbringing or relate sustainability passion and interest as part of their key personality. Lastly, the
sustainability “actioner” is also usually an individual which has experienced an appreciation for sustainability from their upbringing or is part of their personality; they wish to get students to interact with their community and hope ‘learning by doing’ will provide an appreciation for sustainability.

Table 8.5 Sustainability educator topology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The sustainability “transformer”</td>
<td>Sustainability educator for student transformation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Usually advocated by those who have experienced their own transformation experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sustainability “thinker”</td>
<td>Sustainability educator who encourages critical thinking and a questioning attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Usually advocated by those who have attributed their interest in sustainability from their upbringing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sustainability “actioner”</td>
<td>Sustainability educator who believes getting students involved in the community and sustainability projects will help incite change in individuals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This typology adds to Wood et al.’s (2016) work, who implored further exploration into their classification of the three identified identities of sustainability champions in higher education. Specifically, they wished to see whether their categories could be confirmed, expanded and/or critiqued. This research demonstrates that the presence of “nurturers” and “strugglers” are present in other sustainability champions. Participants in Study One were “strugglers” wishing to be an educator for transformative change and experienced power and (mis)interpretation issues within their institutions and the academy. In addition, most were also “nurturers” as participants’ wanted students to engage in critical thinking, and increase knowledge in sustainability and social action in the student and academic body. However, the “saviour” did not seem to be exhibited in this research, but this identity may be further expanded to include those who see the purpose of EfS as beneficial to individuals and companies rather than personal development, exhibiting a more positivistic or instrumental reasoning for EfS.
While Wood et al. (2016) explored pedagogical strategies only, the linkages found in Study One between strategies and sustainability interest/background demonstrates that pedagogical approaches to EfS may not be as discipline specific as theorised (Reid & Petocz, 2006) (Figure 8.3). Instead, the approaches may depend upon how academics own sustainability interest was formed, and academics interpretation about what EfS is for (i.e. personal development, professional development, societal impact or business relevance). Additionally, while Wood et al. (2016) created quite distinct categories (i.e. academics falling into only one identity), relating “nurturers” and “strugglers” to Study One may demonstrate that such a classification is too simplistic. Specifically, academics may exhibit more than one identity or display elements of all identities (Bristow et al., 2017) as was suggested by Visser and Crane (2010) in their sustainability managers typology. Academics may also respond to institutional barriers in different ways.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wood et al. (2016) Typology</th>
<th>Research Typology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sustainability Saviours</strong></td>
<td>The sustainability “transformer”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metaphors of solving or resolving sustainability issues</td>
<td>Sustainability educator for student transformation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sustainability Nurturers</strong></td>
<td>The sustainability “thinker”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metaphors of nurturing, growth, creativity and building empathetic relationships</td>
<td>Sustainability educator who encourages critical thinking and a questioning attitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sustainability Struggler</strong></td>
<td>The sustainability “actioner”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metaphors of struggle, despair and contradictory identities</td>
<td>Sustainability educator who believes getting students involved in the community and sustainability projects will help incite change in individuals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8.3 Combined Wood et al. (2016) and research typology
8.2 The institutional barriers and opportunities towards the integration of sustainability within marketing academia

8.2.1 Examining the barriers

The second objective of this thesis set to examine the barriers experienced by sustainability marketing academics when trying to integrate sustainability within their marketing research and teaching. To do so, participants were asked about their experience in publishing in journals and teaching sustainability in their marketing courses, probing for barriers which may have occurred due to theoretical, philosophical or institutional reasons.

No research has examined the institutional barriers perceived by marketing academics trying into integrate sustainability into marketing academia. While previous research has focused on the university and business school integration of EfS (e.g. Beusch, 2014; Doherty et al., 2015; Doh & Tashman, 2014), very few studies extend to the integration of sustainability within academic research (Huge et al., 2016; Waas et al., 2010). Further, while many higher education studies have reflected on institutional barriers towards EfS, very few studies, to the best of my knowledge, have utilised an institutional lens to understand why and how change does or does not come about (with the exception of Barber et al., 2014; de Lange, 2013; Doherty et al., 2015). The following discussion of the interview findings in Study One also highlight and reflect on the range of “bottom-up” and “top-down” approaches towards sustainability integration in marketing academia.

Study One specifically sought to understand the various barriers which may prevent the successful integration of sustainability within marketing academia, while Study Two examined the mindsets of marketing faculty and students. Study Two investigated the possible impediment presented by student and faculty mindsets which Study One, as well as previous research (e.g. Doh & Tashman, 2014; Wilson & von der Heidt, 2013) has identified as key barriers. In doing
so, the study also addressed the arguments made by Springett (2005, 2010), Varey (2011), Painter-Morland (2015) and others who stipulate that the philosophical and theoretical, ontological and epistemological, assumptions in business and marketing present a key barrier towards the ability to integrate sustainability within marketing courses and theory. In other words, the institutional logics of the market and sustainability offer different realities, assumptions and objectives of the world and business, which may make these two logics incompatible (Besharov & Smith, 2014). Study Two also further reflected on the possibility of DSP beliefs present in marketing faculty and student worldviews.

Study One’s interview findings indicate that the most powerful barriers towards the integration of sustainability and marketing are institutional and philosophical. These barriers can be seen in Figure 8.4, categorising the barriers identified into internal, external, specific institutional (i.e. university, business school) and philosophical. These barriers are in accordance with the literature surrounding EfS (e.g. Beusch, 2014; Doherty et al., 2015), however this research goes further by specifically focusing on the marketing discipline and by including barriers towards research, and thus publication and theory.

![Figure 8.4 Institutional barriers](image-url)

Figure 8.4 Institutional barriers
Study One found several barriers which specifically related to internal, institution, external, and philosophical. Internal barriers were the lack of knowledge, inertia and feeling of both isolation from colleagues and dependency on sustainability courses in their institute. Institution barriers refer to the importance of deans and higher management, while external barriers refer to pressure from industry and students, and acceptance from the marketing academy (i.e. editors, reviewers, journals). Lastly, the philosophical barrier, the DSP, filtered through the internal, institutions and external barriers.

This study’s findings suggest that a large barrier persists in the marketing academic community with a preference for the status quo and a perceived ignorance or apathy towards social and environmental problems. Overall, participants agree with McDonagh and Prothero’s (2014) statement that sustainability is still seen by many in the marketing academy as an ‘non-pressing issue’. While participants perceived a progressive change and acceptance of sustainability topics within marketing academia, some felt it was a slow process that had yet to enter mainstream marketing. A common perceived barrier to integrating sustainability in marketing was inertia and lack of knowledge, with faculty preferring to stick with what they know. Previous research has found that apathy and inertia is a barrier to EfS (Naeem & Neal, 2012), and that there is a gap in knowledge for EfS in business studies, meaning that such subjects are taught by bringing in staff from other departments (Doherty et al., 2015). This lack of knowledge may also explain why participants felt sustainability was merely an ‘add-on’ in marketing research, and even when it was included, it was not considered ‘true’ sustainability (i.e. usually referring to green marketing, green washing). Instead, research usually involved instrumental logic about how business could benefit from social and environmental problems (Gao & Bansal, 2013).

Rasche and Gilbert (2015, p. 242) argue that the formal structure of organisations supporting sustainability, such as policies, programmes, and procedures (i.e. curriculum change,
faculty training, faculty committees), and the language that is used “to describe these structures have a largely symbolic function”, especially in business schools. Specifically, this can be seen through: (a) not redesigning their curriculum substantially, (b) not embedding sustainability into actual classroom practices, and (c) a lack of embeddedness in organisational culture (Rasche & Gilbert, 2015). Similarly, Study One demonstrates that marketing faculty believe that sustainability has yet to truly be integrated in marketing curriculum and classroom practices, beyond mere formal course objectives, and feel that the culture of the marketing department fails to see sustainability as important to the discipline resulting in a lack of support for research and teaching in this area.

This lack of knowledge, support, and inertia, resulted in many participants feeling dependent upon creating and integrating sustainability into their own courses. Similar feelings were shared with connection with department colleagues with sometimes tensions arising about sustainability issues and importance, or at best, an understanding about sustainability, but no significant level of support offered (i.e. availability of co-author, helpful discussions). As such, change agents are often isolated and vulnerable to university restructuring (Lozano, 2006; Wood et al., 2016). Doherty et al. (2015) also found that in four of the six case studies on business schools, faculty had an adverse reaction to RME, as well as Doh and Tashman (2014) who found that faculty mindsets were a barrier towards EfS. As such, individuals, not university policy, drive the integration of EfS (Barber et al., 2014; Cotton et al., 2007; von der Heidt et al., 2012) as well as research projects, policy and initiatives.

These internal struggles are key characteristics of institutional inertia embodying stability and predictability (Rosenschöld, Rozema, & Frye-Levine, 2014). It is the norms, practices and routines that result in path dependent behaviour, and which make it very difficult to change and see the need for change when alterations in the environment arise. Huff, Huff, and Thomas (1992, p. 55) describe inertia as an “overarching concept that encompasses personal
commitments, financial investments and institutional mechanisms supporting the current ways of doing things…the tendency to remain with the status quo and the resistance to strategic renewal outside the frame of current strategy”. Utilising this definition, Liao, Fei, and Liu (2008) suggest that mental inertia is linked to an organisations difficulties to change cognitive structures, specifically perceptions and interpretations of new trends for example (i.e. sustainability), resulting in a lack of innovation. In the marketing academy, the cognitive frame used to understand and interpret sustainability potentially limits the conceptualisation of sustainability marketing to being seen as an ‘add-on’ and needing a ‘business case’ for sustainability (Allen, Cunliffe, & Easterby-Smith, 2017; Gao & Bansal, 2013; Hahn, Preuss, Pinkse, & Figge, 2014; Sharma & Jaiswal, 2017).

Other institutional aspects which offer legitimacy to the business school, such as the school mission and accreditation bodies, have been found to be key pressures in previous research for the integration of sustainability within business schools (Butt et al., 2013; Doherty et al., 2015). Thus, both school mission and accreditation bodies may provide the backbone for integrating sustainability within marketing. Indeed, Scott (2014) stated that accreditation standards are one of the key aspects of the normative environment. Accreditation bodies such as EQUIS and AACSB have the ability to provide coercive pressures on the business school (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Doherty et al., 2015; Warin & Beddewela, 2016). For example, EQUIS accreditation guidelines have an entire chapter devoted to sustainability and responsible management education (Rasche & Gilbert, 2015).

Nevertheless, accreditation bodies were hardly mentioned as a source for pressure (either negatively or positively for sustainability) by participants, as has been suggested by previous research (e.g. Doherty et al., 2015; Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Swanson, 2005). Similarly, only one participants discussed the effects of advisory boards, which are occupied by business people knowledgeable about industry and provide strategic leadership (Clegg, Jarvis, & Pitsis,
2013). Other agencies, such as PRME, also provide mimetic pressure, for example as prestigious schools like INSEAD were among the first signatories of PRME, helping to legitimise the sustainability agenda (Rasche & Gilbert, 2015). However, reinforcing the interview findings, research has also found that accreditation schemes and the incorporation of RME initiatives at other business schools were the least important drivers to integrating CSR in MBA programs (Moratis, 2016). Moreover, it is influential individuals which create organisational change through leveraging accreditation, not accreditation alone which may influence organisational change (Stuart, Carole, & John, 2014).

The (non-)support of the college dean provides necessary leadership for change. Previous research has also shown the need for strong leadership to support and implement strategies for EfS (Barber et al., 2014; McNamara, 2010; Wright & Horst, 2013). Without such explicit institutional support participants felt vulnerable to elimination of their sustainability marketing course. Indeed, while institutional entrepreneurship literature suggests that institutional change is possible, as actors have the resources and power to change (Dacin et al., 2002), others have questioned the ability for change when institutional entrepreneurs are usually those who lack power and are on the periphery (Leblebici et al., 1991). This lack of power seems to be the case for most sustainability marketing academics.

Outside the academic community, the business community was seen by most participants as not demanding sustainability literate students, and many saw this lack of pressure for sustainability on the business school as a key barrier to sustainability marketing education. For industry pressure, previous research has suggested that knowledge which contributes to ecological, cultural and human-centred issues are resisted by industry as this knowledge is irrelevant or inhibitive to the growth agenda (Manteaw, 2008). However, participants had differing opinions about the relationship between and knowledge of industry and academia; some participants felt industry was ahead in sustainability practices compared to academia, and
thus we need to learn from practice, while others were convinced that academia was ahead in sustainability theorising and therefore it is the academy’s job to inform (with academic research) practice. While, there was no particularly coherent pattern in participants viewpoints, this divergence could be explained by the level of involvement with the industry itself (i.e. more involvement the greater the perception of business involvement in sustainability), and may also depend on the exposure to sustainable and non-sustainable business.

Conversely, a few participants did identify industry as a key pressure on the business school for sustainability literate students. Previous literature also sees industry as creating external normative pressure to change the ideological orientation of business school curricula (Doherty et al., 2015). In fact, business curriculum is often modified to fit the perceived demands of the market (Murillo & Vallentin, 2016; Wedlin, 2011), such as the current demand for education on social media marketing and big data. However, a large number of Fortune 500 corporations are assigning sustainability management positions (Bridges & Wilhelm, 2008), which may suggest a trend towards sustainability practices. Though, sustainability managers in corporations are finding their identity and position fraught with tension between the market and sustainable logics (Carollo & Guerci, 2017; Wright & Nyberg, 2012; Wright et al., 2012).

Participants also had mixed perspectives of student demand for sustainability education, with some seeing positive feedback and commitment to sustainability as well as those who saw students as inhibiting EfS with a lack of interest and knowledge. Previous research has shown that students have the ability and power to promote course development (Christensen et al., 2007; Warin & Beddewela, 2016), however mixed perceptions about student acceptance of EfS in business studies exists (Doh & Tashman, 2014). Such differences in general student environmental values and sustainability beliefs are not consistently different between studies, but some studies have shown differences within their own studies, such as regional (e.g. Kilbourne et
al., 2002), discipline (e.g. Shephard et al., 2014, 2009) and gender (e.g. Shephard et al., 2009; Zelezny et al., 2000) differences.

The DSP affected the mindsets and prevented colleagues, students, colleges and industry from seeing the importance or real meaning of sustainability. The DSP influencing the importance of economic growth, laissez-faire economics, domination over nature, individual property rights, and faith in technology to solve problems, and the unimportance of sustainability and environmental concern (Dunlap & Van Liere, 1984; Kilbourne & Polonsky, 2005). Thus, marketing faculty did not have the knowledge or the wish to change (i.e. to gain knowledge or change research focus), and prevented them from believing in the importance of sustainability marketing research. Previous research has found the same profit maximisation mindset or ideology through case studies or interviews in the business school (e.g. Doherty et al., 2015; Green, 2015; Toubiana, 2014).

The DSP also affected the external pressures, with industry seen as believing in the DSP and not seeing businesses obligation towards environmental and social issues as significant (Bowles, 2014). The same can be said for student mindsets (Kilbourne et al., 2001; Kilbourne & Polonsky, 2005). Consequently, this resulted in a lack of perceived demand for sustainability education and research. Lastly, there was a need for institutional support in advancing sustainability integration in marketing academia, however with the DSP ingrained in the college ethos and the deans themselves (as marketing faculty) and overall, not seeing the importance of sustainability, this was seen as a large institutional and powerful barrier towards sustainability integration (Giroux, 2002; Manteaw, 2008). In turn, “market mechanisms take prevalence, while social concern for the consequences of what we teach vanishes” (Murillo & Vallentin, 2016, p. 749).

Indeed, participants in Study One discussed further the very confronting nature of sustainability to more ‘mainstream’ or commercial marketing academics. Specifically, the
acknowledgement that marketing has contributed to current environmental and social issues may remain difficult for some academics. Acknowledging that consumerism, and marketing’s role in this (Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012; Varey, 2011), is a problem contributing to sustainability issues such as climate change is a contentious issue, one which has even sparked a response from Pope Francis, “to blame population growth instead of extreme and selective consumerism on the part of some, is one way of refusing to face the issues… since the planet could not even contain the waste products of such consumption” (Devitt, 2016). If indeed consumption is part of the problem, marketing must be the starting point for any examination into societal lifestyle change. However, this may mean that individuals go through ‘epistemic distress’, an epistemological identity crisis, making previous routines invalid and struggling to make sense of meaning, certainty and expectations (Hallett, 2010). As such, new or alternative cognitive frames (i.e. the sustainability marketing logic) must be envisioned and communicated.

Organisational culture is usually defined as shared beliefs, assumptions or preferences, providing cognitive frames from which to interpret the world and decide which objectives to pursue. Stein (1985) distinguishes three different levels of organisational culture: firstly, artefacts and symbols, are the most visible aspects of culture such as processes, secondly, espoused values, expresses the standards and values expected such as policies, and lastly, the assumptions which underlie all other levels, providing reasons for and against organisational (and individual) actions. Previous research has examined the relationship between organisational culture and characteristics of people (i.e. beliefs and preferences), and its implications (i.e. efficiency and effectiveness in the workplace, and agency) (Ellinas, Allan, & Johansson, 2017). In business schools, the underlying assumptions present in neo-liberal capitalist principles are embedded in the processes, policies and beliefs present in staff and students (Green, 2015; Doherty et al., 2015; Dyllick, 2015; Painter-Morland, 2015; Springett, 2010; Tilbury & Ryan, 2011; Toubiana, 2014).
Organisational culture has a large effect on individual values, beliefs and attitudes. As such, it is not unexpected that the ideology of business has filtered from corporate practice to business schools, and from business schools to faculty and students. As discussed previously in Chapter Two, the European model of business schools has a longer and more ingrained history with societal issues, while American business schools are usually more focused on shareholder wealth and profit maximisation, mostly due to its own history and influential founders/academics (Kaplan, 2014; Kieser, 2004). In addition, the philosophy and assumptions present in business school contribute to a culture based on neo-liberal capitalist principles (Painter-Morland, 2015; Springett, 2010; Toubiana, 2014; Varey, 2010), which have been shown to affect business student values and beliefs. Research has found that business students are more selfish and less concerned about others, and focused only on the short-term and personal enhancement; all of which contributes negatively to well-being (Grouzet, 2014; Krishnan, 2008; Marshall et al., 2010). However, only a few studies have focused on the beliefs of business faculty, with research finding the presence of a profit maximisation ideology which clashes with the philosophy of sustainability and ethics (Green, 2015; Toubiana, 2014). While it is not easy, organisational culture can be changed.

8.2.2 Examining the opportunities

Scholars have argued that business schools espouse a neo-classical economic worldview, adhering firmly to the market logic (Beusch, 2014; Petocz & Dixon, 2011; Springett, 2010; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008). This current “prevailing institutional logics [market logic] of higher education and business education appear to contrast quite deeply with the issues society faces” (Barber et al., 2014, p. 479), and thus any resistance to the status quo could have an impact on faculty career prospects and publications (Barber et al., 2014; Thompson & Purdy, 2009). By questioning and challenging the status quo, and being on the periphery, these sustainability academics may be involved in roles of active resistance, as change agents, academic activists or
institutional entrepreneurs (Barber et al., 2014; Toubiana, 2014). Consequently, academics may contribute to social or political change within the academy or within their own institution, through their “academic work, validating (particular forms of) activism in the name of their intellectual value” (Flood et al., 2013, p. 18).

More specifically, as discussed in the work by Seo and Creed (2002), participants are involved in praxis. Praxis, in the case of institutional actors, involves a critical understanding of the institutional arrangements and logics or social conditions in which their interests are unmet, actor mobilisation is inspired by their institutional understandings, and actors collective action to rearrange and reconstruct existing institutional arrangements or logics (Benson, 1977; Friedland & Alford, 1991; Seo & Creed, 2002).

Further, the likelihood of praxis, the awareness of issues as well as the willingness to mobilise action, increases when tensions arise from institutional contradictions (Benson, 1977; Seo & Creed, 2002). In this vein, institutional entrepreneurs are seen as exploiters of social contradictions (Seo & Creed, 2002) and utilise other institutional logics (i.e. sustainable logic) to initiate change (Friedland & Alford, 1991) in the dominant logic present in individuals, organisations and/or society. However, when it is the problem of competing logics that initiates institutional logic change, issues of power and legitimacy emerge as actors try to reconcile or change the dominant logic to suit their interests. This can be seen for example, with the emergence of green washing in the corporate context as the market and sustainable logic intertwine (Boyle, 2015; Springett, 2003).

Study One found that participants had no issues integrating sustainability in courses or creating new sustainability marketing courses, the biggest issue was creating wider curriculum reform, incentivising research in sustainability marketing and the lack of significance, importance and urgency for the need to integrate sustainability within marketing academia. This is where actions of resistance come heavily into play. Indeed, participants did struggle with DSP related
issues or the market logic, not so much in theory, but within making the argument to their colleagues and departments that sustainability was important, and even some participants saw this extended towards students’ mindsets. As such, participants felt that the neoliberal business philosophy dictates the purpose of business (profit maximisation) and constrains thinking about the urgency and need to address social and environmental issues (business-as-usual approach).

On the theoretical side, participants did not think the theory of marketing needed to change, instead participants saw a need for the replacement of the traditional marketing paradigm. Participants saw marketing as a set of amoral tools, which were currently having a negative effect on environmental and social conditions. For example, these tools could be used to promote sustainable products (Sustainable mix marketing) or lifestyles (Sustainable lifestyle marketing). However, in the most comprehensive sustainability marketing conceptualisation (Reflective sustainable marketing), marketing tools are not needed to change per se, instead marketing’s underlying objective and philosophy of profit maximisation must change.

Thus, as suggested by Seo and Creed (2002), participants in this study are adopting a frame(s) of sustainability that is sufficiently different (i.e. differing goals and objectives) but similar enough (i.e. marketing theory) to enable institutional change. Such selective adoption and deployment of institutional logics sets to legitimise and mobilise political action against the dominant market institutional logic (Seo & Creed, 2002). It is through adopting and adapting the frames where participants differ. For example, participants identified and discussed various ways to integrate sustainability within marketing theory (as can be seen in Table 8.3 previously). Indeed, when multiple logics are accessible, actors can choose how to adhere to a institutional logic (Voronov, Clercq, & Hinings, 2013). The characteristics of such “expert theorists” is well placed within academia, as this is where theoretical tensions are regularly played out, and where critiquing present social and organisational forms, frames and logics and searching for new possibilities and arrangements becomes critical (Benson, 1977; Seo & Creed, 2002).
Because of the dominance of the market logic, the DSP and institutional power in and outside the university, there were serious doubts about the ability, especially in a limited time frame, for marketing to truly integrate and take seriously sustainability issues. Most participants suggested that only major crises or catastrophe could trigger a substantial response from the academy (Beddoe et al., 2009; Kagawa, 2007; Wright & Horst, 2013). While participants could integrate sustainability topics into their courses, or even create new ones, this was not professionally rewarding and thus interest in sustainability was seen very much as a personal agenda that translated into the workplace.

Passion present in faculty was also applied to fighting for curriculum innovation and publishing in sustainability research, which required more time, effort and willingness to sacrifice (i.e. promotion). However, this tension has been shown in previous research to give Critical Management scholars their identity, and “instead can act as a source of critical, creative and passionate engagement with conflicting forces” (Bristow et al., 2017, p. 18). This passion for EfS can have ripple effects beyond those possibly originally intended by change agents. For example, working to create new courses or integrate within existing courses can bring together faculty from other colleges and create working relationships which could result in research collaborations (Barber et al., 2014), resulting in the mobilisation of individuals, where the sum of individuals power is greater than if they pursued action alone (Wijen & Ansari, 2007).

Neo-institutional theory has started to examine the internal dynamics of institutional change, emphasising that there are both internal and external pressures to the organisation (Greenwood & Hinings, 1996), or enabling conditions (characteristics of individuals and their environment) (Battilana, Leca, & Boxenbaum, 2009). While, accreditation bodies for example provides an exogenous dynamic for change, faculty praxis, interests, and power (or capacity) for research and teaching action are important endogenous dynamics (Stuart et al., 2014). As such, I theorise change can come from both the micro, within and through individuals and their actions,
the meso, from external agencies which can provide support and legitimacy such as accreditation bodies, and the macro, from formal governmental agencies and societal demands, for example the Quality Assurance Agency in the UK identifying EfS as a theme. As such, individuals can leverage the meso and macro environment to gather support (through power and legitimisation) for sustainability research and education. Indeed, previous research has discussed the need to create strategic alliances (Levy & Scully, 2007), specifically, “institutional entrepreneurs connect their change projects to the activities and interests of other actors in a field” (Maguire, Hardy, & Lawrence, 2004, p. 658). However, previous research has tended to focus on emerging fields rather than fields which are stabilised and where hegemonic issues may be at play (Leca, Battilana, & Boxenbaum, 2008). This process can be seen in Figure 8.5.

Exogenous dynamics can include both indirect pressures such as those from the socio-political environment (i.e. political and economic changes, demographic changes) (termed ‘field level conditions’ by Battilana et al., 2009) and more direct pressures influential to the organisation (i.e. agencies, policies which directly influence organisational behaviour). Direct dynamics can be both favourable and unfavourable, the former can be used to leverage support for institutional change by individuals and mobilised groups, while the latter is responded by more generally disruptive strategies as seen in the latter two tactics in Table 8.5. This is because such tactics can employed without much power or the leveraging of favourable institutional dynamics, but instead are a reaction to unfavourable conditions perceived by the individual and usually require personal sacrifice (i.e. promotion, tenure).
Much research has focused on the need for institutional entrepreneurs to develop discursive strategies (i.e. use of strategic framing, assigning blame for grievances, de-legitimating existing institutional arrangement), mobilise allies and leverage resources (funding, social capital, legitimacy, and formal authority) (Battilana et al., 2009; Leca et al., 2008; Levy & Scully, 2007; Seo & Creed, 2002). Institutional entrepreneurs need to be able to provide new cognitive frames to lead a vision for change (Seo & Creed, 2002), and create action and coordination with interested parties (i.e. interest convergence, and the creation of action orientated activities, such

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**Figure 8.5 Institutional change and the role of institutional entrepreneurship**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exogenous Dynamics</th>
<th>Endogenous Dynamics</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Indirect</strong></td>
<td><strong>Direct</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Landscape Dynamics</td>
<td>Favourable Institutional Dynamics</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Demographic changes</td>
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<td>• Economic conditions</td>
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<td>• Political landscape</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Accreditation bodies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• External funding directed towards social impact</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Alternative journal ranking systems</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Unfavourable Institutional Dynamics</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Dominant market logic</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Organisational culture</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Individuals</strong></td>
<td><strong>Mobilise</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Dissatisfaction</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Power dynamics and social position</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Events (Conference tracks)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Groups (Research projects and groups)</td>
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**Macro** — **Meso** — **Micro**

Institutional Change
as the creation of research centres, networks and conference events) (Battilana et al., 2009). As such, individuals need to be able to mobilise themselves through collective action when other individuals have experienced similar dissatisfaction.

Individuals are aiming for institutional change when they are dissatisfied with the status quo, but most importantly, power dynamics must be in place for the most effective actions to take place. In other words, institutional entrepreneurs must have a high social position (i.e. social capital), consisting of an individuals’ social network, their position within the social network (i.e. formal authority), and their ability to influence others (i.e. gain legitimacy through actions and values which are congruent with allies) (Battilana et al., 2009; Leca et al., 2008), or if they do not, they must be able to gain the support of those in high social positions.

As an extended example, three main areas for increased sustainability research and teaching may come from utilising and leveraging the popularity of journal rankings, external funding (Teelken, 2012) and accreditation agencies (Doherty et al., 2015). These are external institutional forces which can offer legitimacy to sustainability research and teaching (Alajoutsijarvi et al., 2015; Wilson & Thomas, 2012). Specifically, these can be leveraged by individuals in marketing departments to voice their support for sustainability integration. In turn, such actions may have spill over effects into organisational culture as has been shown through accreditation processes (Elliott & Goh, 2013), as well as contribute to power dynamics. For example, Stuart et al. (2014) found that the process of accreditation alone is not sufficient to change organisational culture, but that there is a need for dissatisfied individuals who have both the desire and power to affect change. The same can be seen for signatories of PRME, such initiatives can help facilitative change but only when these initiatives are leveraged by interested individuals, serving as a positive reinforcement for organisational change (Burchell, Kennedy, & Murray, 2014).
Only 2% of the articles which appear in the top marketing journals are related to sustainability topics (Purani et al., 2014). However, it is usually only the few prestige business schools which only rely or require publication in the ‘Top 5’. Faculty can utilise alternative means of ranking journals, such as the commonly used ABDC journal rankings in Australasia, which include high rankings for journals which have been more supportive towards sustainability research. These journals include *European Journal of Marketing (A*)*, *Journal of Macromarketing (A)*, *Journal of Marketing Management (A)*, *Journal of Business Research (A)*, *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing (A)* (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). Even when taking into a larger perspective about what sustainability research entails, research has suggested that the *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, which currently has the second highest impact factor in the marketing field, the *Journal of Business Ethics (A)* (Kumar et al., 2013) and the *Journal of Marketing (A*) (Leonidou & Leonidou, 2011) may also be included in that list. Furthermore, publishing outside business journals, and thus fall outside ranking systems which business schools rely on, can be argued in the promotion process through communicating the, often higher, impact factors of these journals.

With a shortage of public funding there has been increased demand for academics to gain external funding. This may include competitive governmental grants or other external sources. However, a lack of grants exists for marketing, as well other business studies. Governmental and external research funding are increasingly looking for more socially relevant and impact based research, as discussed by some of Study One’s participants. As such, projects which involve sustainability issues have become more lucrative. For example, National Health and Medical Research Council has targeted calls for research into health programs, which could include the use of social marketing for addressing sustainability issues.

Reflecting on the macro-level processes of change, such as the multi-level perspective of socio-technical transitions (e.g. Geels, 2004; Kemper & Ballantine, 2017; Smith, Stirling, &
Berkhout, 2005), it is only through the combined effort of micro (i.e. university hiring processes, sustainability research and education policies), meso (i.e. funding allocation models which take into sustainability research and teaching efforts) and macro level change (i.e. public policy addressing sustainable consumption and production, importance of sustainability in social norms and culture), that systemic change can occur to create an environment which actively encourages and supports research and teaching in sustainability in business studies. It is through the actions of individuals which stimulate an organisational and governmental response; after all, each institution is made up of people. Change can come from individuals, whether coordinated, planned, or unintentional.

Participants in Study One, when discussing the role of the academic activist frequently discussed their role as educators, more so than researchers. Indeed, actions to create a sustainability marketing course for one participant gained unintended institutional support when far more students enrolled than expected. However, change in institutional logics may require more theoretical and activist research, and visioning.

Hall (2016) provides suggestions about how the tourism academy can contribute to change in the socio-technical system of sustainable tourism, which can provide insight into the different ‘activist’ roles academics can adopt in research. The research specifies four different positions in academic research which hopes to induce change: activist (reflective, critical research, used to challenge existing structures), participatory (participatory research to understand and raise community voices), policy (applied research with policy implications and a strong consultancy angle), and corporatist (applied commercial research which usually reinforces socio-technical regimes). Hall (2016, p. 365) surmised there was a role for the academic research community to play an activist advocacy role in sustainable tourism “that reflexively seeks to influence regime change in clear recognition that scientifically grounded arguments or
engagement with external parties alone do not win policy debates or sufficiently change practices”.

Oliver (1991) hypothesised differing strategies for organisational resistance, offering a typology of five strategies varying from passive conformity to active resistance. While Oliver’s (1991) strategies refer to organisational strategies, I utilise aspects of the typology to relate it to actions of individuals, and categorise tactics according to whether they are aiming to be disruptive or undisruptive to existing institutions. Additionally, I merge Oliver’s (1991) strategies with tactics discussed by Battilana et al., (2009) and Hall (2016) to provide a comprehensive overview; these can be seen in Table 8.6. These strategies are by no means mutually exclusive, as individual actions may overlap strategies. However, these individual actions whether intentional or not can contribute to institutional change. Specifically, the uncoordinated actions of academics interest in sustainability marketing created the field as it stands today, according to Dorado (2005) this is a result of partaking. Equally, the coordinated response of research partnerships and track chairs at conferences (the act of convening), and individuals which leverage the acceptance and support of sustainability in the broader domain (i.e. beyond the marketing discipline) to bring about change in their own academic field (institutional entrepreneurship) also contributes to the current status of the sustainability marketing field and thus gradual institutional change (Dorado, 2005).

The actions of individuals build into collective action, as discussed before, whether coordinated or not. Thus, change can occur at a “bottom-up” level, starting with institutional entrepreneurs or change agents. As can be seen in Figure 8.2, some individual actions are more recognised (promotion, incentive etc.) and have a (perceived) positive impact on society than others. Contextual (i.e. level of institutionalisation and perception of endogenous pressures) and individual differences (i.e. level of dissatisfaction, social power, ability to mobilise individuals and resources) will contribute to the actions able and willing to be taken for institutional change.
Table 8.6 Undisruptive and disruptive strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Tactics</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Academic Actions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compromise</td>
<td>Balance</td>
<td>Balancing expectations of various institutional actors</td>
<td>Balance personal and professional demands</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pacify</td>
<td>Accommodating demands by institutional actors</td>
<td>Publish in top marketing journals and conduct other research/publish in other journals</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Bargain</td>
<td>Negotiate with institutional actors</td>
<td>Negotiate position objectives/targets for publication locations and amount</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoid</td>
<td>Conceal</td>
<td>Disguise disobedience to institutional norms and logics</td>
<td>Participate in sustainability research but don't tell your HOD</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Escape</td>
<td>Changing goals, domains and/or institutes</td>
<td>Change schools, departments or positions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dismiss</td>
<td>Ignore institutional demands and norms</td>
<td>Follow own interests and publication route</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Adopt an academic participatory stance, involving community voices (i.e. participatory research)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Challenge</td>
<td>Contest institutional demands and norms</td>
<td>Challenge promotion/hiring processes, speak out in departmental meetings</td>
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<td>Develop a new vision for change and use of framing (diagnostic framing, i.e. exposing the problems of unlimited economic growth in a limited resource plant, expose the harm when economic systems are out before the environment)</td>
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<td>Adopt an academic advocacy stance; use of knowledge to challenge existing power structures (i.e. lobbying)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Co-opt</td>
<td>Import institutional logics from outside the institutional field</td>
<td>Attempt to forge new research relationships with those outside the sustainability field and/or relationship with HOD in the aim of converting their beliefs</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Mobilise individuals, specially those with high social power</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Utilise logics from outside the field (i.e. sustainable logic)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Use of framing (prognostic framing, i.e. sustainable capitalism as superior, and motivational framing, i.e. providing the new vision of sustainability marketing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Influence</td>
<td>Shaping institutional logics, values and culture</td>
<td>Join editorial boards, conference organisers in the aim of changing sustainability perceptions</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Use of framing (prognostic framing, and motivational framing)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Resource mobilisation (financial, formal authority and social capital)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Adopt an academic policy stance involved with consultancy and suggesting policy changes</td>
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Source: Adapted from Oliver (1991), Battilana et al., (2009) and Hall (2016)
Chapter Eight: Discussion

This research offers some insight and broad suggestions for marketing departments, faculty and industry. Reflecting on the interview participants’ observations and suggestions for change, as well as the literature surrounding change in higher education for sustainability (usually limited to EfS) (Huge et al., 2016; Waas et al., 2010), I offer several suggestions and recommendations for academic faculty, marketing departments, business schools and accreditation agencies; these can be seen in Table 8.7. The importance and relevance of accreditation procedures are briefly discussed in relation to the recommendations, to show how these exogenous dynamics can be leveraged by individuals. While criticism has been placed on such managerial practices (i.e. accreditation, university rankings), as shown in Study One and previous research (Deem, 2001; Teelken, 2012), it does not discount the reality that academics have to work within these current institutional boundaries.

The internal barriers identified in Study One, the lack of knowledge of faculty, inertia and a feeling of isolation and dependence, can all be addressed by professional development workshops in departments and held by associations (such as the American Marketing Association). For example, at the Annual Academy of Management Conference numerous workshops and symposiums are offered for sustainability (i.e. biomimicry). These workshops aim to development knowledge and skills for integration within research, and provide the support necessary to those who are already interested in sustainability. However, such short courses and workshops are not frequently offered by other marketing conferences (i.e. AMS World Marketing Congress, Academy of Marketing Conference, European Marketing Association Conference). Specifically, other services offered by the marketing department in conjunction with the university could be sustainability integration help within marketing curriculum (i.e. curriculum integration help). Such a requirement for professional development in sustainability is seen in EQUIS accreditation requirements for example.
### Table 8.7 Suggestions for addressing institutional barriers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barrier</th>
<th>Suggestions</th>
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</table>
| Lack of knowledge             | • Professional development  
• Interdisciplinary teaching and research teams  
• Recruit faculty specialised in sustainability |
| Inertia                       | • Research grants for sustainability projects  
• PhD programs and scholarships in sustainability marketing |
| Dependence and isolation      | • Support and recognition from management (i.e. establishment of award, project and/or grant establishment) |
| College/university support    | • Strategic direction/mission at university and college level  
• Incentivise research and curriculum innovation  
• Review and revise curriculum  
• Open to interdisciplinary journals in promotion (i.e. non-marketing)  
• Approachable and supportive dean and/or head of department |
| Student and industry (non)pressure | • Responding to student and industry demands  
• Start critical and reflective thinking earlier in UG  
• Partnership with sustainable companies  
• Accreditation agencies need more specific requirements for sustainability integration |
| Marketing academy             | • Editors need to support sustainability research  
• Special issues in top marketing journals on sustainability  
• Workshops and conference tracks on sustainability in mainstream marketing gatherings  
• Continue to publish sustainability marketing research |
| Business philosophy           | • Professional development  
• Interdisciplinary teaching and research teams  
• Research grants for sustainability projects  
• PhD programs and scholarships in sustainability marketing  
• Partnership with sustainable companies |

Furthermore, adjusted and specialised incentives programs should acknowledge the work of sustainability integration in education and the effort it requires by officially recognising these in promotion and reward programs. Consequently, business schools and marketing departments must address the issue of promotion, tenure and engaged scholarship (Barber et al., 2014). New avenues to incentivise faculty toward research in sustainability must be discussed in future research. Again, EQUIS is the only accreditation body which specifies the need to recognise how sustainability is integrated within research and that “faculty, staff and students are encouraged and supported to participate” in “promoting business ideas and solutions to sustainability
challenges” (EQUIS, 2017, p. 68). However, EQUIS stops short of fully advising how integration may be recognised and encouraged.

AACSB and EQUIS both recognise the need for sustainability to be present in schools mission, vision statement and strategy demonstrating the importance of such strategies on the integration of sustainability within all aspects of the business school (research, teaching, service, community outreach and operations). It also demonstrates that individual faculty can leverage the attractiveness of accreditation to implement school mission, vision and strategy towards sustainability and social impact. If the school already has accreditation, as accreditation policies frequently change, especially in regards to social impact issues (i.e. EQUIS), individual faculty members can argue for a pre-emptive inclusion of sustainability topics in research and teaching.

All three main accreditation bodies stress the importance of contact with industry. Only EQUIS specifically outlines the need for student encouragement, incentivisation (i.e. scholarships), student personal development and extracurricular activities in sustainability. This demonstrates the reverence given to industry pressure and interest (Alajoutsijarvi et al., 2015; Starkey, 2005), meaning an interest in sustainability must be shown and demanded from industry and to some extent students as well, as student numbers drive curriculum success (and development).

Overall, marketing faculty will need, through resources, time and compensation/incentives, to develop support for curriculum level innovation and sustainability research. Alongside the interview findings, previous research has also shown that business faculty do not feel they receive enough institutional support for EfS (Doherty et al., 2015). Long-term projects and support are needed to provide both incentive as well as resources for faculty and students. Specifically, funding for faculty and student research, and curriculum development is needed, alongside incentives (i.e. bonuses, promotion implications) for faculty to participate, coordinate and collaborate in sustainable research and teaching (Barber et al., 2014).
Those in managerial power can allocate funds and requirements for sustainability courses in marketing degrees, specifically aiming to target curriculum innovation and re-design, while those who may feel marginalised have the ability to raise their voice in departmental meetings in favour of such initiatives; this could include both emerging scholars (based on their ability to be more ‘naive’ as suggested by Critical Management scholars) or established academics (with their authority, expertise and networks established) (Creed, DeJordy, & Lok, 2010). In addition, everyone can integrate sustainability topics through their own courses and research. Academics can become change agents in their institutions and in the broader academic community. Specifically, change agents can encourage curriculum innovation, professional development workshops, sustainability practices in their department, and set up research institutes within the university or between universities. These change agents can utilise the exogenous dynamics, such as accreditation agencies policies and journal rankings, in their favour. Adhering to such exogenous dynamics can enable faculty to appeal to the HODs, those in power positions, creating the ability to act on the desired changes.

However, working ‘within’ the system may only get the sustainability marketing agenda so far. In other words, incremental changes, especially those adopted or endorsed by dominant institutional players may result in very little widespread institutional change beyond symbolic or incremental. This is due to the issues of hegemony and power (Clegg, 2010; Levy & Scully, 2007). Furthermore, it is acknowledged by some that the more stabilised an organisation field is, the more challenging it is to change (i.e. as opposed to an emerging field characterised by multiple and conflicting interests and beliefs) (e.g. Battilana et al., 2009; DiMaggio, 1988; Levy & Scully, 2007). The idea of ‘institutional settlement’, or institutional stability, is based on the alignment of institutional logic, actors’ interests, and the governance structure of the field, which has been linked to hegemony (specifically, the discursive, material, and organisational dimensions) (Levy & Scully, 2007).
Gramsci’s conception of hegemony refers to the social structure which protects the position of the privileged (few), balancing coercion and consent through society’s material ‘base’ and ideological ‘superstructure’ (Gramsci, 1971). Hegemony is the practice or situation where concepts and practices are seen as natural or taken for granted; as such, many have seen the concept of sustainability as a threat to hegemony, as it “represents not just an economic and regulatory threat, but also a broader ideological challenge to the organizational control of resources and markets” (Tregidga, Milne, & Kearins, 2014, p. 479). Specifically, hegemony relies on the control over material resources (‘base), as well as symbols, imagery and similar modes of thinking (‘superstructure’) (Levy, 1997). The ‘historic bloc’, the collection of organisations and interests (or ‘social grouping’) which band together through shared interests, maintains and employs its power through control over the material and immaterial resources, specifically through the “authority of the state, dominance in the economic realm, and the consensual legitimacy of civil society” (Levy & Newell, 2002, p. 806).

So, while change can sometimes come from within the system, there may be limits to its success in transferring these into large-scale (or macro-level) institutional change because hegemonic forces and structure allow dominant groups to hold the resources and materials which bring about institutional stability (Gramsci, 1971; Hall, 2011; Levy & Scully, 2007). Thus, much power would be exerted to maintain the status quo which is needed for dominant players to remain in charge. However, hegemonic structure may provide the key to its own demise, as the hegemonic social structure is composed of contradictions, conflicting interests and changing alliances (i.e. there are always groups which are dissatisfied with the status quo) (Levy, 1997) but the challenge is to gain control of material resources as well as (new) discourses or cognitive frames to enable institutional change. Because of these power imbalances, concessions may be made by both dominant (incumbent) players as well as challengers (institutional entrepreneurs and challenger organisations) (Levy, Reinecke, & Manning, 2016), and the end result may be an
only slight change to the hegemonic structure, which in some cases may be more symbolic than actual (Levy, 1997; Rasche & Gilbert, 2015). While an analysis of the sustainability in marketing academia based upon the work of Gramsci is beyond the scope of this thesis, reflecting briefly on the limitations to change and the power structure present in established fields adds insight and context to the discussion.

8.3 The interpretation and prevalence of a sustainability worldview in marketing academics and students

The last objective of this research was to examine the sustainability worldview of marketing students and faculty. In doing so, Study Two aimed to understand the various interpretations that existed of sustainability and its related beliefs, and ultimately to assess whether these interpretations would be beneficial to sustainability’s integration within marketing academia. To measure the sustainability worldview of faculty and students the online international survey measured six sustainability related constructs: inequality, business effects, belief in the need for economic growth (need for economic growth and objective of economic growth over social welfare), marketing impacts, consumption issues, and environmental concern, as well as attitudes towards sustainability.

Overall, marketing faculty and students exhibited positive, supportive, holistic and broad conceptions of sustainability. Over a fifth identified themselves as passionate advocates for sustainability, while almost three quarters saw sustainability as a good thing, and very few held negative attitudes towards sustainability. Marketing faculty and students also have a good understanding of sustainability, incorporating environmental economic and social dimensions. Specifically, over four-fifths of marketing faculty and students define sustainability as including the three domains of economic, social and environmental.
When examining these dimensions further, the large majority see sustainability aspects as including maintaining biodiversity, a significant degree of local production and consumption, and addressing starvation, disease and social progress which recognises the needs of everyone, possibly more so than what Cotton et al. (2007) found in their examination of university lecturers. However, marketing faculty and students see a greater need for the continual exploitation of natural resources and maintaining high and stable levels of economic growth than previous studies have found (Cotton et al., 2007).

Marketing faculty and students had an average NEP score of $M_{NEP} = 3.58$, which may be considered low when taking into account education (88.3% of the faculty sample had PhDs) and political ideological effects (45.2% left leaning, 19.8% centre, 19.3% right leaning) of the sample identified (the majority are politically left leaning). Past research has shown average NEP scores (out of five) have ranged between $M_{NEP} = 2.57$ (blue-collar sample) and $M_{NEP} = 4.70$ (environmentalists sample), with most studies averaging in the range of $M_{NEP} = 3.50-3.90$, while the average for white collar worker samples (usually scientists employed in universities or government) was $M_{NEP} = 3.90$ (Hawcroft & Milfont, 2010). Specifically, student samples have an average NEP score of $M_{NEP} = 3.76$, with scores ranging from $M_{NEP} = 3.24$ to $M_{NEP} = 4.11$ (Benckendorff et al., 2012).

However, comparing the NEP scores here to similar business faculty and student samples reveal that marketing faculty and students may have demonstrated greater environmental values than have previously been identified. Marketing faculty and students show a slightly greater environmental concern than demonstrated in Oelfke’s (2014) study, who found that the marketing discipline, alongside merchandising, and communications faculty had the highest NEP score, $M_{NEP} = 3.49$; however, this difference to other business disciplines was not significant. Shafer (2006) found MBA students had an average of $M_{NEP} = 3.10$, while business students in the USA scored $M_{NEP} = 3.31$ in Hanson-Rasmussen, Lauver, and Lester’s (2014)
The only two studies which showed greater environmental values were both from Australia, with $M_{NEP} = 3.72$ (Hodgkinson & Innes, 2001) and $M_{NEP} = 3.73$ (Benckendorff et al., 2012).

Though the lower than expected NEP scoresuggest that while knowledge and attitudes may be positive, some fundamental beliefs about the reality of limits to growth, anti-anthropocentrism, and the possibility of an eco-crisis (Dunlap et al., 2000) present a more philosophical barrier towards sustainability’s integration. More specifically, while knowledge of sustainability is high and attitudes are supportive, there remains belief in underlying assumptions about nature that may clash with the ability to fully integrate sustainability within marketing (Borland & Lindgreen, 2013). However, positive beliefs are seen with the social objectives of business, the unwillingness to sacrifice the environment for economic growth and the belief in the wastefulness of society, as well as the realisation that our consumption of products and lifestyles need to change. Less positive is the reluctance for marketing students and faculty to acknowledge the impact of marketing on the natural and social environment.

Reflecting on the differing mindsets of faculty and students presents the need to examine if any difference exists between these two samples. Study Two showed that undergraduate students had a greater belief than faculty in consumption issues, believed marketing contributed to creating artificial wants and that society focused too much on economic growth rather than social welfare. However, undergraduate students had a greater belief than faculty in the need for economic growth and a lesser belief than faculty in business obligations towards society beyond profit maximisation. This suggests that undergraduate students may hold more critical beliefs about social and environmental issues, and are critical of marketing, but believe in some fundamentals principles of the DSP namely, economic growth and profit maximisation. This is a potential implication for business education, suggesting it needs to address this fundamental principle within business philosophy, providing for the first time empirical evidence to support
educational suggestions by scholars and a dominance of a profit-making ideology (e.g. Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Gladwin et al., 1995; McGregor, 2004; Painter-Morland, 2015; Springett, 2005, 2010).

The objective of Study Two was to examine the sustainability worldview of marketing academics and students. The most appropriate multivariate analysis for this objective was cluster analysis, which allowed a typology to be created about faculty’s and students’ fundamental values, beliefs and attitudes broadly related to sustainability and marketing. Through the typology, the worldviews of marketing faculty and students are best articulated. The typology allows the academy to see the differing views of sustainability in marketing, and thus evaluate the current perceptions and need to address certain assumptions or beliefs in specific individuals. It allows transparency to the range of paradigms affecting the concept of sustainability in the marketing context.

Typologies are a middle range theory; they bridge between general theories and empirical phenomena (Doty & Glick, 1994). Different from classification systems, typologies are used to identify multiple theoretical or “ideal” types. Usually in middle range theory, the theorising process is “characterised by reasoning; where conceptual work is intertwined with empirical research” (Brodie, 2013, p. 96). Since the ideal types rarely exist in the real world in its ‘pure’ form, the actual values, beliefs and attitudes of marketing faculty and students can lie between the clusters and may even resemble the ideal types to different degrees (Doty & Glick, 1994).

The cluster analysis for the faculty sample revealed four sustainability worldviews. Faculty who hold an Ambivalent worldview represent 30.89% of the faculty sample and while endorsing positive attitudes sustainability, Ambivalents have ambivalent beliefs about marketing’s impact on the environment and creating artificial wants, and society’s focus on economic growth rather than social welfare, and slightly believe that technology has the ability to solve environmental problems. The worldview with the smallest sample is Sceptics, which
Chapter Eight: Discussion

represent 4.81% of the faculty sample and have negative attitudes towards sustainability, and support society’s focus on economic growth rather than social welfare, and don’t see any issues in current inequality, consumption levels in society, or marketing’s negative impact on the environment or in playing a part in creating artificial wants. Sceptics are not concerned about the eco-crisis, are anthropocentric and believe that environmental issues can be fixed with technological innovations. Figure 8.6 displays the four sustainability worldviews of marketing faculty.

Conversely, Passionates represent 25.40% of the faculty sample and have the most critical beliefs about sustainability, including economic and social aspects. Specifically, Passionates are concerned about the eco-crisis and are antianthropocentric (ecocentric). Advocates are critical about sustainability, but a little less than Passionates, but are similar to Ambivelants in that they believe somewhat that environmental issues can be fixed with technological innovations and are similarly slightly antianthropocentric (ecocentric). Advocates represent the largest worldview with 38.90% of the faculty sample.

Figure 8.6 Faculty sustainability worldview
Similar prevalence and interpretation of sustainability can be found for marketing students, with also four clusters, or worldviews emerging (Believers, Supporters, Followers and Doubters), as can seen in Figure 8.7. Believers have the greatest sustainability beliefs and values and represent 24.48% of the student sample. Specifically, Believers are very critical of consumption levels and society’s focus on economic growth rather than social welfare and are also critical of current inequality in society, marketing’s impact on the environment and creating artificial wants, and believe business has an obligation beyond profit maximisation to society. Believers are concerned about the eco-crisis and antianthropocentric (ecocentric).

Supporters are concerned about society’s focus on economic growth and consumption issues. This worldview contained the largest student sample, representing 32.44%. However, Supporters are almost ambivalent to the possibility of technological innovations ability to fix environmental issues, which is similar to Believers. They are also less critical or concerned than
Followers about marketing’s impact on the environment and creating artificial wants, and about inequality, but hold similar beliefs as Believers about nature (are antianthropocentric/ecocentric). However, Supporters seem ambivalent to inequality in society, showing more sensitivity to environmental and economic issues than social problems.

Followers represent 30.68% of the student sample and have the lowest belief of all the worldviews that business has an obligation to society beyond profit and the greatest belief in technologies ability to fix environmental issues. In addition, while Followers have a somewhat greater belief, on par with Supporters, in the need for society to focus on social welfare rather than economic growth, they remain ambivalent about society’s focus on economic growth. This suggests that while they endorse economic growth as a societal goal they do not want this at the expense of social welfare. However, Followers remain critical about current consumption levels, but are only somewhat concerned about inequality in society and the eco-crisis.

Doubters are ambivalent to business obligation to society beyond profit, society’s focus on economic growth rather than social, and society’s consumption issues. Doubters do not see any issues in current inequality nor marketing’s negative impact on the environment. While Doubters were somewhat critical to consumption levels in society, they are ambivalent to the current realities of the eco-crisis and ambivalent to the possibility that environmental issues can be fixed with technological innovations. Doubters represent 12.39% of the sample; containing the smallest samples of all the worldviews.

These groupings are in line with previous worldview research. Passionates and Believers are similar to de Witt’s (2014) Postmodern worldview which emphasises inclusion and emancipation of marginalised voices, values diversity, a critical attitude towards the modern model of society such as ideas of progress, science/technology and capitalism, and believes fundamental changes are needed in society. They may possibly also relate to the Integrative worldview, which emphasises change in mentality and how we relate to nature. Comparatively,
those that were not concerned with current environmental, social and economic issues believed in a technological fix to environmental problems, namely Ambivalents, Sceptics, Followers and Doubters; which are also similar to the Modern worldview in de Wittr’s (2014) IWF, which emphasise market-based solutions, material/economic progress, instrumentalisation of nature, and on the development of science and technology for sustainable solutions.

Examining the worldviews of students and faculty, around 40% may be ambivalent to issues of sustainability. Particularly, for faculty, sustainability issues involved with the environment, and social (inequality) and economic (priority of economic growth, marketing impact on society) dimensions, as well as for students when reflecting on environmental, social (inequality), and economic issues (business obligation, need for economic growth and technologies ability to solve environmental problems).

While overconsumption has been linked to environmental degradation, consumers rarely seem to connect the concepts together (Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012). However, both students and faculty were aware of consumption issues, suggesting a high level of concern about consumption levels in the Western World exist as well as the need reduce and change our consumption lifestyles. Previous findings from consumer studies also show a great belief that ‘we should lower our consumption rates’ (70.7%), yet more people believe that ‘we live in too consumerist a society’ (91.2%) (Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012). Finally, a collection of public opinion studies from the US show that between 70%–88% of Americans support initiatives to reduce consumption (Bowerman, 2014). As such, marketing faculty and student beliefs about consumption issues seem to be in line with citizen studies.

There is some more divergence in beliefs about the need for and priority that should be given to economic growth. The economy and economic growth have received high priority in political debates. The World Values Survey (WVS) (2014) has continually shown the importance individuals place on economic growth. Indeed, the majority of individuals place economic
growth as the first aim of their country (World Values Survey Association, 2014). Similar results are shown here, especially for marketing students. However, in a recent Gallup poll (2017) more individuals thought protection of the environment should be given greater priority over economic growth (56%), up 10% from the 2015 poll, rather than economic growth given greater priority than the environment (35%).

Tensions between economic growth and environmental protection are not readily acknowledged; it has been found that most individuals view economic growth and environmental protection as compatible (Drews & van den Bergh, 2016; Kaplowitz et al., 2011). This tension may not even be acknowledged by experienced faculty, for example research by Green (2015) showed that economic lecturers believed that self-interest prevails and that economic growth, increased consumption and a healthy environment can be achieved simultaneously. Furthermore, the relationship between economic growth, human well-being, and sustainability have a long history (Howarth, 2012). In *The Limits to Growth* (Meadows, Meadows, Randers, & Behrens III, 1972) one of the solutions to global economic collapse, based on natural resource depletion and environmental degradation, was the redistribution from the rich to the poor to provide a high quality of life for everyone. A tension exists about perceptions of the need for economic growth, considering critics argue that the stabilisation or even the reversal of economic growth is needed to improve environmental conditions, while others argue that economic growth is fundamental to improving quality of life (Daly, 2013; Daly, 2005; Howarth, 2012). The results in Study Two demonstrate that faculty, more so than students, believe in the need for prioritisation of economic growth over other social welfare concerns.

Students especially had a more liberal view of business obligations. Milton Friedman has been a long-time advocate for profit maximisation and is known for his 1970 article “The Social Responsibility of Business is to Increase Its Profits”. Conversely, Karl Marx saw profit as the result of capitalist exploitation of workers (Giddens, 1971). A Deloitte (2016) survey found that
Millennials believe that business success should be built on a foundation of long-term sustainability rather than short-term profit maximisation, but perceive current industry to be overemphasising in areas of profit generation. In addition, the research found that the greater majority of Millennials believe businesses have a positive impact on wider society (74%) but 54% still believe businesses have “no ambition beyond making money” (Deloitte, 2016). Again, in a PwC survey, only 35% of people agree that businesses have increased their focus on operating in a way that takes them and community into account (PwC, 2016). Similar findings are found in the present study in the student sample, with a belief in the profit maximisation ideology present in business relations. However, this does not necessarily mean students belief this is the ‘right’ way to do business.

Very important to the field of marketing is how both consumers and the industry see marketing activities. Overwhelmingly, research has been conducted on consumers rather than marketing professionals, faculty and students. In the eye of consumers, marketing is usually perceived to be responsible for excessive consumption and they believe marketers push products on to consumers at the expense of their own financial and social well-being (Heath & Heath, 2008). However, reflections on marketing and its effect on society usually only revolve around unnecessary or excessive consumption on the effects of individual and not society (i.e. waste, environmental impact) (Heath & Heath, 2008; Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012). Specifically, marketing faculty were ambivalent about the impact marketing had on society; on the environment and helping to contribute to creating artificial wants. In comparison, a previous consumer study shows much greater scepticism towards marketing than the present study’s findings, with 63% agreeing that ‘advertising and other marketing techniques lead people to buy things they do not really need’ (Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012).

Based on Study Two’s findings there are several implications for individuals and marketing departments, specifically around education and incentivisation, a list of these can be
seen in Table 8.8. The professional development course on sustainability should include economic, social and environmental aspects of sustainability. As seen in the cluster analysis, Ambivalents and Sceptics would need the most training on these concepts, while Passionates and Advocates should focus more on economic aspects. In addition, as more than 35% of marketing faculty might fall into the Ambivalents and Sceptics worldviews, specific assumptions and issues present in social inequality, economic growth, marketing impact on society and technology’s ability to solve environmental issues should be examined (Kilbourne & Mittelstaedt, 2014; Kilbourne et al., 1997; Piketty, 2015; Varey, 2011, 2012).

For marketing students, specifically for Follower and Doubter worldviews, courses should focus on the social and economic aspect of sustainability, specifically social inequality, economic growth, business obligations and technology’s ability to solve environmental problems (Daly, 2013; Daly, 2005; Kilbourne et al., 1997; Piketty, 2015; Varey, 2011). In addition, environmental education is also necessary for both Followers and Doubters and would also benefit other marketing students, especially by focusing on the ecocrisis and humans’ relationship with nature (Dunlap et al., 2000). Interestingly, all the worldviews but Followers were more likely to have enrolled in a sustainability, environmental, ethics or societal issues course, demonstrating that the contents of sustainability courses may be more important than merely attending such a course.

Reflecting on Study One’s findings about sustainability formation and faculty preferences, experiential learning and community-service learning are recommended avenues to engage students with sustainability. A full list of implications can be seen in Table 8.9.
### Table 8.8 The implications of worldviews on individuals and marketing departments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Implications for individuals</th>
<th>Implications for marketing departments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Passionates** | Knowledgeable and passionate about environmental, social and economic sustainability issues | • Liaise with sustainable businesses  
• Create course for and/or integrate sustainability marketing  
• Spokesperson for sustainability in department  
• Create sustainable marketing internships | • Create partnerships with sustainable businesses.  
• Create course for and/or integrate sustainability marketing  
• Spokesperson for sustainability in department.  
• Create internship program  
• Recognise in the promotion/tenure process efforts displayed in creation of majors, specialisations and/or courses, as well as other service/community involvement (i.e. internship, research partnerships) |
| **Advocates** | Knowledgeable but not necessarily passionate about environmental, social and economic sustainability issues | • Get faculty involved in university and community projects | • Create university and community projects or community ‘day-outs’ |
| **Ambivalents** | Ambivalent about environmental, social and economic sustainability issues | • Attend compulsory professional development course on sustainability  
• Get faculty involved in university and community projects | • Create compulsory professional development course on sustainability  
• Create university and community projects or community ‘day-outs’ |
| **Sceptics** | Does not believe that there are any pressing environmental, social and economic sustainability issues | • Attend compulsory professional development course on sustainability  
• Get faculty involved in university and community projects | • Create compulsory professional development course on sustainability  
• Create university and community projects or community ‘day-outs’ |
Overall, this research suggests that a positive and supportive environment exists for sustainability research and teaching in marketing. However, assumptions about nature, humans, the market and their interrelationships as well as the limits to growth (Borland & Lindgreen, 2013; Dunlap et al., 2000) may present a key challenge and barrier towards greater sustainability integration beyond more symbolic or decoupling means. In addition, around 40% of faculty and students are ambivalent or hostile towards sustainability issues, namely about marketing’s impact on the environment and society, economic growth, business obligations towards society and technologies ability to solve environmental issues. This suggests that marketing faculty and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Implications for individuals</th>
<th>Implications for marketing departments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Believers</td>
<td>Knowledgeable about environmental, social and economic sustainability issues</td>
<td>• Get involved in sustainable marketing or business specialisation&lt;br&gt;• Get involved in sustainable marketing internships</td>
<td>• Create sustainable marketing or business specialisation.&lt;br&gt;• Create sustainable marketing internships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporters</td>
<td>Somewhat knowledgeable about environmental, social and economic sustainability issues</td>
<td>• Get students involved in community-service learning</td>
<td>• Create community-service learning projects with sustainable business and/or community groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Followers</td>
<td>Uncertain about environmental, social and economic sustainability issues</td>
<td>• Attend compulsory sustainability course&lt;br&gt;• Get students involved in community-service learning</td>
<td>• Create a compulsory sustainability course.&lt;br&gt;• Create community-service learning projects with sustainable business and/or community groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doubters</td>
<td>Ambivalent or unknowledgeable about environmental, social and economic sustainability issues</td>
<td>• Attend compulsory sustainability course.&lt;br&gt;• Get students involved in community-service learning</td>
<td>• Create a compulsory sustainability course.&lt;br&gt;• Create community-service learning projects with sustainable business and/or community groups</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
student mindsets may indeed be a key barrier towards sustainability’s integration in marketing academia.

At this stage, as identified by previous research across university disciplines, sustainability integration in theory, research and education is at the individual rather than institutional level (Doherty et al., 2015; Wood et al., 2016). Ironically, while it is individuals, in this case marketing academics who promote institutional change, it is also academics who exhibit a large barrier towards sustainability education and research in marketing as evidenced by ambivalent beliefs and attitudes towards sustainability, as found in Study Two.

The next chapter concludes this thesis by evaluating the research limitations, suggestions for future research and making concluding remarks by summing up the research findings and its contribution to the literature.
Chapter Nine

Conclusion
9.0 Overview of study

This thesis is the first of its kind to research the sustainability worldviews of marketing faculty and students. This research focuses mainly on the integration of sustainability within marketing education and scholarship at the institutional level (faculty, university), but also touches upon the curricular (course design) and instrumental levels (pedagogy) (Setó-Pamies & Papaoikonomou, 2015). The two studies conducted as part of the thesis go beyond previous research which has proposed how the business school can further integrate sustainability (e.g. Naeem & Neal, 2012), and instead focuses more on the role of the individual (Suddaby, 2010; Wood et al., 2016). This research also provides the first insight into the interpretations and barriers towards sustainability’s integration within marketing academia.

The first study of this thesis investigated how sustainability focused marketing academics integrated sustainability within marketing education and research. To understand the roles and identities of marketing faculty engaged with sustainability (Wood et al., 2016), Study One sought to understand why these members chose to integrate sustainability within their research and teaching. Although the literature has explored the role of higher education in sustainability and how to shift to EfS (e.g. Christie et al., 2015; Cotton et al., 2009; Down, 2006; Springett, 2005), few studies have paid attention to the role of the individual (Wood et al., 2016); the same has been found in corporate situations (Rimanoczy, 2014; Schein, 2015). Indeed, a criticism of past institutional research is that the individual is largely absent, especially in research focused on institutional logics (Bévort & Suddaby, 2016; Suddaby, 2010). As such, there is little research about the psychological motivations of sustainability leaders, in corporate or university settings, and how this affects their ability to lead transformational change in organisations (Brown, 2012; Schein, 2015; Visser & Crane, 2010).
It is also only through the experiences of sustainability marketing academics that we can begin to understand what struggles and barriers may exist towards the integration of sustainability within marketing academia. Study One provided insight into the institutional barriers present in the integration of sustainability in marketing academia and suggests possible areas where change can take place to advance the sustainability agenda in marketing curriculum, publications and career prospects.

One institutional barrier identified in previous research and also found in Study One were the mindsets, or worldview, of both students and faculty (Christie et al., 2015; Doh & Tashman, 2014; Naeem & Neal, 2012; Thomas, 2004; von der Heidt et al., 2012). Conceptually this is related to another barrier frequently discussed by business scholars; the ontological and epistemological assumptions present in management education (e.g. Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Petocz & Dixon, 2011; Springett, 2005, 2010; Tilbury & Ryan, 2011); another barrier which was also identified in Study One. The dominant thinking in business schools, one based on economic growth, laissez-faire economics, humans rule or domination over nature, individual property rights and technological solutions to environmental problems (Cotgrove, 1982; Dunlap, 2008; Kilbourne, 2004), “undermine[s] the kind of orientation that is necessary to engage with sustainability and ethics-related issues within management” (Painter-Morland, 2015, p. 69). No previous study has empirically investigated the sustainability values, beliefs and attitudes of marketing faculty and students. Accordingly, Study Two sought to address this important knowledge gap and understand what the values, beliefs and attitudes are of marketing faculty and students, and how these may impact the state of sustainability research and teaching in the marketing academy.

This final chapter concludes the thesis with limitations and suggestions of future research, as well as concluding remarks about the research.
9.1 Evaluating the research and limitations

Research has suggested the importance of worldviews on understanding individuals’ perceptions, attitudes and behaviour (Hedlund-de Witt, 2013; Koltko-Rivera, 2004). Scholars have argued that the worldview dominant in business schools and in society prevents the integration of sustainability (Beddoe et al., 2009; Giacalone & Thompson, 2006; Springett, 2010). Considering marketing’s own struggle with integrating sustainability, as seen with numerous definitions and its narrow focus on marketing management implications (Kilbourne & Beckmann, 1998; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014), understanding the sustainability worldviews of the marketing academy became an interesting choice of research.

While previous scales have been developed to measure the DSP and NEP, this study sought to go further than these dimensions and include more fundamental beliefs applicable to both sustainability and marketing. For example, issues of consumption, marketing implications and business obligations. As such, it would have been beneficial to have more established scales available to allow the ability to directly compare to other studies. However, items from previous studies were included where possible (e.g. Evans & Heath, 1995; Kilbourne et al., 2001), and future research may wish to use the scales developed in this research which would provide additional validity to the scales. In addition, when the NEP scale was subjected to rigorous factor analysis six items were deleted. Considering this scale is popular and well validated, the deletion of many items may come as a surprise and suggests that the scale may not provide as much a coherent ecological worldview as previously advocated. However, many studies do not subject the scale to factor analysis (Hawcroft & Milfont, 2010).

The survey was sent to marketing faculty through messages in listservs, a Facebook group and personal work emails collected through conference proceedings and manually from marketing departments in Australia, New Zealand, North America, and Europe. Student surveys
were distributed through contacts at individual universities. At first, faculty response numbers were the biggest concern and thus received much effort from myself from the start. Surprisingly, faculty numbers were higher than expected, with efforts to manually collect email data from departmental websites extremely successful. However, student responses were lower than expected. Contacts beyond Australia and New Zealand were also hard to reach. Many student surveys were not able to be distributed due to tight ethical regulations at individual universities. However, the higher faculty number compared to students was still sufficient considering enough cases were collected for the statistical analyses used.

In line with all survey methods, the possibility of a nonresponse bias in the survey means a totally representative view of all marketing faculty and students is impossible (Malhorta, 2010). Nonresponse bias was not very evident in the faculty sample, with almost representative samples of females and males in marketing departments, and a similar spread of rankings as seen in Australian universities (Broadbent et al., 2013). However, the student sample showed a gender bias showed towards females (AACSB, 2016).

In a similar vein, interview findings are not generalisable but they nevertheless are helpful in understanding the experiences of sustainability interested marketing academics, and help to identify possible barriers towards its integration within marketing academia. Furthermore, the cross-sectional approach of this study limits our understanding of marketing faculty and students over time. As such, this research offers a snapshot in time acknowledging that sustainability values, beliefs, and attitudes can be effected by current news and life events (Lavrakas, 2008). Therefore, future research should take a longitudinal approach adopting a similar theoretical frame, or repeat the cross-sectional survey periodically.
9.2 Future research

This research is the first of its kind to investigate the barriers towards sustainability integration within marketing research and education. Consequently, this thesis contributes to a variety of research areas, namely towards institutional entrepreneurs or sustainability champions in the higher education context, which has been lacking in the higher education literature (Wood et al., 2016), sustainability marketing (Belz, 2005; Gordon et al., 2011; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014), sustainability worldviews (de Witt et al., 2016; Hedlund-de Witt, 2013), and the DSP (Kilbourne & Carlson, 2008; Kilbourne & Polonsky, 2005).

The purpose of this research was to examine the experiences of sustainability marketing academics, specifically to understand their formation and interest in sustainability, how sustainability was integrated within marketing research and education, and what the barriers were towards this integration. As such, a natural sample emerged of marketing academics who had an interest in sustainability marketing in research and/or education. Thus, this study only interviewed academics who were interested in sustainability in the marketing discipline and specifically chose not to interview marketing academics not interested in sustainability. However, future research could investigate views of sustainability from the point-of-view of non-sustainability focused academics to understand their sustainability (dis)interest and their interpretation of sustainability and sustainability in marketing.

Extending this further, it may be worthwhile talking to faculty in management type roles to further understand how the institutional pressures interconnect. As a lot of activity is driven by accreditation agencies and/or central government, higher management positions can better reflect upon these, especially the more intricate details of policies and their effects (i.e. differences between EQUIS and AASCB policies and procedures beyond the ‘written’ word).
Importantly, these policies also change over time, which demonstrate the importance of timing and limitation of cross-section research.

This research is one of the few which has addressed the individual roles, identities and experiences of possible change agents in universities. However, there is much more research needed on institutional entrepreneurs in universities for sustainability (Dobers et al., 2008), especially across disciplines. Similarly, the findings raise questions about the ramifications of academics’ values in education and research. The former of which have also been addressed somewhat by Boyle (2015) and Moosmayer (2011). However, future research could examine marketing faculty (not just sustainability focused) and examine how their values influence their teaching and research specifically, either through survey or interview methods.

New avenues to encourage faculty toward research in sustainability must be discussed in future research. Many higher education studies have advocated for a change in the tenure and promotion processes (Barber et al., 2014; Macdonald & Kam, 2007; Moore, 2005), however many fail to expand into what tangible aspects of the process should be changed and discussion of how this change would come about. Consequently, it would be worthwhile for future research to examine the tenure and promotion processes from various business schools and/or universities to understand what processes are currently in place and consider what specifically may need to change in the process.

While the interview findings are not generalisable, as with all qualitative research (Malhorta, 2010), they are helpful in understanding the experiences of sustainability interested marketing academics and provide suggestions for marketing educators to integrate sustainability and marketing in their teaching. Future research could conduct survey research to examine a greater range of perspectives for marketing educators’ preference for approaches and pedagogies for integrating sustainability, and related concepts such as corporate social responsibility, within marketing.
The survey research included a large sample of marketing faculty and students from around the world, primarily located in Australia, New Zealand, USA, Canada and Western Europe. These samples while large, were not necessarily representative of the population, especially if we take into account the possibility of response bias. However, the configuration of faculty was relatively representative of marketing faculty in terms of gender and rank, and calls (messages) for survey respondents purposefully eliminated any sustainability orientated language. Future research may wish to focus on countries not represented in the sample or specifically choose to focus on one country to enable a more representative sample. Such replication studies could validate the marketing faculty and student clusters found. The research could also be expanded to other population samples, for example by examining the values, beliefs and attitudes of marketing professionals and consumers.

Study Two specifically finds positive and holistic perceptions of sustainability. Future research could investigate further why academics may hold strong personal beliefs in sustainability but do not pursue this in their research and teaching. Is this difference between espoused sustainability attitudes and beliefs an effect of social desirability? Or are these positive and holistic perceptions of sustainability in academics an example that professional hurdles are too strong to overcome, and thus might be different from the research participants in Study One which were willing to sacrifice professional development for personal development. Another possibility might be that these marketing academics do not see how their research could address sustainability issues. Similarly, future research could seek to understand beliefs and as well as actions, that is, examine the level of sustainability integration within ones’ own courses and delve deeper into the research interests of faculty.

Past research has shown the positive effect of staff development on knowledge and teaching practice, however future research should expand on its effect (Barth & Rieckmann, 2012). Similar research is needed for EfS impact on marketing and business students.
Specifically, the long-term effect of the suggested pedagogies (community service-learning, critical thinking and transformational education), as well as sustainability concepts taught to students, even in disciplines beyond marketing, are lacking in the literature (e.g. Kinsey & Wheatley, 1984; Kleinrichert, Tosti-Kharas, Albert, & Eng, 2013; Tomsen & Disinger, 1998). Future research could investigate the consequences of sustainability marketing education. For example, the impact of various theoretical integration and pedagogical approaches on sustainability education effects, such as understanding, attitudes and satisfaction with courses and/or assignments.

Lastly, considering the valuable lens that institutional theory offered more research utilising this theory in higher education research and the DSP may be worthwhile. There are similarities between institutional logics and the DSP, and as such, more research examining how the theory of institutional logics (specifically the market and sustainable logic) and concept of the NEP and DSP would be valuable to develop the latter two concepts into one which may be better examined and researched. Specifically, past research has struggled to empirically measure the DSP (e.g. Lewis, 2009). Furthermore, previous research has already examined the tension between commercial and science logics in US academia (Sauermann & Stephan, 2013), academic and commercial logics (Murray, 2010), and the domination of the market logic in US academic science (Berman, 2012). However, it would be interesting to see more research on the pressure of the sustainable logic on the university’s logics (academic, commercial, market).

9.3 Conclusion

Society is facing a series of social, economic and environment crises. Indeed, in the last 15 years alone we can identify major crises that have come in the form of war, social instability and increased natural disasters. Sustainability or sustainable development provides a possible solution to these current ecological, social, and economic issues (Hopwood et al., 2005). Inclusive forms
Chapter Nine: Conclusion

of sustainable development include ecological problems, issues of equality, human rights and poverty alleviation (Hopwood et al., 2005). However, the dominant industrial worldview, currently espoused by business schools, government, businesses and other institutions, has been said to promote continual economic growth and materialistic development as progress while simultaneously contributing to environmental and social problems and inequality (Kilbourne, 2004; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014; Springett, 2005).

Past research on how universities integrated sustainability show a large involvement from change agents, which are usually academics themselves. Change agents are usually at the forefront of new ideas for EfS (Lorenzoni et al., 2007; Wood et al., 2016). For example, faculty members were catalysts for the change process in more than half of the institutions who were interested in or engaged in the implementation of sustainability initiatives (McNamara, 2010). However, few studies have examined and discussed the identities, experiences and roles of change agents (Wood et al., 2016). Moreover, in the issue of institutional redesign, “more research is needed before the processes by which ‘disruption’ occurs are completely understood” (Toubiana, 2014). Future research was also implored to research pedagogical practice in relation to sustainability champions in higher education, especially in non-traditional EfS disciplines (Wood et al., 2016). Consequently, Study One sought to provide insight into the role faculty has to play in breaking down the barriers and bring about opportunities for change in marketing research and education.

As stated by Alvesson et al. (2008, p. 14), this research provides marketing academics “empathetic insights and descriptions that can stimulate and facilitate people’s reflections on who they are and what they do”, especially for those interested in sustainability. Study One sought to understand why and how marketing academics became interested in sustainability. In turn, this provided reflections about why they chose to integrate sustainability within marketing in their research and teaching, and how they integrated these two concepts, specifically with
barriers in the way. Furthermore, this research extended work by Wood et al. (2016) into the identities of sustainability champions.

Although past research has examined institutional entrepreneurship when investigating institutional logics (Berman, 2012), this research has mainly examined individuals in their occupations or organisational roles, and has been “overlooking the influence of individual motivations” (Bertels & Lawrence, 2016, p. 338). Consequently, this research sought to understand the role, experiences and identities of marketing academics (Wood et al., 2016) in influencing institutional change, specifically in marketing research and education to incorporate sustainability logics. Specifically, this research addressed how institutional logics are understood (market and sustainable logic) and how these logics influence the individual (i.e. sustainability marketing theory); something which has been missing from previous research (Suddaby, 2010).

This research identifies a typology of three sustainability educators, specifically in the marketing discipline context. The sustainability “transformer” wishes to engage in transformational learning, which may be through critical thinking or through discussing differing sustainability worldviews, while the sustainability “thinker” wants to encourage critical thinking specifically to bring about the assumptions and contradictions of differing worldviews in regard to marketing and sustainability. Lastly, the sustainability “actioner” wishes to get students to interact with their community and hopes that ‘learning by doing’ will provide an appreciation for sustainability.

However, this research provides greater empirical, rather than conceptual, support that sustainability marketing can be seen as three separate ‘levels’. Discourses based on only the marketing mix (Sustainable mix marketing) heavily rely on the production of sustainable products to satisfy a sustainable consumer (Wymer & Polonsky, 2015); the question remains though what happens if there is no sustainable consumer? Considering the attitude-behaviour gap and the premium price paid for sustainable products, the so-called sustainable consumer
maybe elusive (van Dam & Apeldoorn, 1996). Participants articulated that a marketing mix focus goes beyond the criticism of green washing by truly developing products that at best are cradle-to-cradle, and at worst use recyclable materials. However, McDonagh and Prothero (2014, p. 1199) said if sustainability marketing “is to be a micro, managerialist focused domain, then this does not tackle the more fundamental issue of how can we effectively address marketing’s relationship with the natural environment”. As such, a focus only on the marketing mix may fail to address the unsustainable consumption patterns of affluent industrialised countries, especially its effects on the environment.

Most participants acknowledged marketing’s role in overconsumption and consequently addressed sustainability in marketing through social marketing (Sustainable lifestyle marketing). In social marketing, individual behaviour change is possible as individuals are assumed to have the ability to make informed decisions regarding their own behaviour (Hoek & Jones, 2011; Shove, 2010; Wymer, 2011). However, some social marketers also understand that individuals are inhibited by enabling conditions, circumstances, institutions and norms which prevent successful behaviour change (Ross Gordon & Gurrieri, 2014). Indeed, going beyond mere information campaigns and including policy interventions (McDonald, Oates, Alevizou, Young, & Hwang, 2012; Polonsky, Vocino, Grau, Garma, & Ferdous, 2012) and addressing social norms and constraints are presented as key means to changing to more sustainable behaviour (Cherrier, Szuba, & Özçağlar-Toulouse, 2012; McDonald, Oates, Thyne, Timmis, & Carlile, 2015). Therefore, there must also be a change in the environment, such as targeting the upstream through public policy change, adopting a socio-ecological perspective, and targeting socio-technical systems (Collins, Tapp, & Pressley, 2010; Domegan et al., 2016; Kemper & Ballantine, 2017).

While a move to a social marketing paradigm within sustainability marketing is a step in the right direction, changing consumption behaviours will be fruitless without institutional
changes (Belz, 2006; Gordon et al., 2011). Institutions and societal goals (i.e., continuous economic growth) seem to be in conflict with sustainable consumption (Belz, 2006; Kilbourne & Mittelstaedt, 2014). This critique was articulated by some participants who called for a responsible marketing paradigm which engages in critical thinking, especially about underlying assumptions and ideologies, specifically regarding power, control and inequality (Reflective sustainable marketing) (Ford, Harding, & Learmonth, 2010). However, few studies have investigated or discussed this issue (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). It is by critically reflecting on the actions and consequences of marketing that we can begin to address sustainability, which as it stands may be the anti-thesis to marketing.

Previous research on sustainability discourses show that there are diverging values, attitudes and beliefs about what sustainability means (Connelly, 2007; Hopwood et al., 2005) and how it can or should be taught (e.g. Lourenço, 2013; Lynam, 2012; Rusinko, 2010). Therefore, this research contributes to understanding what sustainability marketing, or more specifically the integration of sustainability and marketing, means from the perspective of those who are specialised in the field.

Considering the pressing issues of society, such as climate change and equality (wealth, income and gender), institutional theory may suggest that marketing studies, including marketing departments, may face current and future issues of legitimacy. Specifically, marketing academia does not seem to be reflecting, participating or contributing to the expectations of society and thus not responding to the isomorphic pressures (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Doherty et al., 2015). At a minimum it does seem that in some ways, possibly educational practice more so than theory, marketing is adopting sustainability from a pragmatic perspective (Doherty et al., 2015). However, Study One’s participants might argue that this sustainability integration is not ‘true’ sustainability, rather it is ‘weak’ sustainability and merely added-on. Consequently, this is evidence of decoupling or symbolic conformance (Caprar & Neville, 2012; Rasche & Gilbert,
Furthermore, a lack of perceived demand from industry and students means that only strengthened pressure from these stakeholders could help shift the importance of sustainability in the eyes of academics and heads of departments in marketing. There are of course notable exceptions to this with various schools around the world differentiating themselves by emphasising sustainability education and research (i.e. University of Bath, University of Auckland).

This research found that marketing departments are facing issues of inertia, as found similarly by Doherty et al. (2015) in business schools, with department and college colleagues adhering to the profit maximisation paradigm (the DSP or market logic), a lack of faculty who have the knowledge and skills to teach sustainability, a focus on research goals according to the countries system (i.e. Performance-Based Research Fund in New Zealand, Research Excellence Framework in the UK) at the expense of teaching, and a deficiency and commitment in leadership towards sustainability. These barriers exemplify the difficulty and challenge of competing institutional demands and logics (Smith, 2010)

The DSP or market logic present in the focus of business school teaching and research, and in its faculty, was seen by participants as being a major barrier to addressing the importance of sustainability to marketing. Without sustainability being seen as important by the academy, its relevance to marketing remains elusive, as merely an add-on, as a separate course in the marketing curriculum and a specialisation in marketing research; it is also not seen as ‘true’ sustainability. Scholars and research have argued that sustainability has been hijacked by corporate rhetoric (Boyle, 2015; Springett, 2003), as well as a “saddle-bag” approach to curriculum integration (Sharma & Hart, 2014). Instead of embedding sustainability, business schools may instead decouple policy and practice, or in other words, ‘greenwash’ sustainability education (Caprar & Neville, 2012; Rasche & Gilbert, 2015; Snelson-Powell et al., 2016).
This research examined the values, beliefs and attitudes related to sustainability and marketing to assess how favourable these are to sustainability’s integration within marketing (i.e. limits to growth, marketing’s responsibility). This study is the first of its kind. Consequently, the findings provide evidence about how accepting the marketing academy is of sustainability, and show that marketing faculty and students hold somewhat favourable values, beliefs and attitudes needed for sustainability’s integration in marketing academia. More specifically, students showed greater acknowledgement of sustainability, and they were more critical of society’s focus on economic growth rather than social welfare, consumption issues and society’s and marketing’s impact on creating artificial wants.

Study Two also contributes to academic knowledge by creating a typology of marketing faculty and students in relation to sustainability beliefs. These two typologies can provide unique insight into the worldviews of sustainability. Specifically, the typologies can provide suggestions about the importance of sustainability to marketing faculty and students, and provide suggestions for targeted approaches to addresses the knowledge and attitude gaps present in the academy.

Of the four faculty worldviews identified, Passionates were the most environmentally concerned and critical of the current social and economic issues of the world, as well as businesses and marketing’s role in these issues, and represented 25.40% of the sample. This was followed by Advocates for sustainability, who were critical of society’s focus on economic growth rather than social welfare, and marketing’s impact on society, consumption issues in society and had some environmental concerns, but believed that environmental issues can be fixed with technological innovations (on par with Ambivalents). Advocates represented 38.90% of the sample and was thus the most common worldview. Conversely, Ambivalents, were less supportive of sustainability, specifically they were not concerned about current social (inequality) issues, slightly environmentally concerned and ambivalent (and possibly slightly supportive) of current marketing practices, but were more critical of business obligations towards society,
economic growth, and consumption issues. Just under 5% of marketing faculty may be described as Sceptics, who were not aware of any social, environmental and economic issues in society, especially not environmentally concerned, and support the status quo of economic growth, and business and marketing practices. Chi-square analysis showed sociodemographic differences between the marketing faculty clusters (such as gender and career stage) which can provide suggestions about what (i.e. professional development, PhD courses) and who initiatives should be targeted towards, as well as content (i.e. marketing’s impact on society), to achieve greater sustainability integration.

Addressing academic conceptualisations of key concepts is vital to understanding underlying taken-for-granted assumptions and potential discursive struggles. Academic research can be used for decision making in companies and public policy, consequently academic discourse has important meaning beyond university walls (Sandberg & Polsa, 2015). In sum, there were positive, supportive, holistic and broad conceptions of sustainability by marketing faculty which may indicate that a supportive environment exists for sustainability in marketing education and research. Considering this, as well as critical views of consumption issues, marketing’s impact on the environment and society, and that business has an obligation towards society beyond profit maximisation, questions remain about why only limited research and teaching has been done on the intersection between marketing and sustainability (i.e. only 2% of top marketing journal content) (Purani et al., 2014).

The structural features of business schools, such as academic freedom and tenure system, mean that change is dependent on actors themselves having to see the need for change and to act in reflexive ways (Antonacopoulou, 2010; Rasche & Gilbert, 2015). This shows the need for incentivisation for those with interests in sustainability for their teaching and research efforts, as well as the need for professional development, and PhD specialisations and workshops for sustainability. Such courses must take on board the complex task of addressing key worldview
assumptions and goals, or institutional logics, in the business discipline (Springett, 2005; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008), specifically focusing on social and economic aspects of sustainability (Cotton et al., 2007), as well as fundamental relationships between nature, economy and humans (Dunlap et al., 2000), as demonstrated in Study Two. However, institutional change may only come about if faculty utilise various strategies, such as leveraging exogenous dynamics and engaging is disruptive tactics.

Similar clusters of worldviews were found for marketing students. Believers represent 24.48% of the student sample and are consistently critical (concerned) about environmental, economic and social sustainability issues, however they are ambivalent about technologies ability to solve environmental problems. Next, Supporters, which represent 32.44% of the sample, are critical or somewhat concerned about environmental (almost on par with Believers), economic and social sustainability issues but are ambivalent about inequality (even less concerned than Followers). Next, Followers represent 30.68% of the student sample and are mostly ambivalent to businesses obligation towards society and economic growth, and have the greatest belief of all the worldviews in technologies ability to solve environmental problem. However, Followers are more critical about consumption issues, society’s focus on economic growth rather than social welfare, inequality, and marketing’s impact on the environment and society. Lastly, Doubters, representing 12.39% of the student sample, have low ecological values and are mostly ambivalent or unconcerned about environmental, economic and social sustainability issues.

Study Two may shed light on the possibility that while issues of sustainable consumption, marketing, economic growth and inequality are recognised, academics may not see how marketing or their marketing research and education can address these issues. They might also hold simultaneous views (and possibly contradictory) of the reality of limits to growth, the possibility of an eco-crisis, and anti-anthropocentrism (Dunlap et al., 2000). It might be that these underlying assumptions about nature may clash to see why and how marketing might need
to change (Borland & Lindgreen, 2013). Consequently, professional development courses for staff, as well as undergraduate and postgraduate education for marketing students, must address these underlying assumptions and engage in critical discussion about the relationship between the economy, people and the planet (Borland & Lindgreen, 2013; Cotgrove, 1982; Dunlap et al., 2000), and the obligation of business and marketing (Belz, 2005; Belz & Peattie, 2009; Kilbourne et al., 2013; McDonagh & Prothero, 2014).

Building on how to research and teach sustainability marketing, this research provides insight into possible arenas, especially through changes agents, that can take place to advance the sustainability agenda in marketing curriculum, publications and career prospects. Through reflection on what it means to be sustainable in marketing, in curriculum and research, and what the status of such thinking is in the ‘mainstream’ marketing discourse and community, we can begin to understand how we can actively promote sustainability in the marketing discipline; or better yet, understand marketing’s place in sustainability.
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References


Appendices
Appendix

Appendix A: Interview guide

Overview

In what ways have you been involved with teaching sustainability within marketing (including curriculum)?

What about publications?

How would you describe sustainability?

• What does it seek to achieve or solve do you think?
• Where do you think this understanding comes from? Any previous experiences, education or affiliations (e.g. organizations) that may have contributed to you holding this view?
• Do you think you hold this view of sustainability in all aspects of your life? Do you think your behaviours correspond to your beliefs?
• Has your view of sustainability always been the same? Has it changed over time? Why? How?

Would you say your interests and area of publication have stayed the same or changed over time?

• Since completion of your PhD, have you always been interested in sustainability?

Sustainability and marketing’s relationship

How are marketing and sustainability related?

• Do you see the two concepts of marketing and sustainability as two different paradigms?

What does sustainability in marketing seek to achieve or solve do you think?

• Where do you think this understanding (of conflict/no conflict/marketing/sustainability) comes from? Any previous experiences, education or affiliations (e.g. organizations) that may have contributed to you holding this view? From friends? From colleagues?
• Has your/view changed over time? Why? How?
• Are they views similar to your colleagues?
• Do you feel your/view is portrayed in your scholarly work?
• Do you feel your/view is portrayed in your curriculum or teaching?
Appendix

Curriculum of sustainability in marketing

Do you see a conflict between teaching sustainability and marketing?

What would/how does sustainability look like in a marketing course?

- Do you think this view [sustainability in marketing education] would be held by your colleagues?

Do you think your marketing department encourages the integration of sustainability within the marketing curriculum? Why? How?

- What about the broader marketing academic community? Why? How?
- What are the barriers to this integration?

What is your assessment of the current teaching materials (e.g. textbook) for the integration of sustainability within marketing curriculum?

Are you satisfied with the current level of integration of sustainability within marketing?

- In your department? Curriculum?
- In academia?
- What more needs to be done? How?

What do you think marketing in the future may look like? 10 years in the future? 50 years?

Institutional environment

To what extent do you think the broader institutional environment of the market and corporate society reinforce, exasperate, or alter the pressures and logic within business schools?

- What are these pressures and logic within business schools?
- Has it always been like this? Or has it changed over time? If so, why?
- [If they see a problem] How can we overcome them?
- [If they see a problem] How have you contributed to this?

If the interviewee perceives a conflict between marketing and sustainability ask the following questions:
Appendix

To what extent do you think active resistance can shift or re-shape the dominant institutional logics and paradigms within business schools?

- What would this active resistance look like?
- What are these paradigms or dominant institutional logics?

What forms of disruptive work have been, or may be, more successful than others in educational institutions?

- Would you or have you personally partake in such activities? If you are, are other people doing it as well?
- What would/do you seek to achieve?

Are academics prevented from becoming activists within education and/or academia? Do we fear the accusation of taking an ideological stance, or of writing in an engaged way?

Are the current environmental, social and economic crises enough to envision and create a new place for the university to help in solving these crises?
Appendix B: Ethics approval for interview

HUMAN ETHICS COMMITTEE
Secretary, Lynda Griffioen
Email: human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz

Ref: HEC 2015/45/LR-PS

2 September 2015

Joya Kemper
Department of Management, Marketing & Entrepreneurship
UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY

Dear Joya

Thank you for forwarding your low risk application to the Human Ethics Committee for the research proposal titled “Comparing the worldviews of marketing and sustainability”.

I am pleased to advise that this application has been reviewed and approved.

Please note that this approval is subject to the incorporation of the amendments you have provided in your email of

With best wishes for your project.

Yours sincerely

Lindsey MacDonald
Chair, Human Ethics Committee
Appendix C: Information sheet

Department of Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship

joya.kemper@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

2 August 2015

Comparing the Worldviews of Marketing and Sustainability

Information Sheet

I am a PhD student in the Department of Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship at the University of Canterbury, New Zealand. I am working with Dr. Paul Ballantine and Dr. Michael Hall, to examine marketing faculty and student perceptions of sustainability within the marketing curriculum.

Your involvement in this project would involve an interview. The interview questions revolve around your perception of sustainability within the marketing curriculum at your institution and in the marketing academic field as a whole. The interviews will take approximately 1 hour to 1.5 hours to complete and will be voice recorded with your permission. Where possible face-to-face interviews will be held, or if geographically separated, Skype will be used to conduct the interview. As a possible follow-up to this investigation, you may be asked to answer some follow-up questions in an email.

You may receive a copy of the project results by contacting the researcher at the conclusion of the project.

Participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any stage without penalty. If you withdraw, I will remove information relating to you. This can be done before publication or submission of PhD and/or journal articles arising from the thesis (whichever is sooner).

The results of the project may be published, but you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of data gathered in this investigation: your identity will not be made public. Interview participants will be coded and an alias will be used. Your institution/university will not be published in the data/thesis; only countries will be identified. Only the PhD student and supervisors will be aware of the names of the interviewees, this is due to the nature of selection - purposeful sampling, which will require discussion about participant selection. The interview data will be kept safely and then destroyed after 10 years of the PhD research being completed. A thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.

The project is being carried out as a requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy by Joya Kemper under the supervision of Paul Ballantine, who can be contacted at paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz. He will be pleased to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, and participants should address any complaints to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

If you agree to participate in the study, you are asked to complete the consent form and return to joya.kemper@pg.canterbury.ac.nz.
Appendix D: Consent form

Comparing the Worldviews of Marketing and Sustainability

Consent Form

I have been given a full explanation of this project and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand what is required of me if I agree to take part in the research.

I understand that participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without penalty. Withdrawal of participation will also include the withdrawal of any information I have provided should this remain practically achievable.

I understand that any information or opinions I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher (PhD student and PhD supervisors) and that any published or reported results will not identify the participants or their institution. I understand that a thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.

I understand that all data collected for the study will be kept in locked and secure facilities and/or in password protected electronic form and will be destroyed after ten years.

I understand the risks associated with taking part and how they will be managed.

I understand that I am able to receive a report on the findings of the study by contacting the researcher at the conclusion of the project.

I understand that I can contact the researcher Joya Kemper or supervisor Paul Ballantine at paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz for further information. If I have any complaints, I can contact the Chair of the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human.ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

By signing below, I agree to participate in this research project.

Please return to joya.kemper@pg.canterbury.ac.nz before the commencement of the interview.

Joya Kemper
Appendix E: Final coding template

1. Support for Sustainability

1.1 Academic Community

1.1.1 Accepting

1.1.2 Journals

   1.1.2.1 Editors

   1.1.2.2 Theory-qualitative-quantitative

1.1.3 Niche or not

1.1.4 Not accepting

1.2 Non-issue-Ignorance

1.2.1 Add-on

1.3 Pressure

1.3.1 Business

1.3.2 Faculty

1.3.3 Students

1.3.4 Who’s behind

   1.3.4.1 Academia

   1.3.4.2 Business

   1.3.4.3 Education

1.4 Status Quo-Inertia

1.5 University/College/Department

1.5.1 Initiative

   1.5.1.1 Accreditation

   1.5.1.2 Deans

1.5.2 My university
1.5.2.1 Make us unique

1.5.3 Only one of few SM academics

1.5.4.1 Tensions

1.5.4 Trends in courses

1.5.5 Undergrad vs postgrad

2. Sustainability as Personal and Professional

2.1 Defining Moments

2.1.1 Aha!

2.1.2 Education

2.1.3 Personality

2.1.4 Upbringing

2.1.5 Work

2.2 Education Philosophy

2.2.1 Critical thinking

2.2.2 Encourage behaviour change

2.2.2.1 Make them do stuff

2.2.3 For employment

2.2.4 Transformative

2.3 Faculty's role

2.3.1 Academic activism

2.3.2 Institutional-management power

2.3.3 Role as educator

2.3.3.1 Integrate in all my courses

2.3.3.1.1 Stand-alone vs integration

2.3.3.2 Struggle with teaching

2.4 Role as researcher

2.4.1 Publish or perish
2.4.2 Read it

2.5 Interest Correspond with Behaviour

2.6 Something Personal

3. Worldviews

3.1 Change

3.1.1 Crisis

3.2 DSP

3.3 Sustainability

3.3.1 Environmental focus

3.3.2 Holistic

3.3.3 Why-business

3.3.4 Why-society

3.4 Sustainability in Marketing

3.4.1 Bad guy

3.4.2 Replacement

3.4.3 Teaching materials

3.4.4 Theory

3.4.4.1 4Ps

3.4.4.2 New values

3.4.4.3 Product design

3.4.4.4 Selling sustainability

3.4.4.5 Social marketing-consumption

3.4.4.6 Today's issues-enviro reality
Appendix F: Initial coding template

1. Barriers

1.1 Historical

1.1.1 Non-issue-ignorance

1.1.2 Status quo-inertia

1.2 Ideological

1.2.1 DSP

1.3 Institutional

1.3.1 Academic community not accepting

1.3.2 Business community

1.3.3 Deans

1.3.4 Journals

1.3.5 Don't publish in MKTG journals

1.3.6 Editors

1.3.7 Hard for theory

1.3.8 Publish or Perish

1.3.9 Does anyone read it?

1.4 Theoretical

1.4.1 Add-on

1.4.2 Hasn't changed

1.4.2.1 Europe ahead

1.4.3 Teach for Jobs

2. Change

2.1 Ideological

2.1.1 Educate Students

2.1.2 Shock

2.2 Institutional
Appendix

2.2.1 Development courses
2.2.2 Faculty
2.2.3 Laws
2.2.4 Publications
2.2.5 Theoretical
2.2.6 Interdisciplinary

3. Interest

3.1 Always published in sustainability
3.2 Don't always publish in sustainability

3.3 Experiences

3.3.1 Interest correspond with behaviour
3.3.2 No education
3.3.3 Personality
3.3.4 Work

4. Pressure

4.1 Business
4.2 Consumers
4.3 Faculty
4.4 Students

5. Sustainability

5.1 Environmental focus
5.2 Holistic

6. Sustainability in Marketing

6.1 Ideological

6.1.1 Changes paradigm completely
6.1.2 Get students thinking
6.1.3 Marketing causes unsustainability
6.1.4 Struggle with teaching
Appendix

6.2 Institutional

6.2.1 Academic community accepting

6.2.2 Something Personal

7.1 Theoretical

7.1.1 4Ps

7.1.2 Depressing

7.1.3 Lack of teaching materials

7.1.4 Product design

7.1.5 Research hasn't added much

7.1.6 Selling sustainability

7.1.7 Social marketing

8. Who's Behind

8.1 Academia

8.2 Business

8.3 Education
Second coding template

1. Support for Sustainability

1.1 Academic Community
   1.1.1 Non-issue-ignorance
   1.1.2 Add-on
   1.1.3 Development courses

1.2 Pressure
   1.2.1 Business
   1.2.2 Consumers
   1.2.3 Faculty
   1.2.4 Students
   1.2.5 Who's behind
      1.2.5.1 Academia
      1.2.5.2 Business
      1.2.5.3 Education

1.3 Status Quo-Inertia

1.4 University-College-Department
   1.4.1 Deans
   1.4.2 Make us unique
   1.4.3 Money
   1.4.4 Only one of few SM academics

2. Sustainability as Personal and Professional

2.1 Defining Moments
   2.1.1 Education
   2.1.2 Personality
   2.1.3 Work

2.2 Education Philosophy
   2.2.1 Critical thinking
2.2.2 Encourage behaviour change
2.2.3 For employment
2.2.4 Lightbulb
2.2.5 Make them do stuff

2.3 Faculty's Role

2.3.1 Academic activism
2.3.2 Institutional-mgmt Power
2.3.3 Journals
   2.3.3.1 Don't publish in MKTG journals
   2.3.3.2 Editors
   2.3.3.3 Publish or perish
   2.3.3.4 Read it
   2.3.3.5 Theory-qual-quant
2.3.4 Role as educator
   2.3.4.1 Struggle with teaching
2.3.5 Role as researcher

2.4 Interest Correspond with Behaviour

2.5 Something Personal

3. Worldviews

3.1 Change

3.2 DSP

3.3 Sustainability
   3.3.1 Environmental focus
   3.3.2 Holistic
   3.3.3 Why-business
   3.3.4 Why-society

3.4 Sustainability in Marketing
   3.4.1 Bad guy
3.4.1 Replacement

3.4.2 Theory

3.4.2.1 4Ps

3.4.2.2 Depressing

3.4.2.3 Hasn't changed

3.4.2.3.1 Europe ahead

3.4.2.4 New values

3.4.2.5 Product design

3.4.2.6 Research hasn't added much

3.4.2.7 Selling sustainability

3.4.2.8 Social marketing-consumption

3.4.2.9 Teaching materials

3.4.2.10 Today's issues
Appendix G: Questionnaire

Q1 Are you...

- Faculty Member/Academic
- Undergraduate Student
- Postgraduate Student (e.g. Honours, Masters)
- MBA Student
- PhD/Doctoral Student

Q2 Which discipline do you primarily reside in?

- Business
- Law
- Education
- Medicine / Health
- Social Sciences (e.g. Sociology, Anthropology)
- Mathematical, Physical and Life Sciences
- Humanities (e.g. Arts, Music, Philosophy)
- Engineering
- Agriculture, Environment and Sustainability
- Interdisciplinary Studies
- Other ________________________________________________

Q3 Do you currently or have you taught university courses?

- Yes
- No
Appendix

Q4 Which subject(s) do you major/specialise in?

☐ Marketing

☐ Management and/or Operational Systems

☐ Economics

☐ Operations and/or Supply Chain Management

☐ Accounting and/or Finance

☐ Information Systems

☐ Human Resources

☐ Strategy and/or Innovation

☐ Entrepreneurship

☐ International Business

☐ Organisational Studies

☐ Tourism and Hospitality

☐ Other ___________________________________________

Q5 Which business discipline do you reside in (majority of research)?

☐ Marketing

☐ Management

☐ Economics

☐ Operations and/or Supply Chain Management

☐ Accounting and Finance

☐ Technology and/or Operations Management

☐ Human Resources
Appendix

- Strategy and/or Innovation
- Entrepreneurship
- Organisational Studies
- International Business
- Tourism and Hospitality
- Other ___________________________________________________________________________

Q6 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements about business and government

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government should redistribute income from the better off to those who are less well off</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big business benefits owners at the expense of workers</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary working people do not get their fair share of the nation's wealth</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is one law for the rich and one for the poor</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management will always try to get the better of employees if it gets the chance</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q7 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements about business

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

418
Overall the business community has a positive impact on society

Business interests have more political power than individuals

Business interests are only directed towards profits, not the betterment of society

Businesses have an obligation to make positive contributions to society

The only proper objective of business is to maximise its profits

The purpose of business is to attend to the needs and wants of society regardless of whether these hurt the natural environment

<p>| Q8 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements about economics |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Strongly agree | Agree | Neither agree nor disagree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| Individual behavior should be determined by economic self-interest, not politics |   |   |   |   |
| Economic growth should be given priority, even if the environment suffers to some extent |   |   |   |   |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The best measure of progress is economic</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the economy continues to grow, everyone benefits</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic goals are more important than environmental goals</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We focus too much on economic measures of well-being</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We should be more concerned about social welfare (such as happiness, life satisfaction etc.) than economic growth</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reducing poverty in the world should get a higher priority than economic growth</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
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<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making income distribution more equal should get a higher priority than economic growth</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q9 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements about marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marketing creates artificial wants, leading people to buy things they do not actually need</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising helps consumers make informed choices; it does not manipulate anyone</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The market is a form of democracy – people vote for the things they approve of with their dollars</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are forces at work in modern societies which stimulate a lot of artificial wants for things we do not really need</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q10 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements about marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The marketing profession is at least partially responsible for promoting unsustainable consumption</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The marketing of consumer goods and services contributes negatively to current social problems</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The marketing of consumer goods and services contributes negatively to current environmental problems</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The only concern of marketers should be the profitability of their products/services, not the environmental consequences of their marketing activities</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There seems to be an ignorance about the limits of the planet (in terms of natural resources) in marketing</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing needs to change for it to be able to successfully integrate the concept of environmental sustainability</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q11 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements about consumption

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Western world is going to have to drastically reduce their level of consumption to combat growing environmental problems</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Western world is going to have to change what they consume, such as switching to sustainable or green products, to combat growing environmental problems</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our present way of life is much too wasteful of natural resources</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We, as a society, should drastically change our way of living to combat growing environmental problems</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future natural resource shortages will be solved by technological innovations</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When environmental problems are bad enough, technology will solve them</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We, as a society, are very preoccupied with acquiring and accumulating things</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our society's strong focus on buying things has a positive effect on us as individuals</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
<td>☐️</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix

Q12 Do you think that global warming is happening?

- Definitely yes
- Probably yes
- Probably not
- Definitely not

Q13 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements about the environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When humans interfere with nature it often produces disastrous consequences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human ingenuity will insure that we do not make the earth unlivable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humans are severely abusing the environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix

Q14 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements about the environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Despite our special abilities humans are still subject to the laws of nature</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The so-called “ecological crisis” facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q15 Who should have the **primary** responsibility to protect the environment?

- ○ The government
- ○ Business and industry
- ○ Individual citizens
- ○ The government, business and industry, and individual citizens should all have equal responsibility

Q16 How would you describe your attitude towards sustainability?

- ○ I think it is a waste of time and effort
Appendix

- I am not really bothered
- It is OK if others want to do it
- I think it is a good thing
- I am a passionate advocate

Q17 Which sustainability conception is most consistent with your own beliefs?

- Sustainability is limited to the idea of ‘keeping self or business going’.
- Sustainability is understood in terms of the environmental domain of sustainability.
- The three broad domains of economic, social and environmental are discerned and generational responsibility is acknowledged.
- Sustainability goes beyond the three domains, critically recognising the relevance of external authorities, societal rules and organisational agendas.

Q18 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements about what sustainability implies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developing new technologies to reduce the impact of harmful by-products of production</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintaining biodiversity in the local environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recycling waste products</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>A significant degree of local production and consumption</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helping people to avoid starvation and disease</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social progress which recognises the needs of everyone</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploiting natural resources for human benefit while maintaining critical natural capital</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintaining high and stable levels of economic growth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putting the needs of nature before those of humanity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q19 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements about the role marketing will have to play in sustainability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use of cradle-to-cradle design (production that is waste free)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demarketing (decrease the demand for a product)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing consumer behaviours towards more sustainable consumer behaviours</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing consumer attitudes towards more sustainable attitudes</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing, it's not a marketers job</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing green products</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand the needs of green consumers</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring the ethics and sustainability of supply chain members</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q20 Please indicate to what extent you agree sustainability knowledge is extremely important to marketing students in their overall marketing degrees

○ Strongly agree

○ Agree

○ Neither agree or disagree

○ Disagree
Appendix

☐ Strongly disagree

Q21 What is your year of study at University?

☐ 1st year
☐ 2nd year
☐ 3rd year
☐ 4th year
☐ 5th year
☐ 6th year or longer

Q22 What is the highest level of education that you have obtained?

☐ Not yet graduated
☐ Bachelors
☐ Postgraduate Honours or Masters degree
☐ MBA
☐ PhD
☐ Other ________________________________________________

Q23 Have you ever enrolled in a university course with a primary focus on ethics, sustainability, societal issues or the environment?

☐ Yes
☐ No

Q24 How many years have you been employed in academia in total?

☐ 1-5 years
☐ 6-10 years
Appendix

Q25 How many years have you spent employed in industry in total?

- 1-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 11-15 years
- 16-20 years
- 21-25 years
- 26-30 years
- 31-35 years
- 36-40 years
- 41-45 years
- 46-50 years
- 51+ years

Q26 Which country did you earn your highest level qualification?
Appendix

Q27 What is your academic rank? (i.e., lecturer, professor)

- Postdoc
- Lecturer/Senior Lecturer/Assistant Professor
- Reader
- Associate Professor
- Professor
- Other: Please enter your position ________________________________________________

Q28 Please enter your primary areas of expertise/research (i.e. business ethics, entrepreneurship)

- Research area 1 ________________________________________________
- Research area 2 ________________________________________________
- Research area 3 ________________________________________________

Q29 Please select your primary area of expertise/research?

- Consumer Behaviour
- Marketing Strategy
- Modelling
- Marketing Research
- Advertising
- Retailing
- Tourism and Hospitality
- Entrepreneurship
- Services Marketing
- International Marketing
Appendix

- Product and Brand Management
- Social Marketing
- Health and Well-being
- Ethics, Social Responsibility, and Sustainability
- Digital, Mobile, and Social Media Marketing
- Other ________________________________

Q30 Approximately how many peer-reviewed articles have you published (as author or co-author) in academic journals?
- 0
- 1-5
- 6 to 10
- 11 to 20
- 21 to 30
- 31 to 40
- 41 to 50
- 51 to 60
- 61+

Q31 Approximately how many peer-reviewed articles have you published (as author or co-author) in the Journal of Marketing, Journal of Marketing Research, Journal of Consumer Research or Marketing Science?

Q32 Do you or have you taught a course primarily focused on sustainability?
- Yes
- No
Appendix

Q33 What is your gender?

○ Male

○ Female

Q34 In which country is your current university/employment?

Q35 In which country is the university you are attending?
### Appendix

Q36 Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements about material goods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I admire people who own expensive homes, cars, and clothes</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some of the most important achievements in life include acquiring possessions</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My dream in life is to be able to own expensive things</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is really true that money can buy happiness</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't place much emphasis on the amount of material objects people own as a sign of success</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q37 In politics, where would you place yourself on the following scale?

- [ ] Very left
- [ ] Left
- [ ] Slight left
- [ ] Centre
- [ ] Slightly right
- [ ] Right
- [ ] Very right
- [ ] I don't wish to disclose
Appendix

Q38 What is your religious affiliation?

- Christianity
- Islam
- Hinduism
- Buddhism
- Judaism
- Atheist or agnostic
- None
- I don't wish to disclose
- Other ________________________________________________

Thank you for your participation, we greatly appreciate it! If you would like to enter the draw for [Prizes varied by regions and sample]. If you do not wish to enter the draw please click the "next" arrow without entering data to finish the survey.
Appendix H: Ethical approval for survey

HUMAN ETHICS COMMITTEE
Secretary, Rebecca Robinson
Telephone: +64 03 364 2987, Extn 45588
Email: human.ethics@canterbury.ac.nz

Ref: HEC 2016/30/LR-PS

17 June 2016

Joya Kemper
Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship
UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY

Dear Joya

Thank you for submitting your low risk application to the Human Ethics Committee for the research proposal titled “The Worldviews of Marketing and Sustainability”.

I am pleased to advise that this application has been reviewed and approved.

Please note that this approval is subject to the incorporation of the amendments you have provided in your email of 13th June 2016.

With best wishes for your project.

Yours sincerely

pp.

Jane Maidment
Chair, Human Ethics Committee
Appendix I: Information and consent form for survey

The State of Play of Marketing

Consent Form

Your involvement in this project involves a survey, which should last approximately 10 minutes. The survey questions revolve around marketing, consumption, business, economic and environmental issues.

There are 10 sets of questions which you will be asked to answer, the total number of questions depends on your previous answers. You will be able to go back to previous sections if you wish.

The results of the project may be published, but you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of data gathered in this investigation: your identity will not be made public.

I understand what is required of me if I agree to take part in the research.

I understand that participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without penalty. Withdrawal of participation will also include the withdrawal of any information I have provided should this remain practically achievable.

I understand what is required of me if I agree to take part in the research.

I understand that participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without penalty. Withdrawal of participation will also include the withdrawal of any information I have provided should this remain practically achievable.

I understand that any information or opinions I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher (PhD student and PhD supervisors) and that any published or reported results will not identify the participants or their institution.

I understand that a thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.

I understand that all data collected for the study will be kept in locked and secure facilities and/or in password protected electronic form and will be destroyed after ten years.

I understand the risks associated with taking part and how they will be managed.

I understand that I am able to receive a report on the findings of the study by contacting the researcher at the conclusion of the project.

By clicking on the "Next" button, I agree to participate in this research project.

The project is being carried out as a requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy by Joya Kemper under the supervision of Paul Ballantine, who can be contacted at paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz.