

Freedom through marketing is not double speak

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'Freedom through Marketing' is not Doublespeak

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Abstract

The articles comprising this thematic symposium suggest options for exploring the nexus between freedom and unfreedom, as exemplified by the British abolitionists’ anti-slavery campaign and the paradox of freedom. Each article has implications for how these abolitionists achieved their goals, social activists’ efforts to secure reparations for slave ancestors, and modern slavery (e.g., human trafficking). We present the abolitionists’ undertaking as a marketing campaign, highlighting the role of instilling moral agency and indignation through re-humanizing the dehumanized. Despite this campaign’s eventual success, its post-emancipation phase illustrates a paradox of freedom. After introducing mystification as an explanation for the obscuring rhetoric used to conceal post-emancipation violations of freedom during the West’s colonial phase, we briefly discuss the appropriateness of reparations. Finally, we discuss the contributions made by the articles in this thematic symposium.

Keywords: Paradox of freedom, anti-slavery campaigns, abolition, transatlantic slave trade, reparations, mystification, ethical blindness, human trafficking

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Prologue

Following the 50th Academy of Marketing conference on freedom through marketing, a symposium was convened to explore how freedom through marketing and ethics intersect. Given its anti-slavery—and thus freedom—connection, partly because famous son William Wilberforce helped spearhead Britain’s abolition movement (Hague, 2008; Metaxas, 2009; Oldfield, 2007), the University of Hull was an ideal venue for the conference and symposium.ⁱ To sustain the university’s commitment to exploring the freedom-slavery nexus, symposium organizers queried attendees about the relationship between freedom and marketing. This thematic symposium for *Journal of Business Ethics* reflects that relationship.

Our introductory article presents historical lessons about counter-marketing in markets characterized by inequality, injustice, and oppression. We proceed as follows. After introducing quantitative and qualitative freedom, we discuss British abolitionists’ use of counter-marketing to convince Britons to spurn slaveryⁱⁱ. Because post-abolitionist colonial occupation compromised the abolitionists’ original counter-marketing efforts, we next question the promulgation of revisionist historical accounts that are consistent with social mystification and designed to justified humanitarian imperialism by mythologizing Britain’s abolishment of slavery (Forclaz, 2015). Then, we briefly explore the appropriateness of reparations for ancestors—analogue to legal remedies to compensate consumers for injuries caused by product use—harmed by the slave trade’s legacy (Beckles, 2013; Feagin, 2004; Streich, 2002; Valls, 1999). Finally, we preview this thematic symposium’s five articles and relate them to the British abolitionists’ anti-slavery movement and freedom from injustice, inequality, and oppression for modern slaves (e.g., human trafficking). Ignoring parallels between the slave trade’s legacy and modern slavery is tantamount to protecting humanity from “understanding that, like the

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4 consumers of the past, we are dependent on the abhorrent exploitation of others” (Bravo, 2007,
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6 p.295).
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8 9 **Quantitative versus Qualitative Freedom**

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11 Given its ambiguous, value-laden, and contested nature, freedom is ethereal and
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13 problematic because it camouflages differing connotations (Foner, 1994; Gray, 1991; Taylor,
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15 2004). Freedom’s “complex historical deposit” (Williams, 2001, p.4) has limited its unified
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17 conceptualization and subjected it to semantic and ontological snags (Schut and Grassiani, 2017).
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19 Although other schemes exist for categorizing freedom (e.g., negative versus positive (Berlin,
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21 1988; Fromm, 1941), formal versus substantive (Sen, 1999)), the quantitative versus qualitative
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23 scheme is the most parsimonious (Dierksmeier and Pirson, 2010).
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29 Quantitative freedom depreciates the “intrinsic values of culture, gender differences,
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31 traditional life forms and their respective specificities, making invisible the very contexts out of
32
33 which real freedom and autonomy grow” (Dierksmeier and Pirson, 2010, p.10). Its maxim ‘the
34
35 more, the better’ and its dictum ‘homo economicus’ instrumentalizes people by ignoring their
36
37 inalienable rights (Pirson, 2017; Sen, 1999). For example, quantitative freedom’s effect on
38
39 gender inequality are artifacts of macroeconomic policy’s three gender biases: male breadwinner
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41 bias (i.e., perpetuating women’s financial dependence on men), commodification bias (i.e.,
42
43 ignoring women’s income-in-kind), and deflationary bias (i.e., slashing social service
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45 expenditures) (Gasper and Staveren, 2003; Sen, 1999). Our later discussion about implications
46
47 for Britain’s abolitionist and post-emancipation stories reflect a rupture in quantitative freedom
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49 (i.e., transition from the abolitionist’s qualitative freedom to post-emancipatory quantitative neo-
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51 liberalism).
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4 In contrast, qualitative freedom espouses self-reflective and self-constraining liberty, thus
5
6 prioritizing people’s self-actualization as social agents (Dierksmeier and Pirson, 2010). Its
7
8 maxim ‘the better, the more’ reflects a universalistic principle: people are social beings. Given
9
10 the importance of social self-identity, qualitative freedom “circumscribes to the realm of both
11
12 individual and societal liberties so that all can live in dignity and freedom” (Dierksmeier and
13
14 Pirson, 2010, p.15). By prioritizing human essence, qualitative freedom assumes each
15
16 “person...[is] a moral entity....worthy of performing moral acts and receiving moral acts”
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19 (Waytz et al., 2014, p.61).
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24 Substantive freedom, which is the capacity to achieve valued ends by ‘being and doing’,
25
26 reifies the qualitative approach by relying on capacity rather than external influence (Sen, 1999).
27
28 Qualitative freedom ensures equality and tolerance, with examples often extending from non-
29
30 Western perspectives that espouse freedom as social responsibility; hence, “Western traditions
31
32 are not the only ones that prepare us for a freedom based approach to social understanding” (Sen,
33
34 1999, p.249).
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39 Humanistic marketing, which conforms to a qualitative approach to freedom
40
41 characterized as “morally grounded, participative and relationally oriented” (Dierksmeier and
42
43 Pirson, 2010, p.20), dignifies rather than commodifies consumers (Varey and Pirsons, 2014) (i.e.,
44
45 treats them “as whole human beings with minds, hearts, and spirits”) (Kotler et al., 2010, p.4).
46
47 Humanistic marketing considers consumers’ extended well-being and creates exchanges that
48
49 enhance their lives and unleash their creativity (Varey and Pirson, 2014).
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53 ***Freedom-related Values***

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55 Although scholars may view economic development as the means and end of freedom
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57 (Sen, 1999), this perspective ignores freedom’s cluster of interrelated values (Gasper and
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4 Staveren, 2003; Nussbaum, 1995). Consequently, the importance of values related to freedom—
5
6 such as caring, empathy, self-esteem, friendship, respect, and justice—is obfuscated. In contrast,
7
8 a ‘capabilities approach’ highlights unfreedoms (e.g., women face lower education levels,
9
10 reproductive health risks, and labor market discrimination), as all “capabilities that human beings
11
12 could acquire are to be understood as freedoms” (Gasper and Staveren, 2003, p.9). This approach
13
14 also demands greater attention to internal powers and external opportunities because capabilities
15
16 often require nurturing to flourish (Crocker, 1999). Because freedom, justice, and caring are
17
18 interconnected yet distinct, freedom should encapsulate these values, as attaining it at a personal
19
20 agency level ultimately requires social justice (Staveren, 2001). Thus, any exploration of
21
22 freedom through marketing should consider violations of inequality, injustice, and oppression.
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28 **Slavery and the Paradox of Freedom**

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31 The genocidal components of Western colonial history are well-documented (Beckles,
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33 2013; Davis, 2001; Hochschild; 1999; Jones, 2011; Leach et al., 2013; Stannard, 1992).
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35 Recognizing these components exposes the sociopathological norms that Wilberforce, his
36
37 contemporaries, and slaves faced. “The colonizers had the *intent to destroy, in whole, or in part*
38
39 ethnic, ‘racial’, and religious groups that complicated the colonial project” (Leach et al., 2013,
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41 p.36). Estimates of Blacks killed by the transatlantic slave trade range from four million
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43 (Lovejoy, 1989; Rogozinki, 2000) to 60 million (Sherwood, 2012; Stannard, 1992).
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48 The debate about freedom’s evolution “has bruited in the open what we cannot stand to
49
50 hear,” namely that its construction is intertwined with the West’s historical relationship with
51
52 slavery, as evinced by the “grandeur and horrors of industrial Europe and America” (Patterson,
53
54 1991, pp.402-403). Although slavery is the underside of freedom, the slavery-freedom dyad has
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56 long resisted political and social consensus (Engerman, 2003). Compounding the complex
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4 historical trajectory of Western freedom was the parallel between enslaving the ‘other’ and self-
5 slavery to create “passive subjects over whom monarchs claimed divinely sanctioned absolute
6 rule” (Smallwood, 2014, p.111). Emancipation from self-slavery decentralized the personal
7 liberty of white men, who became the “the freest individuals the Western world had ever known”
8 (Appleby 1992, p.155) by institutionalizing slavery (Berlin, 1998; Blackburn, 1988; Davis,
9 1975).

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19 Richard Price, a friend of Thomas Jefferson, noted the incongruence between a “people
20 who have been struggling so earnestly to save themselves from slavery” and their readiness to
21 enslave others (Boyd, 1953, p.259). Explaining Western ‘expansion of freedom’ and “assigning
22 responsibility for the positive transformations of freedom” (Smallwood, 2014, p.113) makes
23 freedom problematic (Wahab and Jones, 2011). The post-emancipation political and social
24 acceptability of colonialism, or “liberalism’s contentious reformulations beyond abolition,”
25 reveal the paradox of “blurring the boundaries between slavery and abolition and the equation of
26 the latter with freedom” by questioning the “seemingly tidy and unproblematic relationship
27 between unfreedom and freedom” (Wahab and Jones, 2011, p.4). The British abolitionists’
28 legacy suggests that oppression, inequality, and injustice haunt freedom (Grant, 2013; Parijs,
29 1997; Sen, 1999), yet attaining freedom for silenced or marginalized persons means recognizing
30 it is bound by moral responsibility and respect for human dignity (Pirson, 2017).

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48 Modern management, built on capitalism and free markets, is rooted in slavery
49 (Rosenthal, 2018); for example, the transatlantic slave trade contributed substantially to British
50 and U.S. economic development (Beckert and Rockman, 2016; Draper, 2009; Hall et al., 2014;
51 Inikori, 1987; Johnson, 2010; Mintz, 1986). As “one of the most ambitious experiments in social
52 engineering of the early modern era: the establishment of slave plantations” (Osterhammel and
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4 Petersson, 2005, p.47), the commodification of slaves was instrumental in re-structuring Western
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6 economies (Black, 2015). Providing new consumer goods to “stimulate the body, mind and
7
8 senses: sugar, tobacco, caffeine...coffee and chocolate” slavery’s profitability relied on
9
10 substantially altering the Western consumers’ palate (Black, 2015, p.40).
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13 14 **Abolitionists’ Campaign**

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16 Because “for the abolitionists, freedom was the avowed central issue in the debate over
17
18 slavery” (Drescher, 1997, p.135), their society-transforming efforts comprised a prototypical
19
20 campaign for freedom through marketing. Their campaign, which refuted dehumanizing Blacks
21
22 as sub-human apes, vile brutes, or three-fifths of a person (in the antebellum U.S.), involved
23
24 mass media and emotive appeals (Drescher, 1997, 2009; Haslam et al., 2013; Hastings, 2017;
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26 Smith, 2012; Woods, 2015). Ultimately, benevolent appeals meant to arouse compassion and
27
28 sympathy for slaves and retributive appeals meant to rebuke slave traders spurred Britons into
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30 action (Woods, 2015).
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36 Their campaign serves as an exemplar for social marketing (Hastings, 2017), social and
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38 human rights movements (Drescher, 1997; Smith, 2012), boycotting (Irving et al., 2002), and the
39
40 evolution of public relations (Kotler and Mindak, 1978). The abolitionists invented and used
41
42 many of the techniques we now associate with social marketing campaigns (Hastings, 2017;
43
44 Hochschild, 2006). The key elements of strategic marketing planning were evident in mobilizing
45
46 anti-slavery sentiment and actualized through tactical deliberation; for example by using
47
48 petitions, marches, logos, boycotts, logos, fliers and mass media outlets like newsletters
49
50 (Hochschild, 2006). The campaign’s success can be gauged only through its appeal to diverse
51
52 British audiences and its ability to transform the public’s moral belief “from unreflective to
53
54 vehement condemnation” (Woods, 2015, p.677).
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4 Campaign logos were ubiquitous and essential to raising awareness, interest, curiosity,
5
6 and a desire for action (Smith, 2012). Perhaps the quintessential campaign logo was Josiah
7
8 Wedgwood's seal, which depicted a kneeling Black slave below the caption 'Am I not a man and
9
10 a brother'. Although this image would be unacceptable today, it was disseminated to Britons
11
12 conditioned to viewing Blacks as abnegated from fundamental human qualities.
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15
16 From the 'Negro-ape metaphor' to Nazi propaganda about 'Jews as humanity's vermin'
17
18 (Lott, 1999; Mieder, 1982; Potts, 1997), dehumanizing rhetoric has been an insidious precursor
19
20 of genocidal acts (Bain et al., 2013; Staunton, 1994; Zimbardo, 2011). Dehumanization is the
21
22 "very phase where the death spiral of genocide" becomes acceptable (Staunton, 1994, p.214). In
23
24 contrast, humanization begins with empathizing or imagining other people's perspectives, i.e.,
25
26 having a theory of mind (Fiske, 2009; Halpern and Weinstein, 2004; Harris and Fiske, 2009).
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31 Wedgwood's rhetorical self-reflective question re-humanized Blacks as 'men' and
32
33 'brothers' worthy of empathy and compassion. Other iconic campaign images, such as slaves
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35 tightly packed into the interior of the infamous slave ship Brookes, aroused moral indignation by
36
37 depicting slave traders' brutality (Woods, 2015). Although criticized for objectifying slaves,
38
39 Wedgwood's seal forced viewers to imagine their experiences, and imagination is central to the
40
41 re-humanization process that bridges humanization of 'others' through empathetic imagination
42
43 (Nafisi, 2008; Oelofsen, 2009). Conversely, the lack of imagination is indifference, which
44
45 renders 'others' lives and subjectivities invisible (Oelofsen, 2009). With 7000 posters hung
46
47 nationwide and reproduced in newspapers, books, and pamphlets, these images reminded
48
49 viewers of the cruelty slaves encountered (Lubbock, 2007; Smith, 2012).
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54 The roughly 130 slave deaths about the slave ship Zong fomented Britons' moral
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56 indignation towards the slave trade. Olaudah Equiano—the first freed British slave—
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4 spearheaded the ship owners' subsequent trial for manslaughter. The Zong affair provided
5
6 pivotal motivation for establishing the Society for Effecting the Abolition of the Slave Trade in
7
8 1787. The following year, Parliament passed its first Slave Trade Act to regulate conditions
9
10 slaves encountered during transit. Visual campaign elements and stories conditioned slaves to
11
12 pursue their emancipation, as the 'Ode to Philanthropy' in the London Chronicle captured, 'All
13
14 proclaim fair freedom's reign' (Drescher, 2012). Wedgewood's iconic seal reflected abettors'
15
16 endorsement of the abolitionist movement (Clarkson, 1808).
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21 Paralleling these public displays were consumer boycotts, which tangibilized support for
22
23 the anti-slavery movement. In a prelude to modern consumer boycotts, U.S. abolitionists urged
24
25 consumers to buy goods made by free workers (Glickman, 2004). These abolitionists, who were
26
27 proponents of early U.S. Evangelical values and similar to modern consumer activists, viewed
28
29 the "consumption system as the enemy and the blind and embedded consumers as an inextricable
30
31 and essential part of that system" (Kozinets and Handelman, 2004, p.702).
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36 Religious networks helped to disseminate the British abolitionists' appeals (Drescher,
37
38 1977). Spiritual allegiances bolstered the abolitionist movement's leading protagonists (Lysack,
39
40 2012). The Clapham sect, a group of Anglican evangelists, was Wilberforce's most ardent
41
42 abettor; the Quakers supported Thomas Clarkson; the Methodists supported Equiano after his
43
44 conversion to Christianity; and the Catholics supported Daniel O'Connell. These protagonists'
45
46 writings show "how their interior spiritual lives nourished their activism and engagement with
47
48 the abolition movement" (Lysack, 2012, p.169). Central to their appeals was re-humanizing the
49
50 self before re-humanizing 'the other' and proselytizing that all human beings, but especially
51
52 Christians, were innately compassionate. "[V]ivid, unforgettable descriptions of acts of great
53
54 injustice done to their fellow human being" (Hochschild, 2006, p.366) were instrumental to
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4 activating the moral agency and indignation essential to bridging the public-slave lacuna
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6 (Hasting, 2017; Woods, 2000). Such descriptions dovetail current theories about launching
7
8 successful social movements, advancing social harmony between belligerent groups, and
9
10 countering dehumanization (Bain et al., 2014). Hence, the abolitionists tapped into public
11
12 opposition to the prevailing societal myth and provided an alternative.
13
14

15
16 In early 19th century Britain, anti-slavery messages proliferated when they began
17
18 appealing to an expanding middle-class consciousness (Oldfield, 2012). Already dissatisfied with
19
20 their ruling elite, the loss of the American colonies heightened the middle classes' self-referential
21
22 reasons for abolishing slavery as a "way of reaffirming [Britain's] unique commitment to
23
24 liberty" (Colley, 2005, p.354). This era was denoted by intensifying public "enthusiasm for
25
26 parliamentary reform, for religious liberalisation...for virtually anything...that might prevent a
27
28 similar national humiliation in the future" (Colley, 2005, p.143). Although the Zong massacre
29
30 impelled moral indignation towards slave traders, these traders also represented the British elite
31
32 class (Pettigrew, 2007). Given slavery's continuing legality in the U.S., British anti-slavery
33
34 sentiment became an "emblem of national virtue" that served to "rebut American pretensions to
35
36 superior freedoms" (Colley, 2005 p.54).
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44 Anti-slavery appeals were diverse because their proponents were diverse: radicals who
45
46 struggled for the rights of men, employees who were empathetic to 'the fellow oppressed',
47
48 employers who viewed slavery as an affront to free-market economies, and traditionalists who
49
50 still believed the British system embraced freedom (Colley, 2005). Consequently, Britons
51
52 restored their reputation as champions of moral integrity, with the abolishment of slavery used as
53
54 "irrefutable proof...[Britain's] power was founded on religion, on freedom and on moral calibre"
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4 (Colley, 2005, p.359). Britons' establishing the Society for the Abolition Slave Trade in May
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7 1787 was not coincidental (Oldfield, 2012).
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9 **Mystifying the Past and Present**

10
11 Social myths with a strong ideological component or infused with beliefs and values
12
13 promulgating by the dominant group's weltanschauung often "mystify or mask unsettling, social
14
15 or political realities" (Dholakia and Firat, 2016, p.406). People adopt these myths to create self-
16
17 mystification (i.e., self-delusion and cultural mystification) and self-justification experiences
18
19 (Becker, 1997; Dholakia and Firat, 2016). Fundamentally, mystification is "confusion between
20
21 appearance and reality, between knowledge and opinion" (Dholakia, 2016, p. 401) that obscures
22
23 social reality by "masking or suppressing external social challenges to the dominant group"
24
25 (Hirschman, 1993, p.538). Essential to promoting injurious or maladaptive ideas, mystification
26
27 can entail "the fostering of delusional consciousness, a consciousness that suppresses the self-
28
29 interest or class interest of the adopters and supplants it with a consciousness that is either
30
31 diversionary or deflective or (more insidiously) oppositional and injurious" (Dholakia and Firat,
32
33 2016, p.407). Dominant groups use mystification to legitimize their social control identity
34
35 projects (Eagleton, 1991). Capitalist elites use mystical associations (e.g., plutonomy, freedom,
36
37 opportunity, and enterprise) to celebrate growing social inequality, thus rendering it "invisible,
38
39 innocuous, acceptable, or even celebrated" (Dholakia and Firat, 2016, p.407).
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49 Mystification relies on 'bounded awareness' and 'bounded ethicality' (i.e., cognitive
50
51 constraints that make people unaware their decisions are counter to their values and principles)
52
53 (Chugh and Bazerman, 2007; Chugh et al., 2005). Related to 'ethical blindness' (i.e., "temporary
54
55 inability of a decision maker to see the ethical dimension of a decision at stake" (Palazzo et al.,
56
57 2012, p.325)), these cognitive constraints can cause "good people to behave in pathological ways
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4 that are alien to their nature” (Zimbardo 2007, p.195; also see Bandura, 2002; Tenbrunsel and
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6 Smith-Crowe, 2008). Ethical blindness tends to shift ethical decision making from a rational
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8 process often rooted in Kantian or utilitarian principles to an automatic, intuitive, or unconscious
9
10 process (Haidt, 2012; Sonenshein, 2007). Situational pressures, institutional pressures, and rigid
11
12 framing foster ethical blindness (Pallazzo et al., 2012).
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16 ‘Frames’ (i.e., “mental structures that simplify and guide our understanding of a complex
17
18 reality” (Schoemaker and Russo, 2004, p.21)) limit ethical and moral decisions to an already
19
20 accepted weltanschauung (Weick, 1995). “[B]y masking some elements and highlighting others,
21
22 frames make people blind to some aspects of a problem” (Pallazzo et al., 2013, p.327). ‘Rigid
23
24 framing’, which occurs when a strong frame obscures alternative frames that would have
25
26 provided a fuller perspective (Schoemaker and Russo, 2001), can induce ethical and moral
27
28 reasoning tied to a “narrow and self-referential closed concept of reality” (Pallazzo et al., 2013,
29
30 p.327). To avoid such reasoning and consider a broader range of options, people should rely on a
31
32 repertoire of frames (Schoemaker and Russo, 2001; Weick, 1995). When competing frames are
33
34 silenced, discourse counter-constructions become unthinkable or unmentionable and
35
36 presupposed discourse assumes greater dominance (Hall, 2003).
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43 Restricting frames can lead to mental microcosms (i.e., rigid in-group weltanschauung-
44
45 infused interpretations) that presume people’s decisions are ethical or moral because they already
46
47 have all relevant knowledge (Lakoff, 2004). Moral imagination—“an ability to imaginatively
48
49 discern various possibilities for acting within a given situation and to envision the potential help
50
51 and harm that are likely to result from a given action” (Johnson 1993, p.202)—is essential to
52
53 overcoming such microcosms. Sadly, many Westerners’ reliance on a moral disengagement
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55 frame for assessing the appropriateness of reparations for slave ancestors is a product of their
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4 restricted moral imagination about the transatlantic slave trade's legacy and mystification of
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6 post-emancipation slavery (Brooks, 2004; Ulrich, 2001).
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9 *Mystifying Post-emancipation Slavery*

10
11 Abolishing slavery became the grounds for re-asserting the British Empire's moral
12
13 superiority, which legitimized its post-abolitionist colonial projects and "its particular claim to
14
15 speak for those who were too weak to speak for themselves" (Oldfield, 2007, p.1). "Slavery has
16
17 become spectacularly mythologised within English culture" (Wood, 2007, p.7) through national
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19 aggrandizement (e.g., re-created post-abolitionist imperialistic discourse, celebrated moral
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21 leadership, self-congratulatory claims about protecting 'the weak') (Oldfield, 2007). A new form
22
23 of humanitarian imperialism began to define Britain and characterize a pan-European civilizing
24
25 mission in Africa (Forclaz, 2015). Anti-slavery ceremonials typically positioned abolitionism as
26
27 the noblest chapter in Britain's history of freedom, lauding Britons for their independence,
28
29 freedom loving, idealism, bravery, and stewardship (Oldfield, 2007).
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34 Ironically, "[t]he triumph of anti-slavery ideas...gave a new life to British racial
35
36 prejudice" because the economic and social benefits to emancipated Blacks were "muted by state
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38 interventions whenever the free market seemed to be to the advantage of black over white
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40 interests" (Huzzey, 2012, p.209). The beneficent despotism that characterized 19th century
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42 Britain was partially a racist response to slave emancipation, as international slavery continued to
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44 yield handsome returns to British investors (Cooper et al., 2000; Drescher, 2009). Britain's
45
46 formal abolition of slavery paralleled a rise in its informal entanglement with U.S. slavery to the
47
48 extent that "even more than in its early days of development, slavery showed all the signs of
49
50 being a vigorous global economic system" (Wavlin, 2011, p.201). The racism that fuelled the
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52 slave trade evolved into "freed individual slaves whilst justifying the domination of entire
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4 nations” (Holt, 1992, p.17). Hence, the case for British colonialism showed the ongoing
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6 economic viability of slave labor well after emancipation (Drescher, 1997).
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9 Rather than focusing on the slaves’ emancipation or slavery’s abolishment, Britons
10 mythologized the abolitionists’ legacy (Oldfield, 2007). Britain’s slavery heritage fixated on
11 slavery as the slave trade, thus relegating it to a regrettable maritime activity of the distant past
12 (Beech, 2001). Defining slavery from a non-Black perspective silences representation of what
13
14 occurred to the people who endured slavery and discounts Black and female activists’
15
16 contributions to abolitionism (Cashmore and Jennings, 2001).
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23 ‘Abolitionist discourse’—the type of post-genocidal amnesia that characterized Britain’s
24 national branding—perverts national mythologies via revisionist historical accounts (Waterton
25 and Wilson, 2009). Such discourse, recounted during the U.K.’s bicentennial commemoration of
26
27 abolitionism, focused on (1) ensuring Britons they live in better times by ‘distancing the past’,
28
29 (2) assigning responsibility to the institution of slavery rather than to governments, businesses, or
30
31 persons, (3) aggrandizing Britons as moral agents and thus stressing their benevolence, and (4)
32
33 deflecting blame by, for example, inverting racism (i.e., blaming victims for their mistreatment)
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35 (Beech 2001; Oldfield, 2007; Waterton and Wilson, 2009). By mystifying the abolitionists’
36
37 legacy, this commemoration perpetuated a positive national image while minimizing freedom
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39 from prolonged injustices (Paton, 2009; Paton and Webster, 2009; Streich, 2002; Waterton and
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41 Wilson, 2009).
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50 In Western histories, “explicit and strong self-criticism for past generations’ genocide, or
51 other mass violence, is a rarity...[that shows] the *absence*, rather than the presence, of self-
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53 criticism for the in-group’s mass violence” (Leach et al., 2013, p.47). Genocide psychologists
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55 and historians attribute this lack of self-criticism to memory repressing, limited monitoring, and
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4 evaluating events as peripheral and meaningless, which contributes “to the same self-serving
5 bias, aimed at silencing past contents capable of disadvantaging present-day social belonging”
6
7 (Leone and Mastrovito, 2010, p.15). What emerges is collective false memories or shared
8
9 selective representations of the past (Volpato and Licata, 2010), enabling a culture to “retain
10
11 from the past only what still lives or is capable of living in the consciousness of the groups
12
13 keeping the memory alive” (Halbwachs, 1980, p.80). By managing collective memories, in-
14
15 groups can shape their society’s weltanschauung because “the past [can] be continually...re-
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17 made, reconstructed in the interests of the present” (Bartlett, 1932, p.309), thus legitimizing
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19 current in-group actions (Volpato and Licata, 2010).
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26 Politicians tend to shield their constituents from moral doubt attributable to ancestral
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28 wrongdoing. Achieving personal agency for people subject to oppression, inequality, or injustice
29
30 requires appreciating how freedom complements social justice and caring (Nussbaum, 1995;
31
32 Staveren, 2001), as evinced by the abolitionists’ appeals to moral agency (Hastings, 2017).
33
34 However, social justice and caring also relate to links between political and economic forces,
35
36 which means freedom is intersectional and environmentally bound (Sen, 1999). To promote
37
38 freedom and counter prevailing socio-political and economic dogma, British abolitionists
39
40 aroused empathy and moral agency or appealed to retributive and moral indignation. As
41
42 abolitionist Mary Wollstonecraft noted, “it is unsustainable to have a defence of freedom of
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44 human beings that separates some people whose liberties matter from others not to be included in
45
46 that favoured category” (Sen, 1999, p.116).
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53 The post-emancipation legacy of colonialism problematizes the story of freedom from the
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55 slave trade (Wahab and Jones, 2011). Calls for reparations could be considered counter-
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4 marketing that recognizes ignoring historical injustices to Blacks is tantamount to ignoring their
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6 voices as wholesome, which is a counter-marketing prerequisite (Kotler, 1973).
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9 **Replacing Rhetoric with Reparations**

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11 When oppression, injustice, and inequality are substantial, like that caused by the
12
13 transatlantic slave trade, implications for using reparations for the victims and possibly their
14
15 ancestors are ethically daunting. Do policy makers risk their idealized national identity by facing
16
17 specters or phantoms from the past (Derrida, 1993)? For example, poverty in Europe’s African
18
19 colonies was a byproduct of creating European wealth and luxury via the slave trade (DuBois,
20
21 1965). The human rights abuses of this trade produced ‘unjust enrichment’ (i.e., to possess
22
23 “property, money, or benefits which in justice and equity belong to another” (Ballentine and
24
25 Anderson, 1969, p.1320)) for Westerners. Obfuscating discussions about white privilege as the
26
27 foundation of Western societies arising from slavery-derived economic gains normalizes ‘unjust
28
29 impoverishment’ (i.e., “conditions of those who have suffered at the hands of those who have
30
31 been unfairly enriched” (Feagin, 2004, p.51)). Thus, how can injured parties overcome the
32
33 ‘magic of mystification’ nations often use to maintain a social self-image as moral and humane
34
35 champions of global freedom?
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39 A society’s wealth distribution is ‘just’ only if the original acquisitions of holdings did
40
41 not usurp anyone’s rights (Nozick, 1974). Regarding the slave trade, the lack of reparations and
42
43 affirmative action needed to rectify previous wrongs means ignoring the slave trade’s history and
44
45 its aftermath (Valls, 1999). Because injustices inflicted on Blacks via the slave trade were more
46
47 extensive than the injustices inflicted on other racial groups, reparations are justifiable despite
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49 the ‘British press’ using inverted racism to discourage an open dialogue (Waterton and Wilson,
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51 2009).
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4 Full reparation payments for the ancestors of Black slaves would total trillions of dollars
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6 (Feagin, 2004; Marketti, 1990). Major international reparations efforts are ongoing. In 1991,
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8 representatives to the first Pan-African Conference on Reparations for African Casualties of
9
10 European Colonialism called for “the international community to recognize that there is a unique
11
12 and unprecedented moral debt owed to African peoples which has yet to be paid—the debt of
13
14 compensation to the Africans as the most humiliated and exploited people of the last four
15
16 centuries of modern history.” The Caricom Reparations Committee is a twelve-nation committee
17
18 demanding compensation from the U.K. and other European colonial powers “for the Crimes
19
20 against Humanity of Native Genocide, the Transatlantic Slave Trade and a racialized system of
21
22 chattel Slavery.” Caricom’s lobbying of the U.N. General Assembly lead to recognizing 2015 to
23
24 2024 as the “International Decade for People of African Descent” (UNGA, 68/237, 2013).
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26 Rather than mere statements of regret, Caricom’s ten-point plan includes full formal apologies,
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28 compensatory reparations (e.g., debt cancellation), and affirmative action targeting Blacks’
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30 health and educational disparities.
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38 An official apology and reparations remain key concerns among slave trade ancestors
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40 (Tibbles, 2008). British sentiment is mixed. Although two BBC polls showed most Britons—
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42 91.1% and 67%, respectively—opposed to an apology, a different poll showed 62.8% supported
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44 it (Tibbles, 2008). The U.K. government’s stance remains that slavery was legal until 1807, so it
45
46 cannot “formally apologise for it and leave itself open to claims to compensation” (Tibbles,
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48 20008, p.300). Unfortunately, current manifestations of slavery, such as human trafficking, will
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50 continue to resist change until the transatlantic slave trade’s legacy is fully recognized.
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Modern Slavery

The transatlantic slave trade was the birth of modern slavery because it shows “that the spontaneous dynamic of civil society...in the modern sense of the term...is also pregnant with disaster and mayhem...[and] destructive patterns of human conduct” (Blackburn, 1998, pp.5-6). In essence, transatlantic slavery *was* modern slavery—a massive and ongoing tragedy with death estimates ranging from 12 million to 40 million persons (Bales, 1999; Gilroy, 1993; ILO, 2018; Kapstein, 2006). Dissociating modern slavery from the transatlantic slave trade obfuscates the “structural and systemic similarities in the two phenomena by mystifying and thus concealing the full structural participation of ‘legitimate’ enterprises and institutions in modern trafficking in humans” (Bravo, 2007, p.256). Moreover, by disavowing the role of race and racism (Davidson, 2015), modern abolitionist activists’ calls for freedom shift responsibility for slavery from the underlying structural and dominant institutional apparatus that nurtured slavery (Bernstein, 2010).

Although modern slavery is characterized more by poverty than color (Bales, 2004), making it colorblind discounts victims living in nations once colonized by Western imperialists who embraced a racial superiority dogma (Davidson, 2015). Colorblind activists engage in a modern ‘white (wo)man’s burden’ (Kempadoo, 2015) or ‘rescue industry’ that exculpates the Northern Hemisphere’s industrial countries—the largest profitters from global trades in trafficked (especially sexual) labor (Belser et al, 2005)—from benefits attributable to structures and systems derived from colonialism (McGrath and Mieres, 2014).

Although transatlantic and modern slavery differ somewhat, the same global economic structures connect them (Bravo, 2007). Temporally distancing modern slavery from transatlantic slavery enables neo-abolitionist policy makers to relegate the latter’s legacy to history’s trash bin

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4 and condemn modern slavery as a horror compelling a moral crusade against unconscionable evil
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6 (Forclaz, 2015). Shifting the problem of modern slavery to developing nations “absolve[es] the
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8 West from complicity in sustaining contemporary conditions of exploitation, force and violence
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10 in labor markets” (Davidson, 2015, p.15). Moreover, modern slaves risk deportation as illegal
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12 immigrants if they complain to authorities (Davidson, 2015). Thus, the cycle of mystification
13
14 continues to reinforce the illusion of noble saviors rescuing ‘mostly brown people’ (Rothschild,
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19 2011).

21 Exacerbating denial of the transatlantic slave trade as nascent modern slavery are calls for
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23 ‘managed race migration’, which is rooted in the slave and colonial states’ efforts to oversee the
24
25 migration of people considered ‘outsiders and sub-persons’ (Davidson, 2015). Many U.S. and
26
27 U.K. policy makers demonize immigrants with blatantly dehumanizing rhetoric, referring to
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29 them as a flood, an invasion, aliens, leeches, bloodsuckers, and parasites (Musolff, 2015; Nevins,
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31 2001). The language of modern slavery must be shunned before further dehumanizing its victims
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33 within an ideographical discourse or “taken-for-granted ‘naturalized’ world of common sense”
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35 (Hall, 2003, p.90). Hence, we dedicate the remainder of this article to reviewing the thematic
36
37 symposium articles’ contribution to the paradox of freedom that underpins discussions about
38
39 slavery. We highlight implications for grasping the British abolitionists’ legacy and how anti-
40
41 slavery activists can emancipate modern slavery’s victims.
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48 **Thematic Symposium Overview**

49

50 Ron Hill’s “Freedom of the Will and Consumption Restrictions: A Consideration of
51
52 Vulnerable Consumer,” which serves as a reminder of the limited studies examining abnegations
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54 of consumer free will, reflects marketing’s dearth of qualitative freedom studies (Dirksmeier,
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56 2014). Because free will is intertwined with “moral responsibility, love and friendship, and the
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4 dignity of the person” (Hill, p.X), examining it reifies freedom within a family of values. Hill
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6 argues that restricting free will can activate vulnerable people’s retro-coping mechanisms to
7
8 attain freedom. His discussion on commodification as dehumanization relates to the experiences
9
10 of Black slaves because it highlights humanness as the abnegateds’ transcendental goal.
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14 “[S]laves were the active agents of their own emancipation” (Matthews, 2006, p.2) and
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16 abolitionists subsequently used rebellions, which slaves actualized as self-transcendence, in their
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18 anti-slavery campaigns. Abolitionists “sympathized with, justified, and positively conceptualized
19
20 and esteemed the slave’s resistance to enslavement” (Matthews, 2006, p.12). However, ‘bottom
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22 up—top down’ emancipation was contested because many abolitionists reluctantly reified slave
23
24 revolts while other abolitionists promoted slave uprisings as self-defense against oppression
25
26 (Midgley, 1992). Without slave revolts, “the British anti-slavery movement would have been
27
28 non-existent” (Matthews, 2006, p.5). Perhaps the key event in abolishing slavery, the Jamaican
29
30 revolt of 1831 was decisive in precipitating emancipation (Green, 1976; Heuman, 1996).
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36 By managing the parliamentary and associative plantation plutocracy’s retributive action
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38 against the rebels, Wilberforce used the U.K.’s abolitionist movement to synergize revolts
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40 abroad. Arguing that unbearable conditions provided ‘just cause’ while fearing slave revolts
41
42 could stall government-steered slave reforms, Wilberforce positioned the revolts as evidence
43
44 ‘pledges for change’ should be formalized into action. Thus, Hill’s account dovetails a ‘bottom
45
46 up—top down’ approach to actualizing freedom through marketing, with grassroots activists
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48 guided and supported by public policy makers and vice versa. Non-cooperation between state
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50 and grassroots organizations challenging modern slavery remains a chronic problem. For
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52 governments and U.N. agencies to emancipate the world from modern slavery, “they must
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4 partner with groups that can offer slaves a way to pull themselves up from bondage” and
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7 “encourage groups that empower slaves to free themselves” (Skinner, 2002, p.67).
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9 Wilberforce faced a classic ‘wicked problem’, i.e., an intractable and inherently complex
10 problem (Houghton and Tuffley, 2015; Rittel and Weber, 1973). With Rhino horn trafficking as
11 the exemplar, “An Ethical Marketing Approach to Wicked Problems: Macromarketing for the
12 Common Good” by Thomas Pittz, Susan Steiner, and Julie Pennington, posits that the common-
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14 good perspective is superior for addressing such problems. They argue the breadth of
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23 stakeholders in complex market systems precludes reliance on distributive justice solutions.

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Wildlife crime in the form of poaching is the most immediate threat to wild rhinoceroses (as well
as other endangered species) and is a direct outcome of the marketing system’s failure. Although
the suggestion to legalize Rhino horn sales seemingly would provoke animal rights activists and
conservationists, it encourages re-examining horn consumption from the perspective of often-
silenced local or community stakeholders for whom the Rhino’s full value cannot be optimized
without considering the benefits of Rhino farming.

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The common-good perspective has a long and established etiology from Aristotle to
Rawls. Although Western political ideology traditionally links justice to the common good, “it is
critical that the sources of *caritas* (charity) and mercy be recognized, respected, and reinforced as
indispensable educators for and aspects of the common good” (Keys, 2013, p.244). Justice may
cause peace indirectly, yet “charity surpasses justice [because due] to its very nature it causes
peace...by forging true and good union within and among human beings” (Keys, 2013, p.253).

Management research largely ignores a common-good perspective (Cook, 2003; Crane,
2013). Consider the dearth of studies on corporate culpability for modern slavery, i.e., “denial of
slavery in management studies” (Cook, 2003, p.1895), which has spurred calls for post-colonial

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4 studies in management sciences (Westwood and Jack, 2007). Obfuscating slavery’s history
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6 disregards modern slavery’s victims while obscuring exploitive corporate policies. A common-
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8 good approach could shed light on modern slavery by unveiling stakeholders like the
9
10 multinational corporations that permitted child labor in sweat shop industries (Klein, 2009).
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14 In “Emancipatory Ethical Social Media Campaigns: Fostering Relationship Harmony
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16 and Peace,” Arsalan Ghouri, Pervaiz Akhtar, Maya Vachkova, Muhammad Shahbaz, and Aviral
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18 Tiwari consider stifled disagreement between belligerent communities; specifically, Indians and
19
20 Pakistanis. They queried Pakistani respondents to validate relational musicology as a way to
21
22 foster social harmony by imagining the possibilities of cross-group friendship. Although they do
23
24 not advocate a dual Indian-Pakistani national anthem, Ghouri et al. stress the potential of
25
26 imaginary emancipatory ethics, echoing research validating the role of imagining cross-group
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28 friendship as a way to foster greater cross-group understanding (Crisp and Turner, 2009; Husnu
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30 and Crisp, 2010).
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36 Emancipatory ethics shifts the focus from state-centric spheres of influence and
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38 understanding to eliminating the suffering of society’s most vulnerable people (McDonald,
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40 2007). Social activists, as agents of emancipatory ethics, can refute a status quo’s maladaptive
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42 rhetoric. Like Pittz et al.’s call to recognize local voices in discourses about selling Rhino horns,
43
44 Ghouri et al.’s call for a wider emancipatory appeal echoes Wilberforce and his contemporaries’
45
46 approach to mass mobilization through protest and petitions. Unfortunately, anti-trafficking
47
48 activists have breached the emancipatory ethics of representing modern slavery’s victims while
49
50 exposing state-centric policies that dehumanize legal immigrants as criminals or ‘illegals’
51
52 (Sharma, 2005). Continuing state-centric conformity in anti-trafficking campaigns contributes to
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54 mystifying the “role of nation-states in the process of migration” by concealing the causes of
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4 “knowing why there is a lack of safe migration routes available” (Sharma, 2005, p.106).

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6 Moreover, emancipatory ethics suggests that “some of our strongest allies in ending slavery will
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8 be freed slaves. As more are liberated, they will guide us to better detection and better re-
9
10 integration” (Bales, 2009, p.17).

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14 In “Addressing the Ethical Challenge of Market Inclusion in Base of the Pyramid
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16 Markets: A Macromarketing Approach,” Anaka Aiyar and Srinivas Venugopal assess Vietnam’s
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18 public policy for providing greater transformational health services to bottom-of-the-pyramid
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20 consumers. They depart from traditional bottom-of-the-pyramid studies that consider ‘profit
21
22 seeking and poverty alleviation’ intrinsic to neo-liberal government approaches, i.e., assuming
23
24 quantitative freedom lifts people at the pyramid’s bottom (Varman et al., 2012). Instead, they
25
26 espouse market inclusion as necessitating public policy interventions that extend the ‘profit
27
28 seeking and profit alleviation’ logic of neo-liberal governmentality, echoing the proposition that
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30 “eradication of poverty is the responsibility of governments” (Hill and Adrangi, 1999, p.145).

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34 Rooted in Rawlsian principles of ‘justice as fairness’, calls for a moral and ethical foundation to
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36 alleviate bottom-of-the-pyramid problems are proliferating (Dembek et al., 2016; Hahn, 2009).

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40 Perhaps the most radical and yet optimistic and simple solution for decreasing global
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42 economic inequality is a 1% tax on aggregate income paid by wealthier countries to poorer
43
44 countries as compensation for the former’s cultural and environmental exploitation of the latter
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46 (Pogge, 2004; Scott et al., 2011). Alternatively, governments could help actualize their citizens’
47
48 freedoms via policies that mandate decent living conditions for all, such as a liveable minimum
49
50 wage or ‘worker self-directed enterprises’ that enable partial employee ownership (Kotler, 2002;
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52 Nussbaum, 1999; Sen, 1999). Although our abolitionist example focused on the promotion ‘P’ of
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54 marketing, other counter-marketing interventions pertain to freedom through marketing.
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4 However, complications may arise when market and policy issues relate to objectification,
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6 discrimination, violence, and cultural sexism in which “subordination or refusal to acknowledge
7
8 the identity of others” becomes normalized (Hein et al., 2016, p.226).
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11 In “Pathways to Civic Engagement with Big Social Issues: An Integrated Approach,”
12
13 Dionysis Skarmeas, Constantinos Leonidou, Charalampos Saridakis, and Giuseppe Musarra
14
15 advocate using civic engagement to resolve massive problems, such as global warming and
16
17 climate change, income inequality, and world poverty and hunger. They develop and validate a
18
19 personal civic engagement scale meant to assess donation behavior, support for socially
20
21 responsible purchases, and positive word-of-mouth communications about a cause. Skarmeas et
22
23 al. show that social value orientation, moral identity, and belief-in-a-just-world can create
24
25 awareness of adverse consequences, shape attitudes, and encourage a sense of responsibility and
26
27 obligation.
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34 Civic engagement, through landmark petitions to Parliament, illustrates Wilberforce’s
35
36 strategy, the “decisive shift...[from] individual civic participation to a focus on collective action
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38 events” (Samson et al., 2005, p.675), and the aforementioned ‘top down—bottom up’ approach.
39
40 Skarmeas et al.’s scale for civic participation echoes key characteristics of the anti-slave trade,
41
42 whether through donations by Quaker networks, humanized symbolic products, boycotts, calls
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44 for free trade, or public discourse.
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49 By summarizing the anti-slavery campaigns waged by abolitionists, Skarmeas et al.’s
50
51 article has multiple implications for freedom through marketing because civic participation is
52
53 integral to social movement theorists (Samson et al., 2005). The values that shaped the anti-
54
55 slavery movement are central to their framework. Abolitionists often reminded audiences about
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57 slavery’s amorality, retribution for slave traders as sinners, and emancipation for slaves and their
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4 white Christian activists, which culminated in a social movement characterized by love-*caritas*
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6 and sacrifices for the common and just good. Thus, their article specifies the ingredients for
7
8 sustaining anti-slavery movements and social activism in general. Critically, they urge activists
9
10 to adopt a rigorous strategic approach to planning campaigns meant to ‘move the masses’.
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13 14 **Discussion**

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16 Whether deserved or not, marketing’s negative reputation for squandering resources
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18 while providing no social value, accounting improperly for externalities, corrupting marketplaces
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20 with exaggerated/deceitful product claims, and spurring needless and unhealthful consumption,
21
22 may make freedom through marketing seem like Orwellian doublespeak (e.g., war is peace,
23
24 freedom is slavery) (Lutz, 2016). However, it is not doublespeak because historical examples
25
26 like the British abolitionists’ campaign show that emancipating others through marketing is
27
28 possible (Hastings, 2017). The near-global boycotting of Apartheid South Africa or FairTrade’s
29
30 spurring of ethically sourced consumption indicate that marketing can help activists represent
31
32 silenced voices and challenge the underpinnings of inequality, injustice, and oppression. Whether
33
34 marketing practitioners have done enough, relative to their knowledge and skills, remains for
35
36 future debate. Nonetheless, we are hopeful that achieving freedom through marketing is complex
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38 but tractable. Indeed, Marketing 3.0 calls for freeing the human spirit to achieve its full potential
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40 for humanity (Kotler et al., 2010).
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48 The British abolitionists’ humanistic campaign, meant to emancipate silenced and
49
50 repressed voices, resembled Marketing 3.0. These activists induced moral indignation and
51
52 instilled moral agency by challenging the negative freedom that underpinned personal liberty at
53
54 the expense of qualitative freedom for ‘the other’. Achieving freedom for others dovetails with
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56 qualitative freedom, which reflects related freedom-nurturing values such as caring, equality,
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4 justice, and empathy. The post-emancipation legacy of colonial and neo-colonial slavery—
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6 including modern slavery—indicates the abolitionists’ legacy remains important. Prioritizing
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8 emancipatory ethics, engaging in ‘top down—bottom up’ resistance to oppression, inequality,
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10 and injustice, centralizing humanness in emancipatory campaigns, identifying silent
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12 stakeholders, and harnessing antecedents of civic participation, are some contributions this
13
14 thematic symposium makes to anti-modern-slavery activists and pro-social activism.
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19 Wilberforce inculcated public sacrifice on behalf of the common good by fostering love-
20
21 *caritas* for slaves. Although his critics lamented his deliberations supporting slave revolts
22
23 (Matthews, 2006), Wilberforce’s positioning of these revolts within Christian humanitarian
24
25 ethics helped mobilize Britons (Keys, 2013). He anticipated humanization scholars who contend
26
27 empathy mediates re-humanizing the dehumanized (Fiske, 2009; Fiske and Harris, 2009).
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30 Extending his common-good lens to emancipatory ethics, the victims of transatlantic slavery and
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32 Black (often female) activists should define and shape the abolition story (Waterton and Wilson,
33
34 2009).
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38 Key to emancipatory ethics is prioritizing silenced voices over state policy and status quo
39
40 doctrine. During the aforementioned biennial abolition commemorations, the role of British and
41
42 European slavery on Africa was ignored (Paton, 2009). In contrast, “while the Atlantic trade led
43
44 to the enslavement of 10-12 million people, the process precipitated by [the Slave Trade Act of
45
46 1807] led to the ‘enslavement’ of an entire continent of hundreds of millions” (Paton, 2009,
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48 p.284). Indeed, the U.K.’s decision to mark August 23rd as its anti-slavery day risks public
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50 memory of the slave trade (Paton and Webster, 2009). Like the U.N., perhaps a decade of
51
52 commemorating the slave trade’s injustices would instill the moral agency and moral indignation
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54 Wilberforce and his contemporaries envisaged. Rather than the U.S.’s toothless annual Black
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4 History Month, the U.N.'s International Decade for People of African Descent better represents
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6 the emancipatory voices raised against injustices inflicted on Africans. The latter remembrance
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8 avoids the paradox of freedom promulgated by sugarcoated and temporally distanced British
9
10 narratives and commemorations about Britons' role in the transatlantic slave trade (Paton, 2009;
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12 Waterton and Wilson, 2009). Without such a shift, the post-abolitionist discourse will continue to
13
14 evolve "into a wider narrative that emphasises liberal humanitarianism" (Paton, 2009, p.284),
15
16 like the colonial fusion of economics and humanitarianism in the pan-European colonialists'
17
18 'scramble for Africa' (Forclaz, 2015).
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24 Like the transformative dialogic approach for gender justice, which integrates justice,
25
26 capabilities, and recognition, a multidimensional and multi-paradigmatic perspective would help
27
28 to resolve racial inequalities derived from the transatlantic slave trade's prolonged injustices
29
30 (Streich, 2002). Because memory is essential to developing notions of justice, developing a
31
32 moderate cosmopolitan identity in the West that is more "open to history and memory as
33
34 constitutive of individual and group identities" (Streich, 2002, p.530) would recognize the slave
35
36 trade's legacy as ongoing injustice (Rawls, 1971; Nozick, 1974). Recognition, in terms of formal
37
38 apologies and restitution by balancing basic capabilities, is critical to affirming "those who
39
40 suffered the injustice [and have] moral standing" (Roberts, 2001, p.358).
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46 When mobilizing for social change, especially for overcoming oppression, activists can
47
48 participate in harnessing people's interior lives by nurturing "interconnectedness of all human
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50 beings and to recognize the inherent humanness and value in all of us" (Todd, 2009, p.178).
51
52 Compassion flourishes when people experience inner- versus outer-world discrepancies,
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54 resolvable by working towards emancipating other people (Todd, 2009). Attributing humaneness
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56 to oneself and other people requires social harmony gained via self-other individuation and
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4 collective solidarity (Jung, 1966). However, self-other individuation “always involves a rupture
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6 of the normalized roles of the surrounding social collective,” especially if the germane social
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8 norms reflect repressive agendas (Lorenz and Watkins, 2000, p.7). In confessing to pro-social
9
10 attitudes contrary to prevailing maladaptive social norms, public individuation—i.e., recognizing
11
12 and publicizing one’s distinctiveness as a moral person—can spur subsequent activism (Maslach
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16 et al., 1985).

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19 An inherent problem in the ‘freedom-related economic underpinnings of globalization’ is
20
21 it “liberates but at the same time puts pressure on nations and people around the world” (Kotler
22
23 et al., 2010, p.12). Freedom should come naturally, as our free will is bound by moral
24
25 responsibility (Dirksmeier, 2014). Thus, freedom should be viewed through the prism of
26
27 morality because “morality is the condition under which alone a rational being can be an end-in-
28
29 himself” (Kant, 1785/2002). Through “our ability to be moral we gain freedom, both to be moral,
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31 and also derivatively, to be immoral” (Dirksmeier, 2014, p.66). Thus, freedom through
32
33 marketing can help to attain qualitative freedom for the people it aspires to liberate.
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38 ***Recommendations for Further Research***

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41 Many scholarly domains in marketing demand re-thinking extant theory and practice to
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43 “sketch out the spaces of freedom and possibility” (Tadajewski, 2010, p.217). For example,
44
45 ‘critical marketing’ scholars could create knowledge that relies on race as a self-reflective prism
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47 by drawing from postcolonial theory, critical race theory, critical whiteness theory, critical
48
49 multicultural theory, or a combination of these perspectives (Tadajewski, 2010). Social
50
51 marketing emerged in response to the question ‘Why can’t you sell brotherhood like you sell
52
53 soap?’ (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971). Hence, social business can “combat processes that
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55 impoverish people, or underpin oppression and structural injustice” (Baker, 2014, p.272). Much
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transformative marketing has been achieved but if we are to embrace the challenges of inequality, injustice and oppression with objectivity and representation for silenced voices as our ethos, then we will need to embrace interdisciplinary approaches.

Whether on re-humanizing migrants or tackling modern child and sex slave trades, additional research on freedom through marketing is needed. *Ceteris paribus*, we recommend such research take an emancipatory ethics approach that considers state and corporate policy separately from the victims of inequality, oppression, and injustice because the former may create the latter. Achieving freedom for other people begins with self-reflection about personal and societal approaches to engaging victims. The abolitionists' story reinforces self-reflection can drive of mass mobilization for emancipatory change. Hence, the urgency for further research on marketing interventions to actualize freedom.

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4 **Endnote**
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8 ⁱ Wilberforce’s persuasive counterarguments to the ‘sham of Negro inferiority’ (Baker, 1970), which
9 helped end slavery, was his lasting contribution to society. To commemorate him and the first centenary
10 of the Abolitionist Act, in 1933 the University of Hull established a National Wilberforce Memorial
11 Committee to fund an endowed Wilberforce Chair of History (Hayward, 1985). In 1983, a lecture series
12 and conference on the intersection between freedom and slavery was established. “The intertwining of
13 cultural and political themes, inseparable from the history of West Indian slavery and its contemporary
14 legacies... was the leitmotif of the international conference” (Hayward, 1985, p.2). More recently, the
15 University of Hull’s Wilberforce Institute of Slavery and Emancipation helped to shape the U.K.
16 government’s Modern Slavery Act of 2015.
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18 ⁱⁱ In contrast to de-marketing, which seeks to reduce product demand without maligning the product,
19 counter-marketing treats the product as inherently harmful (Kotler, 1973; Kotler and Levy, 1971). British
20 abolitionists meant to eliminate demand for slaves by impugning slavery, which is counter-marketing.
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