



Value co-creation in social marketing: Functional or Fanciful?

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Review

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Introduction

The move from goods-dominant logic to service-dominant logic, with an accompanying emphasis on the co-creation of value (see Lusch and Vargo, 2006; Vargo and Lusch, 2008a; 2008b; 2008c), is reshaping our understanding of markets and marketing. A central and fundamental concept of service-dominant logic is that value is only created when a product or service is consumed or used (Vargo and Lusch, 2004); as such it challenges directly the last 200 years of goods-dominant 4P thinking underpinning marketing exchange and conceptions of value as embedded in a product or service (Ballantyne and Varey, 2008). Greer and Lei's review of studies from several disciplines including: innovation, strategy, management, marketing and information technology, shows the increasing importance of various forms of collaboration (Greer and Lei, 2012) whereby co-creation of value has become the prevalent approach (Bilgram *et al.* 2011). For marketers and consumer researchers, the term has come to represent the many ways in which consumers and producers might collaborate to create value for mutual benefit (Schau, Muñiz, & Arnould, 2009).

The move to value co-creation is not the only antecedent for the recent interest in more collaborative, participatory ways of working in social marketing (Collins *et al.*, 2012; Bryant, *et al.*, 2007). A rich and instructive heritage is woven through a variety of disciplines in the social and health sciences, such as education (Kemmis and McTaggart, 2005; Freire, 2000), public health (Israel *et al.*, 1998), community development (Fals-Borda and Rahman, 1991), theology (Berryman, 1987) and international development (Chambers, 1997; Hickey and Mohan, 2005). In the UK, policymakers' attention is turning ever more to concepts such as Community Engagement, which assumes public services that involve their users are likely to be of higher quality and more relevant to the communities they serve (SCDC 2010), and Co-production, which posits that "people who use services contribute to the production of services" and is based on the insight that service users bring expertise and assets which can help improve those services (Needham and Carr 2009, p.4). There is also growing interest in what has been termed the Assets Based or

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3 Community Capacities approach (El-Askari *et al.*, 1998; Kretzman and McKnight,
4 1996; Assets Alliance Scotland, 2010), focusing on a community's resources, skills,
5 talents and ideas for generating change, rather than on their needs and deficits
6 (Sharpe *et al.*, 2000).
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10 So what can be said of value co-creation for the social marketer? How can value be
11 co-created in social marketing, if at all? Is the concept of value co-creation
12 compatible with the social marketing principles of being client-led and collectively
13 orientated? What might a value co-creation model look like in social marketing? And
14 what are the challenges of adopting value co-creation in social marketing? This
15 paper sets out to address these questions. Our aim is to contribute to the conceptual
16 development of the field by highlighting some of the opportunities and dilemmas
17 associated with using value co-creation to underpin behavioural and social change.
18 We begin with a review of relevant literature to frame value co-creation in social
19 marketing, much of which is optimistic about the potential for cross fertilisation.
20 Next, we present an emerging social marketing value co-creation model, following
21 which we discuss three substantive challenges in adopting value co-creation
22 thinking. These challenges are: (1) ideological compatibility, (2) explanatory
23 completeness, and (3) ethical conformity. We conclude that value co-creation in
24 social marketing can be functional; it can represent an alternative to the prevalent
25 goods-dominant, campaign oriented approach. However, we caution that current
26 conceptualisations may be overly fanciful and advocate further construct
27 development, especially from a collective and societal stance for 'solo social
28 marketing flights'.
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45 **Framing Value Co-creation in Social Marketing**

46 At first glance, value co-creation seems to be highly compatible with social
47 marketing, both in theoretical terms and as an approach for designing and
48 implementing programmes. According to Vargo and Lusch (2008), value co-creation
49 may be "not only accommodative but potentially foundational" (p.6) to theory
50 development in social marketing and is likely to have direct relevance to more
51 general societal issues as well.
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3 Value co-creation in social marketing is, according to Kotler and Lee (2008, p. 7), “a
4 process that applies marketing principles and techniques to create, communicate,
5 and deliver value in order to influence target audience behaviours that benefit
6 society as well as the target audience”. Thus, participants are engaged in joint
7 analysis, development of strategy and structured learning to achieve behavioural
8 change. Participants in co-created projects are assumed to partake deliberately in
9 exchange instead of being “passive consumers of messages and programs”
10 (Lefebvre, 2009, p.143). Further, conceptually value co-creation precedes and
11 permeates every aspect of behavioural exchange (Lefebvre, 2012; Hastings and
12 Domegan, in press). In simple terms, the social marketer is theorised as co-creating
13 value in the form of dialogue, interaction, communication and collaboration with the
14 target audience, in order to enhance the output value of favourable and desirable
15 behaviours that the public are willing to adopt.
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18 In addition to the fertile conceptual lens for theory building and testing offered by
19 value co-creation, the potential benefits accruing from the active participation of the
20 targeted communities are starting to attract increasing levels of interest from social
21 marketers and from policymakers and programme designers in other fields. These
22 benefits include ‘consumer proofing’ of interventions and an assumption of greater
23 commitment to behavioural change (see Lefebvre, 2012; 2009; Holbrook 1999;
24 Lacznia, 2006; Jackson 2005 and Hastings and Domegan in press). To this end it has
25 been argued that third sector programmes “designed and directed by community
26 members, are far more likely to succeed than those planned and executed
27 exclusively by outsiders” (Bryant *et al.*, 2000, p.61).
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30 Value co-creation theory in social marketing rests upon people becoming direct and
31 active participants in the change process. Hastings and Domegan (in press) break this
32 down into:
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34 i) Processes for value co-discovery (uncovering and exploring new types of value).
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36 Value co-discovery is founded in relationship marketing theory, which posits
37 dialogue, interaction and mutual learning as core to value co-discovery. As Marques
38 and Domegan (2011) explain, the intent is to build shared meanings and gain insight
39 into what the parties can do together and for one another: thus, processes are used
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3 to give participants an active voice and research is conducted *with* and not *on* the
4 participants.
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7 ii) Processes for value co-design (designing valued products and services). Value co-
8 design takes co-created knowledge from the value co-discovery process and
9 translates it into jointly designed offerings. As part of the value co-design process,
10 the social marketer and participant consider the appeal, affordability, availability and
11 appreciation of the offer, and collaborate on ways to exemplify and enable the
12 desired behaviour. These service-dominant logic ideas of co-production, co-
13 packaging, co-promotion and co-pricing recognise the important role of the
14 participant.
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17 iii) Processes for value co-delivery (taking i) and ii) to scale in a collectively co-
18 ordinated strategy). With value co-delivery, the new, shared values between
19 marketer and participants are brought together in a co-ordinated system [of
20 delivery. The role of front-line staff is emphasised at this stage. The relevant system
21 or combination of systems (for example, health, education, food, water, waste,
22 transportation) has to facilitate, not block or hinder, the manifestation of the new
23 initiatives for realising value, or they and the new behaviours cannot come into
24 being. In its simplest form, value co-delivery processes should create value for all
25 societal stakeholders (Ballantyne and Varey, 2006, Domegan, 2008 and Lusch and
26 Webster, 2010).
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46 **The Challenges of Adopting Value Co-creation Thinking**

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48 Theoretically, then, value co-creation in social marketing would appear relatively
49 straightforward, transferring easily as the literature and figure 1 above shows. But
50 does value co-creation thought have (1) theoretical compatibility (2) explanatory
51 completeness and (3) ethical conformity with social marketing principles and
52 practice? To answer this question, we now turn our attention to these three distinct
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3 issues (see also Hasting and Saren, 2003; Wilkie and Moore, 2003; Diamond and
4 Oppenheim, 2004; Layton, 2007).

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7 Where relevant throughout the paper, we draw upon two examples of co-created
8 projects where the authors have grappled with these challenges. Firstly, two linked
9 projects in north and south Edinburgh in Scotland, seeking to combine social
10 marketing with community development philosophy and practice (Stead *et al.*,
11 2013). Each project was located in a low-income area identified for priority funding
12 to promote healthier lifestyles, particularly in relation to diet and physical activity.
13 Overseen by a steering group of health and local government practitioners, the two
14 projects ran for 18 months and were coordinated by two community development
15 workers, neither of whom had prior expertise in social marketing or public health.
16 The projects were committed to using social marketing in a manner compatible with
17 community development principles. This meant, for example, that local community
18 members were integral to needs assessment, agreeing project objectives and
19 developing project activities. The second example was commissioned as a 'social
20 marketing intervention' by a Primary Care Trust in Gloucester, South West England,
21 and has more recently been absorbed into wider community development work in
22 the locality. The project aimed to understand why adults in two low-income
23 neighbourhoods engaged in risky drinking practices and to co-create interventions to
24 help them cut down. At the outset, it was assumed that providing information about
25 safe drinking levels or attempting to educate people about the dangers of heavy
26 drinking would probably be ineffective, even if this were done in a relevant and
27 creative way. Instead, it was supposed that many factors in the social, economic and
28 physical environment (such as access to employment) would influence drinking
29 levels and that any intervention would need to acknowledge these. The next three
30 sections deal with each of the three challenges of adopting value co-creation for
31 social marketing.
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51 52 53 54 *The Challenge of Ideological Compatibility*

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56 Two areas of potential incompatibility are identified and discussed in this paper. The
57 first relates to the risks of an uncritical transfer of value theory from commercial to
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3 social contexts, while the second deals with empowerment rhetoric and
4 conceptualising the role of the expert in co-creation. Firstly, we suggest that making
5 a simple, direct transfer of ideas about value and related conceptual developments
6 from commercial to social marketing, without a thorough review of the implications
7 of such a transfer, may be overly simplistic. To date, this question appears to have
8 received little attention in the literature. Value is thought to be foundational to
9 commercial marketing thinking because: a) value is created as an offering and
10 delivered through recurrent transactions; b) value is created through mutually
11 interactive processes and shared through negotiated agreement within the life of a
12 relationship; and c) value emanates from interactions within relationships networks
13 (Ballantyne *et al.*, 2003). Thus, value is a consequence of openness, co-
14 determination of the desired outcomes and the process of mutual and reciprocal
15 learning. Tzokas and Saren (1997, p. 111) propose that value is “a relativistic
16 (comparative, personal, situational) preference characterising a subject’s experience
17 of interacting with some object”. Russell-Bennett *et al.* (2009) identify two
18 approaches to conceptualising value in the marketing literature: economic and
19 experiential. Economic value is the outcome of a cost-benefit analysis focused on the
20 utility gained while experiential value is an interactive, relativistic preference
21 experience. Grönroos (2004) argues that exchange should be considered relational
22 and that value is both a determinant and a consequence of these relationships.
23
24 Value in social marketing is “highly individualised, subjective and based upon
25 experiences, actual and perceived” (Hastings and Domegan, in press) as Hastings and
26 Lowry (2010, p.15) remind us, “values ascribed to the marketer's offering during an
27 exchange may be tangible (e.g. monetary) or psychological (e.g. status); immediate
28 (e.g. nicotine now) or deferred (e.g. better health later); but they will always be
29 subjective”. However, much of the behaviours social marketers are asked to tackle
30 are in fact extremely complex with a multiplicity of inter-related system factors,
31 what Domegan and Hastings (2012) present as ‘wicked problems’. For example, with
32 the alcohol work in Gloucester, participants in these very low income
33 neighbourhoods would have *valued* having enough money to feed their children,
34 feeling that they would be safe to walk outside at night and being provided with a
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3 doctor's surgery within walking distance. We could not in good conscience claim that
4 our co-created social marketing programme could achieve these things. In fact, a
5 critical reflection upon what value we actually did co-create in that project suggests
6 that people valued the feeling that they had been listened to, their views taken
7 seriously. Perhaps that is sufficient, and it is certainly better than leaving participants
8 feeling that their lived experiences had gone unnoticed or unrecognised (as was the
9 case with the iconic "5-a-day" campaigns so despised by the participants in this
10 project). Nevertheless, this suggests that social marketers need to reflect critically
11 upon the implications of adopting an ideology of value in their work, particularly
12 when tackling complex societal threats such as inequality, obesity and sustainability.
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14 Secondly, there appears to be somewhat of a paradox in social marketing: for all its
15 concern with 'customer orientation' and putting the consumer at the centre of the
16 programme, most interventions appear to be designed and managed by experts
17 rather than by the participants and communities who are their intended target
18 groups and beneficiaries (Stead *et al.*, 2013). Community members may be involved
19 in intervention development as research participants (consulted about the
20 acceptability and feasibility of the planned intervention, perhaps) or, less often,
21 recruited to assist in programme implementation (for example, where 'lay people'
22 are trained to facilitate particular activities or to act as recruiters for difficult-to-
23 reach target groups). Communities may also be involved in advisory and steering
24 groups as lay or community representatives, but it is relatively rare for social
25 marketing interventions to be designed and managed primarily by participants
26 themselves (see also Middlestadt *et al.*, 1997). In other words, despite apparent
27 ideological compatibility between co-creation and social marketing, genuinely and
28 fully co-created social marketing programmes are actually relatively rare. This may
29 be reflect a reluctance to surrender the expert mindset (Chapman, 2004) or a fear
30 among policy makers and managers of losing control over the intervention. More
31 pragmatically, the perceived difficulty of mobilising communities to get involved may
32 also be a factor. It must also be acknowledged that there is some risk that
33 community members may decide to adopt an approach that experts believe will
34 simply be wrong or ineffective. For example, members of the community who put
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3 themselves forward to participate may not necessarily be representative of the
4 community as a whole or may have particular 'agendas' of their own, leading to the
5 design of programmes which are potentially less appropriate and equitable than
6 those led by professionals who have a commitment to equality practices. A
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8 community (or a vocal portion of one) may espouse approaches at odds with public
9 health goals, social justice principles or evidence of effectiveness: what is the role of
10 the expert in this situation? Do they assert their authority and intervene to steer the
11 community towards more desirable and evidence-based activities? Finally, the
12 language of co-creation implies that community members want (or ought to want)
13 to be involved in the design and delivery of services. But, they may feel that this is an
14 abdication of responsibility by professionals who are paid to do this work, or may
15 suspect (perhaps rightly in some cases) that their unpaid involvement is being used
16 as a way of cutting costs. Does empowerment include giving people permission to
17 express a desire for the expert or service provider to take on the responsibility and
18 effort to help individuals and communities? Can ordinary community members
19 develop the same knowledge or expertise that professionals have (and if not, can
20 they be said to be fully empowered)? It may be necessary for social marketers to
21 accept that empowerment can only ever be partial, constrained, compromised. This
22 may in fact be a more honest (and perhaps ultimately more empowering) position
23 than embracing the belief that total empowerment is possible. If so, (and we think
24 that this view has much to recommend it) we contend that the discourse should
25 recognise and attempt to account for this complexity.
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45 *The Challenge of Explanatory Completeness*

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47 While value co-creation points to discursive and collaborative processes, these are
48 situated theoretically at the downstream or individual level; consequently, value co-
49 creation can be said to possess individualist explanatory power in the context of
50 commercial marketing. But what of social marketing's collective orientation and
51 explanatory insights to inform scalability? We question the apparent juxtaposition of
52 claims that co-creation involves close collaboration with participants to co-design
53 valued solutions suitable for their particular circumstances with the requirements to
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3 develop social marketing theories and models of scalable strategies for change.
4 Scaling up participant or community co-created interventions is extremely difficult,
5 because the interventions are often so specific to the context in which they have
6 been created. Consequently, another participant or community may have different
7 priorities or prefer a different exchange. It can be contended that conceptually,
8 replicability and scalability do not have relate to a particular co-created programme
9 but instead any 'roll out' should be underpinned by successful processes of
10 collaboration and co-design. However, value co-creation theory is rarely used to
11 advocate mass customisation in its source domain of commercial marketing; instead
12 this line of reasoning about scaling up participatory methods could suggest a greater
13 similarity to Community Development than to marketing. There should always be
14 room for alternative perspectives, but failing to appreciate this implication of
15 transferring value co-creation from commercial to social marketing leaves
16 proponents vulnerable to the charge that they are simply reinventing a Community
17 Development wheel. This issue of whether value co-creation is considered to be a
18 comparable or superior approach and in what circumstances has not been dealt with
19 adequately in the literature. Finally, a more practical issue with scalability is the likely
20 reliance, at least to some extent, on lasting sustainable structures for participation.
21 As a consequence, funders may become somewhat dependent upon the willingness
22 of community participants to commit to long-term involvement, which can be
23 problematic because typically such participants are volunteers.

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Between co-created social marketing programmes underpinned by theories of co-creation and the more established discipline of Community Development, several other areas of potential conflict exist: for example, the task of setting a precise behaviour change objective – one of Andreasen's (2002) six benchmarks of social marketing – is at odds with the principle of communities and individuals determining their own priorities, as well as with the emphasis placed in community development on wider, less measurable outcomes such as empowerment and social capital (Billings 2000). Unease about imposing project objectives may reflect wider conflicts in community development, such as the potential irreconcilability of community needs and funding agency expectations (Legge *et al.*, 2007). In Edinburgh for

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3 instance, funders initially wanted to see activities linked to diet and physical activity
4 with clear outcomes to be achieved within a short period of time. Developing a logic
5 model, which specified that the main desired behavioural outcome was
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8 'engagement' in community activities concerned with diet and physical activity
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10 rather than stipulating actual changes in diet and physical activity, helped to
11 negotiate the tensions between the funders' requirements and community
12 development principles. This made sure that the project had realistic goals and also
13 made sense in terms of recognised evaluation frameworks like the Medical Research
14 Council's framework for evaluating complex interventions, see Craig *et al.*, (2008),
15 which place the emphasis on assessing feasibility and engagement where
16 interventions are exploratory or unpredictable, rather than on measuring behaviour
17 change (the latter only applies where an intervention has been fully tested and
18 tightly specified and rolled out on large scale). However, it should be recognised that
19 such negotiations may not be successful; funders may be reluctant to finance
20 programmes for more than a short period unless satisfactory results that
21 demonstrate behaviour change are forthcoming.
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32 In other respects, however, strong areas of complementarity are evident, with
33 certain social marketing concepts thought to resonate strongly with a community
34 development ethos. For example, 'consumer orientation' and 'mutually beneficial
35 exchange' are seen as highly compatible with the community development
36 principles of 'starting where the people are' (Lindsey *et al.*, 2001). Equally the notion
37 of addressing 'competition' in the form of structures and policies which are
38 undermining of health – In Edinburgh, such issues included local retail practices and
39 poor green space provision – sits comfortably with community development's
40 concern with increasing disadvantaged communities' control over resources and
41 services (Legge *et al.*, 2007).
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51 52 *The Challenge of Ethical Conformity*

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54 Equating participation with empowerment, as value co-creation tends to do, has a
55 number of implications for both theory and practice. Firstly, in a social rather than
56 commercial context, methods that advocate participatory working may be chosen
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3 deliberately as a way to empower “surplus” (Hickey and Mohan, 2005, p.239) or “at-
4 risk” populations (Pechmann, *et al.*, 2011, p.23), i.e. groups that are likely to lack
5 power, such as young people, inhabitants of deprived neighbourhoods, homeless
6 people or sex workers for example. Thus, a methodological decision to collaborate
7 with participants may arise from an aspiration to challenge inequalities in knowledge
8 production (i.e. the formative research that so often underpins decision making
9 when developing interventions) by giving voice to people normally excluded from
10 the process (Gaventa and Cornwall 2001). Knowledge is considered by some to be an
11 important source of power in post-industrial society (Ozanne and Saatcioglu, 2008),
12 perhaps because research can serve as a metaphor for power and truth (Denzin and
13 Lincoln, 2005); it is ‘scientific’; its outputs are reports and representations of ‘the
14 Other’. Further, the premise that participation leads automatically to empowerment
15 is not uncontested; indeed criticism that participation has failed to achieve this has
16 been mounting over the last decade (e.g. Cooke and Kothari, 2001). It has been
17 suggested that mainstream participatory methods may be hampered by inattention
18 to issues of power and politics (Hickey and Mohan, 2005) exacerbated by the
19 problem that such methods may be underpinned by an unsophisticated
20 understanding of the mechanism and constitution of power (Mosse, 1994; Kothari,
21 2001). Also criticised are an overemphasis on local concerns to the detriment of
22 pervasive problems of inequality (Mohan and Stokke, 2000) and a conceptualisation
23 of the relative functions of structure and agency that is inadequate (Clever, 1999).
24 Further, it has been argued that mainstream participatory approaches may be too
25 voluntaristic in regarding any form of participation as superior to non-participatory
26 practices (Chambers, 1997) without considering the risk that those with
27 disempowering agendas may adopt (or co-opt) initiatives that serve their purposes
28 (Rahman, 1995).

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49 Finally, given the relatively short-term nature of many social marketing projects,
50 Hickey and Mohan’s (2005) caution against methodological individualism (Frances,
51 2001) that can arise from treating participation as a technical method of project
52 work may be of concern. Participatory methods ought to be, they counsel, a political
53 methodology of empowerment (Carmen, 1996; Rahman, 1995) and as such must
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3 include an appreciation of the issues that impede participation for marginalised
4 groups. In the case of the alcohol work in Gloucester, participation was hampered by
5 a number of factors: cynicism or 'participation fatigue' created in part by the number
6 of short-term projects that had been set up and then disappeared once funding had
7 been withdrawn, exacerbated by the feeling that outsiders with their "5-a-day"
8 messages didn't understand what it was like to live in the community. Distrust of
9 authority in general and an almost pathological fear of social services' involvement
10 in their children's lives was a further barrier to participation. Underlying this, many
11 local people were simply indifferent to the project and to the social marketers.
12 Consequently, value co-creation requires very hard work to engage with a range of
13 local people and even then, proponents must acknowledge that several years
14 working in the community is needed before an empowerment claim can be made.

25 **Conclusions and implications**

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27 For commercial marketers, value co-creation has represented somewhat of a shift in
28 perspective from a goods-dominant logic towards a more collaborative
29 understanding of value creation. In this paper, we have highlighted that the
30 cooperative ambition suggested by co-creation theory seems to be highly
31 compatible with social marketing in many ways. However, we have also noted some
32 significant conceptual and practical obstacles in the path of a value co-creation
33 theory for social marketing: Firstly, we have questioned whether a direct transfer of
34 theories of value from commercial to social marketing is helpful. We have remarked
35 that the notion of 'value' is somewhat rhetorical as in it carries with it an assumption
36 of a positive outcome for all participants. We make no comment upon this question
37 in the context of commercial marketing, but have noted that attempting to co-create
38 value in social marketing situations frequently results in compromise of some sort,
39 particularly when working within complex situations like the examples in this paper.
40 That is not to say that value co-creation theory cannot or should not be used in
41 social marketing, simply that more work is needed to explore the implications of the
42 construct when co-creating social marketing strategies: does the idea of 'value'
43 move closer to metaphor in more complex situations and if so what are the
44 theoretical and practical consequences?
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3 Another compatibility challenge stems from a consideration of the role of the expert
4 in co-creation. Similarly, the issue is concerned somewhat with the adoption of
5 language from other disciplines and the related implication that co-creation is
6 empowering for the individuals and communities involved. Arguing that participation
7 is empowering isn't revolutionary (it is foundational to Community Development, for
8 instance) but we have noted that social marketing interventions in which control
9 over decision-making has been ceded to communities are relatively unusual. This
10 may be due to well-founded concerns about whether those that volunteer for such
11 projects are truly representative of (and should ethically be allowed to represent)
12 their respective communities, whether participants have appropriate knowledge to
13 co-create the most effective solution, whether funders are delegating responsibility
14 inappropriately and whether volunteers are being exploited to help deliver services
15 more cost effectively. A related issue concerns ethical considerations associated with
16 the choice of participatory methods, particularly when a methodologically informed
17 decision to collaborate is founded in a desire to co-create with people who may be
18 disempowered, such as those living in deprived neighbourhoods. It has been
19 suggested that empowerment ideals can be undermined by an inadequate
20 consideration of the impact upon people of being disempowered, of the role of
21 political and policy related factors and the danger of regarding any form of
22 participation as automatically superior to non-participatory practices. Consequently,
23 social marketers need to be sensitive to the reasons why people may not wish to
24 participate, acknowledging that it can take considerable time to build relationships
25 and trust to overcome an 'outsider' status (Sixsmith *et al.*, 2003). Co-created social
26 marketing should build in receptivity to power relations and politics, which can be
27 complex and difficult to uncover, allied to a self-reflexivity among practitioners to
28 guard against myopic judgements (e.g. see Lindridge, 2012). Finally, social marketers
29 should empower themselves to negotiate with commissioners for adequate time, as
30 well as to seek a commitment from commissioners that they will make long-term
31 plans for the future of initiatives. To support this, evaluation should be multi-faceted
32 and designed to reflect this long-term perspective upon change, as happened in
33 Edinburgh.
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3 A further challenge relates to replicability and scalability of co-created social
4 marketing programmes. We have pointed out that the very aspects of such
5 programmes that make them attractive (that they are co-created with communities
6 to serve their particular needs and aspirations) also make them very difficult to scale
7 up. One solution might be to replicate successful processes for collaboration and co-
8 creation, rather than rolling out a specific solution. However, scaling up participatory
9 methods could suggest a greater similarity to participatory research or Community
10 Development than to marketing. A half-way house between full scale community
11 development and a traditional expert-led social marketing campaign could be to
12 assume that social marketing strategies co-created by one group should probably
13 work for people with similar characteristics: so the ideas co-created with the
14 deprived neighbourhoods in Edinburgh and Gloucester should work in another
15 deprived neighbourhood in, say, Manchester. The issues with this middle ground are
16 twofold: firstly, the hypothetical community in Manchester will have had no say in
17 the development or implementation of their programme, rendering the language of
18 value and empowerment somewhat hollow. Secondly, experience suggests that
19 almost inevitably, co-creation is influenced by local factors such as the presence (or
20 absence) of amenities and services and the community's history. Even something as
21 simple as the layout of the high street from one village to the next can result in
22 completely different ideas.
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39 An alternative may be to distinguish between participation in community
40 development, an ongoing and very long-term process, and participation in time
41 limited programmes and projects. In the latter case, imperatives and constraints are
42 very likely to influence the nature of the participation, and not necessarily in a
43 negative way. Arguably, the imperatives of a n initiative subject to time and
44 budgetary constraint can inject energy and bring people together in a more
45 purposeful way; this was the case in both Edinburgh and Gloucester, where activities
46 were structured around events and activities with very tangible outputs (for
47 example, primary school children collectively producing a children's book in
48 Edinburgh, Various, 2011, and a mobile service hub with street café in Gloucester,
49 Collins and Manning, 2012) does seem to generate and focus energy. Perhaps the
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3 notion of value as the underpinning construct can serve to restrict social marketers
4 to delivering a variety of small-scale programmes to reflect varying conceptions of
5 value as part of a wider multi-disciplinary team?
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9 These speculations leave a question that we are unable to answer satisfactorily at
10 present: If we conclude that co-created social marketing is very similar to other ways
11 of stimulating change through participation, why is co-created social marketing
12 needed, why not just use Participatory Action Research or become an Asset Based
13 Community Development practitioner? Emergent thinking has hinted at social
14 marketing's creativity, flexibility and pragmatism (Collins, 2013) as worthwhile
15 contributions to multi-disciplinary working aimed at tackling wider social issues.
16 Further, we suggest that value co-creation in social marketing is not fanciful; rather it
17 represents a promising alternative to the goods-dominant, campaign oriented
18 approach prevalent in so much of mainstream social marketing literature and
19 practice. However, current conceptualisations are vulnerable to accusations of
20 narrow functionality, of an overly simplistic conceptualisation of value co-creation at
21 the individual level. A more sophisticated model would seek to understand multiple
22 levels and multiple perspectives; going beyond 'who' is involved in value co-creation
23 to 'what' and 'how' value is exchanged from a collective and societal perspective
24 (McHugh & Domegan, in press). Perhaps this is where value co-creation has most to
25 offer to a discipline that has reached adulthood. Thus, we are optimistic that value
26 co-creation has the potential to provide focus and energy to what can otherwise be
27 fairly slow moving processes of social change.
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