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1 **Collective Co-production in English Public Services – The case of voluntary action in**  
2 **primary education**

3 **Alison Body & Eddy Hogg (Working Paper)**

4 **Abstract**

5 In this paper we explore the extent and distribution of collective co-production across the  
6 single policy area of primary education in England. Whilst much attention has been paid to  
7 the virtue of co-production, often drawing on particular, single, case studies, there is less  
8 literature exploring the wider impacts. However, ongoing marketisation, fiscal pressures and  
9 increased competition in education has led school leaders to turn to co-production as one  
10 mechanism for survival, while recognition of some of the potential benefits has led to a surge  
11 in efforts to implement co-productive activities. Focussing on collective co-production  
12 efforts, this article explores voluntary income data from over 300 primary schools and their  
13 respective Parent Teacher Associations, supported by 70 questionnaires exploring volunteer  
14 contributions were completed by Head-teachers and 10 in-depth interviews with Head-  
15 teachers. Our data reveals three significant findings: the extent of collective co-production in  
16 primary education is increasing; this activity is driven by fiscal challenges resulting in  
17 schools feeling coerced into co-production which has wider implications and; this is resulting  
18 in increasing inequalities. We conclude with a discussion about what this means for the wider  
19 policy agenda.

20 **Introduction**

21 Whilst recognised as a contested term, co-production typically refers to contributions from  
22 service users and providers to raise the quantity and quality of public services (Bovaird et al.,  
23 2015). Fiscal pressures facing public services has led to a renewed interest in this topic, with  
24 co-production becoming a core focus of public policy (Brandsen and Honingh, 2015). As a  
25 result, we have seen calls for increased volunteer engagement in health services, in social  
26 care and in education. In this paper we explore a specific case of co-production, that is the co-  
27 production of primary education in the English social policy environment. Whilst much  
28 attention has previously been paid to *individual* forms of co-production in primary education,  
29 often also referred to as parent engagement, with the aim to improve individual children's  
30 attainment, less has been applied to the *collective* co-production by parents and communities  
31 in the resourcing and delivery of the service of education through active involvement  
32 (Honingh et al's., 2018).

33 We view co-production in education as parents and community members actively  
34 contributing to the work of schools through voluntary action. We define voluntary action as  
35 the voluntary giving of time (in the form of volunteering), money or items for no financial  
36 incentive, of one's own free will and to benefit the environment or someone (individuals or  
37 groups) other than, or in addition to, close relatives (Payton and Moody, 2008; Body et al.,  
38 2017). Whilst voluntary action has a long and established role in education in England  
39 (Miller et al., 2009; Morris, 2011), the scale on which it is currently occurring is beyond any  
40 seen since the state took responsibility for education provision in the early 20th Century. As  
41 fiscal pressures increase (school budgets have fallen by 8% in real terms since 2010 (IFS,  
42 2018)) and marketization of education increases, schools increasingly turn to parents and  
43 citizens to collectively support them to continue to deliver a public education service. This  
44 activity goes beyond co-production with parents to improve their own children's educational  
45 attainment, to a wider collective engagement to support collective outcomes (Bovaird et al.,  
46 2015).

47 This is what led, in 2016, to us conducting the first significant piece of research into  
48 voluntary action in primary schools conducted in England (see Body et al., 2017). In this  
49 research we found that voluntary action – the giving of time or money – was widespread  
50 within primary schools, with many examples of schools where generosity was resulting in  
51 increased opportunities for pupils. However, whilst it was clear that there are substantial  
52 benefits that voluntary action can provide to schools and their pupils, we observed that the  
53 consequences of a substantial uneven distribution of that voluntary efforts could serve to  
54 exacerbate existing inequalities, particularly if voluntary action plays an even greater role  
55 going forward. In this research we identified a need for further research on the impact that a  
56 growth in collective co-production would have on public services. The research summarised  
57 in this paper, responds directly to that need, drawing on a second wave of data collection,  
58 conducted in 2018. Drawing on data collected from 2016 and 2018, we are able to capture the  
59 increasing role that voluntary action is playing in state education.. We treat this as a case  
60 study for what the results of an increased reliance on co-production might be for public  
61 services across the piece.

62 This research is timely and the case study of education in England relevant, given current  
63 debates around school funding, and the extent to which public services in general are being  
64 underfunded. On Friday 28<sup>th</sup> September 2018, we witnessed an unprecedented grass-roots  
65 uprising of Head-teachers campaigning against school budget cuts. Teaching union members,  
66 parents and staff had taken part in various protests about the fiscal challenges in recent years.  
67 However, this rally was very different – made up of those people who run the schools – who  
68 set the budgets and who felt they no longer had any place to turn. On the 8<sup>th</sup> March 2019,  
69 7,000 Head-teachers sent letters home with pupils accusing the Department for Education of  
70 refusing to face effects of cuts. High-profile campaign groups such as Worth Less?, School  
71 Cuts and Fair Funding for All Schools, have all highlighted the growing demands on parents  
72 and other community members to donate to fund children’s education.

73 To investigate this topic, this paper draws on a study of 306 primary schools in a single local  
74 authority area in Southern England, which contains distribution of wealth and deprivation  
75 which is relatively consistent with England as a whole, drawing on school financial data,  
76 Parent Teaching Association (PTA) data obtained from the Charity Commission, a survey  
77 distributed to Head-teachers and Chairs of Governors and follow up interviews with 10 Head-  
78 teachers and Chairs of Governors. The central argument to this paper is that the ongoing  
79 marketisation of education, alongside heightened fiscal and resource pressures in schools, has  
80 led primary schools to explore innovative ways to co-produce with citizens (mainly parents/  
81 carers of children with the school), to respond to these challenges. Other public service  
82 leaders are increasingly facing similar challenges, making this a hugely timely piece of  
83 research.

84 This paper therefore begins by exploring the role of voluntary action in schools through the  
85 lens of collective co-production, a framework for understanding citizen engagement in public  
86 service provision. It follows this by reflecting on the way in which state funded primary  
87 education has become increasingly marketized and how it is being affected by policy  
88 decisions, in particular, sharp declines in funding since 2010. Next, we outline the qualitative  
89 and quantitative methods used to explore this phenomenon. In our findings we present the  
90 responses to the outlined research questions, finally concluding that collective co-production  
91 exacerbates inequality in primary education, a finding which has significant potential  
92 implications for wider public services in England and beyond.

93 **Understanding Voluntary Action as a Mechanism of Co-production in Schools**

94 Within Social Policy and Public Administration studies, the role of co-production in the  
95 delivery of public services has been widely debated ever since the term was first coined by  
96 Ostrom and Ostrom in 1977. Co-production is based on a logic which considers that, in the  
97 provision of public services, the distinction between producer and consumer is not so defined  
98 and that through participation in the co-production of the services they benefit from, people  
99 can improve the quality of the public services they use (Brudney and England, 1983). The co-  
100 producer is often the direct recipient of the service provided but may also be family members  
101 such as parents of school children (Brandsen and Honingh, 2016). Co-produced public  
102 services, then, involve collaboration between professional staff and private citizens  
103 (Whitaker, 1980).

104 Multiple and various interpretations of co-production exist, creating a challenge for  
105 researchers to find comparability across research findings. Classically, Ostrom (1996) defines  
106 co-production as “the process through which inputs used to produce a good or service are  
107 contributed by individuals who are not ‘in’ the same organisation” (p.1073), whilst the  
108 widely used definition by Parks et al (1981) focuses more on the ‘efforts by individuals and  
109 groups’ to enhance services. Voorberg et al’s., (2015) systemic review of co-production  
110 identifies citizen involvement on three levels, as a co-implementer, a co-designer or as an  
111 initiator. They also draw attention to the fact that whilst much literature has been published  
112 on the identification and influential factors of co-production, significantly less attention has  
113 been paid to the outcomes of co-production (Voorberg et al., 2015). Brandsen and Honingh’s  
114 (2016) presentation of the four potential types of co-production focusses on the extent to  
115 which citizens are involved in service design and/or implementation of core and/or  
116 complementary services, while earlier conceptualisations have drawn distinction between  
117 individual, collective and group co-production, dependent on who the recipients of the  
118 benefits of the activity may be (Brudney and England, 1983). Particularly useful in this  
119 regard is Bovaird et al’s (2015) distinction between individual and collective co-production,  
120 where collective co-production is conceptualised as the joint action of citizens, versus  
121 individual co-production which focuses on actions which are not jointly undertaken.

122 In the specific case of education, co-production remains an ill-defined concept. Whilst there  
123 has been much debate about parents and teachers co-producing educational outcomes, this is  
124 largely viewed through the lens of schools working in partnership with individual parents to  
125 improve children’s individual educational outcomes (for example, see the work of Epstein  
126 and Dauber, 1991; Goodall, 2017; Huntsinger and Jose, 2009). We interpret this as *individual*  
127 co-production, and distinguish this activity from the *collective* coproduction we are focusing  
128 on in this paper (Bovaird et al., 2015). Indeed, Epstein and Dauber’s (1991) six types of  
129 parental involvement is widely used within the literature, supporting the understanding of  
130 individual forms of co-production as being dominant in primary education (Honingh et al.,  
131 2018). This parental engagement activity includes 1) basic obligations at home; 2) positive  
132 communications between home and school; 3) assistance in learning activities at home; 4)  
133 assistance at the school through volunteer help; 5) involvement in school decision making,  
134 governance and advocacy; and 6) collaboration and exchange of support with community  
135 organisations to benefit the school. Honingh et al’s., (2018) systematic literature review on  
136 the topic of co-production in primary education highlighted significant attention in the  
137 literature to individual co-production to improve children’s educational attainment (broadly  
138 speaking Epstein and Dauber’s first three types of parental engagement), but less attention  
139 was paid to the more organisational forms of co-production such as involvement in service  
140 design and delivery of core and complementary services, under which more collective types  
141 of co-production are likely to emerge.

142 Focusing on voluntary action in schools through the framework of *collective* co-production,  
143 we examine the joint action of schools and parents, and other community members, in  
144 achieving benefits which are collectively experienced (Bovaird et al., 2015). In two areas of  
145 British education policy collective co-production is already made explicit: first, free schools  
146 which are run on a non-profit basis, and can be established by charities, universities,  
147 businesses, parents, teachers, and community and faith groups and; second, the role of  
148 volunteer school governors in the governance and leadership of schools. However, cuts to  
149 funding have meant that schools of all types are increasingly looking to other forms of  
150 collective co-production to deliver core and complementary services, which go beyond  
151 raising attainment of individual students, and instead focus on resourcing and supporting the  
152 schools core services (Cepiku et al., 2020). In this context, collective efforts may include  
153 fundraising by the PTA to raise money for the school, individuals volunteering within the  
154 school (from supporting reading to school maintenance), schools forming partnerships with  
155 local community businesses/groups to support the school, or parents contributing to a ‘school  
156 fund’, and many more. In each of these examples, the co-production includes some sort of  
157 formal or informal coordination mechanism and joint or group action, to collective benefit –  
158 commonly in the form of increased resources for distribution. As identified by others (e.g.  
159 Andrews, 2012; Kunzel, 2012; Bovaird et al., 2015), fiscal pressures on public services  
160 commonly provide a driver of this co-production activity, and in this way schools are no  
161 exception.

162 However, there is evidence from existing literature to suggest that an increased reliance on  
163 co-production, individual or collective, may not lead to equitable outcomes in public service  
164 provision (Steen et al., 2018). Public services as a whole are often designed in ways that  
165 advantage more affluent groups (Hastings, 2009; Hastings and Matthews, 2015), and co-  
166 production may exacerbate this further. Co-production of all types requires engaged citizens  
167 who have components of social and cultural capital such as a sense of being part of a  
168 community, trust in others and a range of other material and cultural resources (Andrews,  
169 2012). These resources are not evenly shared between areas, and it is therefore likely that  
170 engagement in co-production activities reflect the same biases found in other types of  
171 participation (Brandsen and Honingh, 2016; Musick and Wilson, 2008; Clark et al., 2013).

172 Hastings and Matthews (2015) use the lens of Bourdieu’s theory of habitus to explore why  
173 inequalities of engagement in co-production occur. Using education as an example, they  
174 suggest that ‘*middle-class habitus*’ (p.550) enables professional parents to engage with  
175 professional teachers with little in the way of barriers, meaning that these parents are more  
176 comfortable engaging in the planning and delivery of school services (Hastings and  
177 Matthews, 2015). Parents with this middle-class habitus already possess the skills to  
178 participate confidently and effectively in school life (Widding, 2013). Multiple studies have  
179 explored how school teachers, staff and Head-teachers can inhibit co-productive relationships  
180 with parents, based on negative attitudes relating to demographic factors and negative  
181 attitudes towards parents (Dumais et al., 2012; Flanigan, 2007; Steiner, 2014; Wood and  
182 Olivier, 2011). Put simply, areas rich in capital – economic, social and cultural – are likely to  
183 be more able, and more willing, to support effective co-production (Andrews, 2012). Indeed,  
184 Mohan’s (2015) overview of distribution of PTAs in the UK, identified that the most  
185 prosperous were located in the wealthiest areas, whilst areas experiencing disadvantage were  
186 simultaneously less likely to have a PTA, and, on average raised less money per pupil.

## 187 **The Increasing Marketisation of Education Policy in England**

188 Cuts in government funding coupled with an increasing reliance on private support and  
189 provision are widespread across public services, with education no exception. Ball and

190 Youdell argue that there is “a growing tendency amongst governments world-wide to  
191 introduce forms of privatisation into public education and to move to privatise sections of  
192 public education” (2008:8). Indeed, a plethora of educational reforms in England over the  
193 past couple of decades have focused on increasing diversity of types of schools and  
194 increasing the role of private businesses within public education. .

195 The introduction of semi-autonomous academies marked one of the most fundamental  
196 changes in education policy in the past two decades. Introduced in the Learning and Skills  
197 Act 2000, the percentage of schools converting to academy status remained low until the  
198 election of the Conservative led Coalition Government in 2010 (NAO, 2018). The  
199 Academies Act 2010 aimed to significantly increase the number of academies, enabling all  
200 maintained schools to convert to academy status. By February 2018, 72% of secondary  
201 schools and 27% of primary schools in the UK are academies, with far more autonomy over  
202 budget setting than local-authority maintained schools.

203 Subsequent education policies pursued since 2010 have included significant and continued  
204 budget cuts, intensified focus on testing and monitoring and the abolishment of bodies that  
205 were considered bureaucratic such as the Curriculum Development Agency. As state funding  
206 reduces, increasingly autonomous schools are expected to manage and raise their own funds.  
207 This was perhaps best epitomised by guidance published by the Department of Education,  
208 titled ‘*Supporting excellent school resource management*’ (2018), which urged schools to  
209 make “every pound count” and encouraged them to get, “the best value from all of their  
210 [school’s] resources” (p.3). Indeed, the funding crisis situation facing schools is well  
211 documented. The Institute for Fiscal Studies (2018) estimated that ‘school funding per pupil  
212 has fallen by 8% between 2009–10 and 2017–18’. A 2019 survey of 1,500 Head-teachers by  
213 the lobbying campaign Worth Less? found 90% of schools are having to use part of the ‘pupil  
214 premium’, allocated for disadvantaged pupils, to fund core budgets, 80% are cutting numbers  
215 of teaching assistants and support staff, and 60% are removing teaching posts to balance  
216 budgets. As underfunded schools become progressively diverse in their organisational form  
217 and marketized, it is unsurprising that collective co-production plays an increasing role  
218 (Body, 2020), with engagement of parents and citizens in fundraising and volunteering a  
219 primary response.

220 Therefore, drawing on the gaps in the literature, primarily the lack of discussion on voluntary  
221 action and collective coproduction in primary schools, and building on our previous research  
222 (Body et al., 2017) our research focuses on the extent to which primary schools embrace  
223 collective co-production and how this activity is dispersed across primary schools. Therefore,  
224 we explore the following research questions:

225 **Research Question 1:** Has collective co-production increased in primary education?

226 **Research Question 2:** What is driving collective co-production in primary education?

227 **Research Question 3:** If collective co-production has increased in primary education,  
228 is this now more evenly distributed compared to previous findings?

229

## 230 **Methods**

231 To answer these research questions, this paper draws on two waves of data collection, in  
232 2016 and 2018. The initial data from the 2016 wave is published in a peer reviewed journal  
233 article (see Body et al., 2017). This subsequent article reports on the comparisons between  
234 the 2016 and 2018 data sets. In 2016 we analysed the 2013/14 financial data for 380 primary  
235 schools from a single local authority area, alongside questionnaires completed by 114 head

236 teachers, which were completed in 2016. The 2018 data draws upon the financial data for 306  
237 of these primary schools from the same single local authority area in Southern England in  
238 2016/17. On both years this financial information provided data on a school's total income,  
239 donated income directly received by the school, number of pupils, pupil premium funding,  
240 OFSTED rating, and allowed us to correlate these factors with index of multiple deprivation  
241 data. 54 schools were withdrawn from the sample, due to either schools merging together into  
242 a single school, or the financial data not being up to date and lacking detail on the 2016/17  
243 financial data.

244 Additionally, in 2018 we distributed a second survey to Head-teachers at each school, with a  
245 23% response rate, which allowed us to gain a sense of insight into school activity,  
246 prioritisation and views on collective co-production in education. School websites and  
247 publicly available information were reviewed to gather further information on co-production  
248 in the school, volunteer policies and PTA activities. We then conducted follow up interviews  
249 with 10 Head-teachers and their respective Chairs of Governors, from a purposive sample  
250 selecting 5 of the most 'successful' schools based on their levels of voluntary activity being  
251 in the top 10% of schools for fundraising and/or volunteering activity, and 5 schools who  
252 struggled to engage in collective co-production.

253 Furthermore, for both data sets we draw on the equivalent PTA data obtained from the  
254 Charity Commission for the financial years under investigation. Whilst the Charity  
255 Commission is keen for all eligible PTAs to register as charities, unless a PTA has a turnover  
256 more than £5,000 they are under no obligation to register with the Charity Commission,  
257 which can make tracking PTA activity difficult. Where PTAs are registered separately to  
258 schools their finances exist separately to school financial data. This enables us to present as  
259 clear as possible the picture of collective co-production in schools. In 2018, 94% of the  
260 primary schools in our sample had a PTA or similar association set up to raise funds and  
261 support the school. For 6% of schools, all falling within the lowest 10% of schools by  
262 fundraised income per pupil, we could find no evidence of a PTA or equivalent friend's  
263 association. For 22% of schools, we found evidence of a friend's association which was  
264 either constituted as a community group or, more commonly, sat under the umbrella of the  
265 school. This leaves the majority, 72% of the schools, which have a PTA which is registered  
266 as an independent charity with The Charity Commission.

267 To measure whether collective co-production is evenly distributed between schools, we use  
268 the index of multiple deprivation decile data as a proxy indicator of the socio-economic  
269 situation of a school. Deciles are calculated by ranking 32,844 neighbourhoods in England  
270 from most deprived to least deprived and dividing them into 10 equal groups. These range  
271 from the most deprived 10 per cent of neighbourhoods nationally (decile 1) to the least  
272 deprived 10 per cent (decile 10) of neighbourhoods nationally.

273 Whilst the data has provided some rich findings, explored in this paper, we acknowledge  
274 some caveats which must be considered, for example:

- 275 • There is some inconsistency in how schools record 'donations'. Where donations are  
276 in kind, for example new playground equipment or donated computer equipment, this  
277 'gift' often does not appear in the accounts. We therefore speculate that there is an  
278 amount of donated income (i.e. in kind or gifts) which remains 'hidden'.
- 279 • PTAs do, at times, 'donate' financial gifts to the school. Where accounts have  
280 provided enough data to ensure we are able to eliminate double counting of this  
281 income, we have done so. However, we also take care to distinguish between  
282 donations directly to the school and fundraising activity by the PTA in our analysis to  
283 avoid double counting.

- Whilst most PTA accounts cover the same accounting period as their partner schools, some adhere to other accounting periods, with differing year ends. In these cases, we have taken the closest accounting year for comparison purposes.

## Findings

We now report the findings in response to our three research questions:

### ***Research Question 1: Has collective co-production increased in primary education?***

In response to our first research question, we can clearly observe that *collective co-production in primary education is increasing*. Firstly, the overall quantitative data shows sharp increases in fundraised income. Comparing the 2016 financial data for the school sample with the financial data for 2018, we see an overall 24% increase in the amount schools are raising per pupil directly through donations to the school, and a 25% increase in the amount PTAs are raising per pupil per year on the school’s behalf. The changes in donations of money between 2016 and 2018 can be seen in Table 1.

2016	2018
Schools raise on average £41 per pupil	Schools raise on average £51 per pupil
PTAs raise on average £36 per pupil	PTAs raise on average £45 per pupil
10% of schools secure more than £10k of donations	40% of schools secure more than £10k of donations
Schools bring in up to £250 per pupil in a year through donated income	Schools bring in up to £595 per pupil in a year through donated income

**Table 1. Changes in fundraised income based on the 2016 and 2018 data sets**

A similar pattern can be seen in the reported data on volunteer activities in schools. Excluding the role of School Governors from our analysis, which we would expect to remain stable, the data suggests the average amount of time volunteers give, when calculated as a per child, per week, has increased on average from 12.5 minutes in 2016, to 21 minutes per pupil, per week in 2018, as shown in Table 2.

2016	2018
Schools receive an average of 12.5 minutes per child, per week	Schools receive an average of 21 minutes per child, per week
Schools receive anywhere between 1 minute to 227 hours of volunteer time per week.	Schools receive anywhere between 1 minute to 324 hours of volunteer time per week
Schools bring in up to 72 minutes of volunteer time per child, per week	Schools bring in up to 75 minutes of volunteer time per child, per week

**Table 2. Changes in volunteer time based on the 2016 and 2018 data sets**

### ***Research Question 2: What is driving collective co-production in primary education?***

Our second significant finding is that, *collective co-production in primary education is primarily being driven by fiscal pressures as schools become increasingly reliant on this activity to survive*. In the 2016 data, we found that schools viewed the more ‘traditional’ types of collective co-production, for example school fairs, funding of extra-curricular activities and volunteer readers, as positive for the wider school community and good for



311 parental engagement. The growing pressure to pursue fundraising and volunteer support  
312 beyond these traditional mechanisms was viewed less favourably (Body et al., 2017).

313 This pressure has increased, with the proportion of school leaders who reported feeling under  
314 pressure to increase fundraised income rising from 66% in 2016 to 94% in 2018, while the  
315 proportion who say that fundraising is a core strategic focus of the school has risen from 29%  
316 in 2013/14 to 60% in 2016/17. Similarly with volunteering, in 2018 63% of schools stated  
317 that they increased their strategic focus on engaging and using volunteers over the past year,  
318 and 70% claimed to have increased the volunteer support their school receives. Further, we  
319 have seen a rise in several areas of fund-raising activity that were previously relatively  
320 uncommon. For example, 50% of schools in 2018 say they have sought support from local  
321 businesses, compared to 31% in 2016, whilst 36% stated in 2018 that they work in  
322 partnership with other schools to fundraise and attract volunteers compared to just 6% in  
323 2016.

324 By 2018, we found a significant shift in school leaders' views in relation to collective co-  
325 production. Whereas individual co-production and parental engagement with parents and the  
326 community was largely viewed by Head-teachers as having multiple benefits, the largely  
327 singular driver of fiscal challenges for collective co-production was met with more criticism:

328 *"In reality this work is an unwelcomed necessity to bolster budgets, when it should be*  
329 *a good thing to do in community engagement." Head-teacher*

330 *"I am very angry that this is the focus of schools, to keep heads above water and not*  
331 *on providing excellent education." Head-teacher*

332 The rise of the campaign groups such as Worthless?, Fair Funding for All Schools and School  
333 Cuts, highlight the significant challenges raised by schools in face of the funding crisis they  
334 are experiencing, and thus by providing solutions to the issues many feel they are *'letting the*  
335 *government off the hook'* (Head-teacher). Whilst many schools still raised ideological  
336 challenges relating to engaging in collective co-production, nearly all schools now identified  
337 it as a mechanism through which they could engage parents and citizens in responding to  
338 budgetary challenges, though this was not always done willingly. Indeed, Head-teachers were  
339 clear, whilst they felt they had to engage in this activity, they were angered by the  
340 government's funding approaches:

341 *"Voluntary action is a necessity to bridge the gap and the decreasing funding we are*  
342 *receiving.....But is this something we really want our schools to be focusing on -*  
343 *surely they should be focused on the education and development of our children? Our*  
344 *backs are against the wall - it looks like we will increasingly have to do this, but it is*  
345 *not a teacher's core skillset and arguably it shouldn't have to be." Head-teacher*

346 Whilst this has resulted in increases in collective co-production in education, as highlighted  
347 in our first finding, some worrying factors emerge as this activity becomes more about  
348 necessity than choice. The percentage of schools who reported in questionnaires that they are  
349 at least now partly reliant on co-production to deliver core, statutory education provision has  
350 increased from 28% to 43% between our 2016 and 2018 data, whilst 75% schools claim in  
351 the latest study that they are reliant on fundraised income to deliver general school activities,  
352 compared to 52% in the previous study.

353 The qualitative data revealed that this has led to growing tensions between what schools felt  
354 collective co-production should achieve versus what it does achieve. Interviews with Head-  
355 teachers revealed increasing concerns about the *'unsustainable reliance on volunteers'*  
356 (Head-teacher); whilst a number of the case studies discussed the increasing tensions  
357 experienced between the PTA and school, as schools ask PTAs to fund basic core costs rather

358 than the more traditional enrichment activities. Furthermore, individuals interviewed  
 359 commonly expressed anger at greater proportions of their time being dedicated to raising  
 360 additional funds, rather than focusing more directly on the education of children:

361 “Previously it was needed for the 'extras' but this year we used PTFA funds to buy  
 362 reading books.” Head-teacher

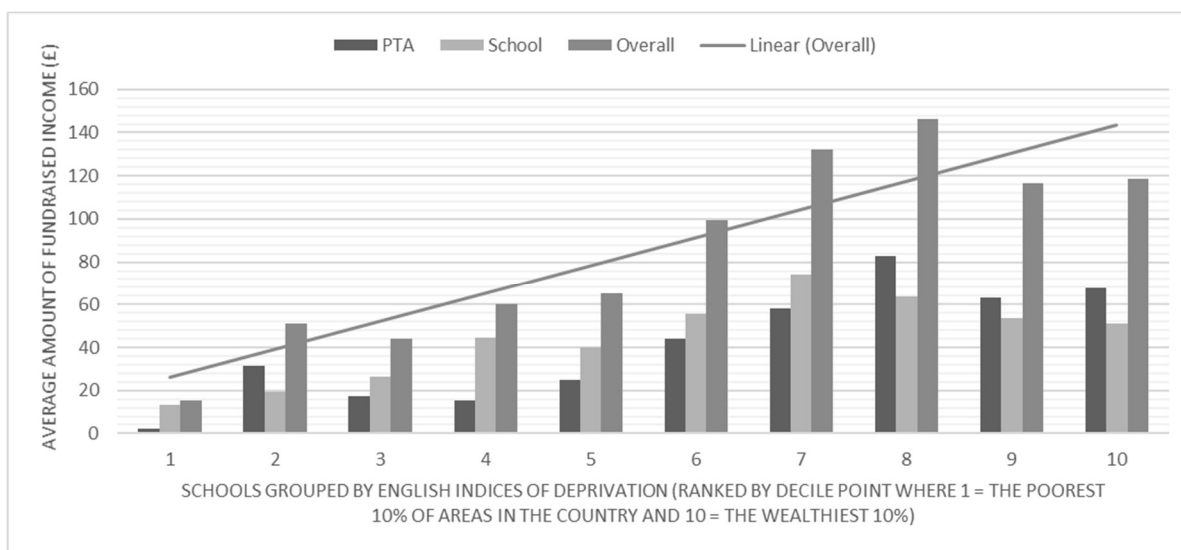
363 “Voluntary action in school generally enhances what we are able to offer. It used to  
 364 be 'the icing on the cake' but now it is sometimes used for more core activities as  
 365 well.” Chair of Governors

366 In short, Head-teachers recognised that collective co-production supported core services, but  
 367 expressed anger that it had to, raising the suggestion that embracing this activity ‘gave the red  
 368 light to government to keep cutting education’ (Head-teacher).

369 **Research Question 3: If collective co-production has increased in primary education, is  
 370 this now more evenly distributed compared to previous findings?**

371 Our third significant finding is, *as collective co-production increases in primary education,*  
 372 *the distribution of this activity becomes more uneven.* As co-production has become more  
 373 significant for primary schools, we see increasing inequalities in the distribution of that  
 374 activity. This was as the result of four different factors.

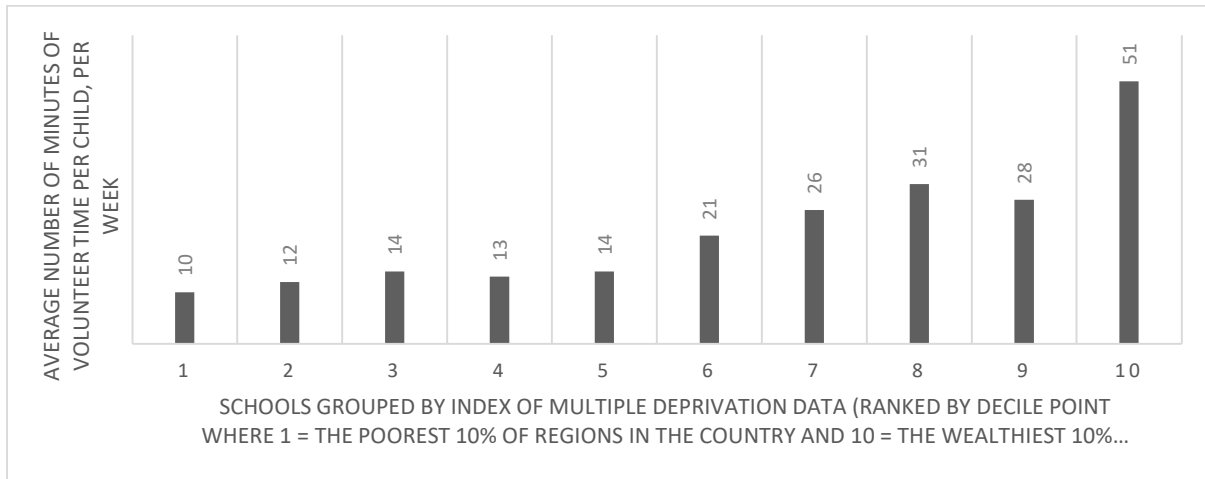
375 The first factor is the distribution of fundraised income across schools. When we combine  
 376 direct donations to schools with that of the PTAs, income for 2016/17 ranged from £1 to just  
 377 over £170,000, equating to a range between £0 and £594 per pupil, per year of additional  
 378 income. For the schools most successful in securing this additional income, this resulted in an  
 379 11% increase in the schools’ budget. Table 1 shows the relationship between school income  
 380 and indices of multiple deprivation. Three important factors emerge from this data. Firstly,  
 381 the trendline demonstrates a clear link between an area’s relative wealth, and the total amount  
 382 of fundraised income schools receive. Second, for schools within areas considered to be more  
 383 deprived fundraising income is generally dominated by donations directly to the schools,  
 384 whereas for schools in wealthier areas PTA income plays a more equal, or even larger, role.  
 385 Third, whilst there is a link between area wealth and overall fundraised income achieved by a  
 386 school, this does not fully account for widening gaps in fundraised income by schools.



387  
 388 **Figure 1. Average amount raised per school, versus index of multiple deprivation data**

389

390 As with donations of money, volunteer time is not evenly distributed, again widening  
 391 inequality. Using indices of multiple deprivation, Figure 2 shows a clear relationship between  
 392 how deprived an area a school is in and how much volunteer time it receives. The differences  
 393 are stark. In the poorest 10% of areas, schools receive just 10 minutes of volunteer time per  
 394 pupil per week, compared to 51 minutes in the wealthiest 10% of areas. Indeed, in the poorer  
 395 half of areas, the average number of minutes is less than half of what it is in the wealthier  
 396 half.



397  
 398 **Figure 2. Average amount of volunteer time per pupil per week, versus index of**  
 399 **multiple deprivation data**

400 Our third finding that reflects this widening inequality was revealed through the questionnaire  
 401 data and interviews with schools, is the skills volunteers could offer. For example, a school  
 402 leader from a school in a wealthier area highlighted how they were achieving significant cost  
 403 savings by reducing support staff time and replacing this with volunteers who were  
 404 established child support professionals. On the other hand, leaders at a school in an area of  
 405 significant deprivation highlighted how they struggled to get parents to engage in the school  
 406 more generally, and that a high proportion of their parents did not speak fluent English.  
 407 Therefore, their ‘friend’s association’ focused solely on engaging parents in the school  
 408 community, and volunteering and fundraising was viewed as ‘*a step too far*’ (*Head-teacher*).

409 Finally, an increasingly disproportionate amount of total fundraised income is harnessed by  
 410 the top 10% of primary schools, and particularly by the top 1%. Whilst the average school,  
 411 taking into account both funds donated directly to schools and PTA income, fundraised  
 412 approximately £19,883 in 2016/17, in terms of distribution less than a third of the schools  
 413 made this or above. A large proportion of fundraised income is concentrated in a few schools  
 414 - the top 10% accounted for 25% of all the donated income, and the top 1% of schools  
 415 account for 10% of all the donated income. If we translate this into figures, in 2016/17 the top  
 416 1% of the schools by fundraised collectively raised £476,784, compared to a total of  
 417 fundraised income of £875 for the bottom 1%. In terms of the amount raised per pupil, this  
 418 means the top 1% of fundraising schools bring in £563 of additional income per child through  
 419 donations, versus the bottom 1% who secure £0.33 per child, per year of additional income.

420

421 **Discussion**

422 In this section we consider these findings in relation to the literature on collective co-  
 423 production, identifying considerations for policy and future research discussions.

424 The extent to which primary schools seek to encourage and rely on collective co-production  
425 is increasing, this is presenting some fundamental challenges for education. Our research  
426 highlights, in agreement with other scholars (e.g. Andrews, 2012; Bovaird et al., 2015;  
427 Kunzel, 2012), the rapid increase of collective co-production in education and other public  
428 services is predominantly driven by fiscal pressures. Whilst the introduction of a new  
429 National Funding Formula offered hope for a more equitable funding arrangement, most  
430 schools in England will not benefit from the new funding formula (IFS, 2018). While the  
431 National Funding Formula does seek to provide additional income for schools in areas of  
432 deprivation or facing challenging circumstances, there was shared acknowledgment across  
433 the surveyed and interviewed primary school leaders that overall they are simply not  
434 provided with sufficient government funding to fund adequate levels of staffing, support and  
435 basic equipment. Thus, although struggles to engage collective co-production may also point  
436 to a lack of organisational structures and/or procedures within schools which further deter  
437 collective co-production (Andrews and Brewer, 2013; Bovaird and Loeffler, 2012), schools  
438 largely feel coerced into engaging in collective co-production on the scale it is now being  
439 practiced (Body, 2020). This coerced collective co-production potentially means  
440 opportunities are not fully explored, and benefits not fully evident (Voorberg et al., 2015).

441 Furthermore, drawing on Brandsen and Honingh's (2015) distinction between co-production  
442 of core and complimentary services, we have witnessed a notable increase of 58% in the  
443 number of schools, over a relatively short period of time, who say that they are now at least  
444 partly relying on collective co-production to deliver core, statutory services. This means that  
445 Head-teachers and school staff feel they have to re-position themselves in their orientation  
446 from engagement of parents on an individual level, to collective mobilisation of parents,  
447 community members and wider stakeholders to achieve their shared goals, which raises  
448 multiple challenges.

449 Furthermore, schools recognised that they had very different resources to draw upon from  
450 their school and wider communities. The sum of collective co-production with parents and  
451 communities in more socially and economically disadvantaged areas is significantly less than  
452 that in wealthier areas. The increased bifurcation of schools between those who benefit from  
453 collective co-production and those who do not is concerning. Along with previous studies,  
454 our research suggests, this formal collective co-production is more likely to occur in non-  
455 deprived areas (Clark et al., 2013; Hastings and Matthews, 2015; Voorberg et al., 2015;  
456 Widding, 2013). Moreover, we found that the most vulnerable children were  
457 disproportionately affected, with over one third of schools reporting that they had reduced  
458 specialist school staff, and replaced them with skilled volunteers, a strategy which appears  
459 more successful in the more affluent areas.

460 However, we urge caution against suggesting that socio-economic factors can fully explain  
461 this disparity. The qualitative data behind this research suggested that many Head-teachers,  
462 particularly those in most disadvantaged areas, pre-judged parent and community willingness  
463 and capabilities to participate, and thus had an unwillingness to support or engage in  
464 collective co-production. This phenomenon has been explored in greater depth in  
465 consideration of individual parent engagement and individual co-production (for example see  
466 Dumais et al., 2012; Flanigan, 2007; Steiner, 2014; Wood and Olivier, 2011) although as our  
467 research did not set out to explore school leaders attitudes, we suggest this is an area  
468 requiring further research.

469 On the other hand schools which embrace collective co-production with multiple success tend  
470 to be situated in areas rich in capital – economic, social and cultural (Andrews, 2012;  
471 Hastings and Matthews, 2015; Widding, 2013). Furthermore, these schools are often building

472 upon successful existing systems and processes of fundraising and volunteer engagement –  
473 they were ahead of the game and had established systems and processes in places to support  
474 collective co-production through voluntary action. Some, but not all schools in these  
475 resource-rich areas pro-actively identify and celebrate co-production as a mechanism to  
476 differentiate their school from others and in a competitive marketplace (where parents  
477 selectively choose where to send their children). These schools see co-production as a way of  
478 gaining an edge over the competition and are well situated to achieve this.

479 The implications of these findings are important for the wider discussions concerning co-  
480 production of public services. We conclude that majority of school leaders feel coerced in  
481 coproduction, driven by economic need rather than social purpose, focusing on income and  
482 performance targets rather than more broader goals of parental and community engagement  
483 and empowerment, compelled into collective co-production due to the high-value nature of  
484 what is at stake – children’s education (Tönurist and Surva, 2017). This is likely to be  
485 counter-intuitive to producing positive outcomes, with research highlighting that  
486 professionals must embrace new practices and roles to successfully engage in co-production  
487 (Sicilia et al., 2019). Furthermore, recruitment of parents and community members as co-  
488 producers varies significantly across the schools, with schools in wealthy areas facilitating  
489 higher levels of voluntary engagement than those in deprived areas. This is keeping with  
490 wider studies which recognise that demographic factors impact participant recruitment  
491 (Sicilia et al., 2019). This cautions against a ‘one size fits all’ approach to co-production in  
492 primary schools.

493 In addition, whilst co-production is commonly viewed with optimism, in line with Steen,  
494 Brandsen and Verschuere (2018) this research brings to light some of the potential pitfalls of  
495 co-production, which we argue must be taken into consideration in this research agenda.  
496 Steen et al. (2018) highlight the seven potential ‘evils’ of co-production: ‘the deliberate  
497 rejection of responsibility, failing accountability, rising transaction costs, loss of democracy,  
498 reinforced inequalities, implicit demands and co-destruction’ (p.284). This study provides  
499 empirical evidence which is in keeping with some of these ‘evils’. First, we contend the  
500 pressure on schools to address financial shortfalls through voluntary action is a deliberate  
501 move by the government to shift financial responsibility onto schools as part of a wider  
502 marketisation agenda (Ball, 2017). It all blurs the boundaries of responsibility, opening-up  
503 the question of accountability – if a school does not have enough financial resources to meet  
504 its statutory obligations, who is to blame the senior leadership of the school or the  
505 government? Furthermore, this research highlights how co-production can reinforce the  
506 entrenched inequalities in education, providing significant advantage to schools in areas of  
507 wealth compared to those in areas of deprivation with the top 1% of fundraising schools  
508 bringing in £563 of additional income per child through donations, versus the bottom 1%  
509 who secured £0.33 per child. Thus, this research provides solid empirical evidence that  
510 collective co-production is not necessarily a self-evident good and requires further research.  
511 Involving over 300 primary schools, the research broadens the scope of understanding,  
512 providing a better sense of the results of collective co-production for different schools within  
513 England.

514

## 515 **Conclusion**

516 Steen et al. (2018) contend that to confront the ‘evils’ of co-production we must ‘look them  
517 in the eye’ (p.290). This research has sought to do just that and counter the dominant  
518 narrative which considers co-production as a virtuous activity in and of itself (Voorberg et al.,  
519 2015). Indeed the limited studies which report on the outcomes of co-production do not

520 provide adequate evidence that co-production achieves the promised benefits, and this  
521 research adds weight to those arguments. In wider policy discussions it is vital that we  
522 consider these potential benefits and drawbacks, with education offering an important test  
523 ground for co-production in public services. As a universal provision, the vast majority of  
524 children and their respective families engage with the services provided by primary schools  
525 which form a central part of most of our communities.

526 In concluding our research, we suggest that stimulating collective co-production in public  
527 services is problematic and requires careful consideration. In our 2016 research we concluded  
528 that schools are increasingly turning towards alternative sources for funding and support, to  
529 deliver high quality education (Body et al., 2017). However, we highlighted significant  
530 disparities in the dispersal of those resources. As a result, we recommended a reconsideration  
531 of the role of this collective action in primary education, due to the risk of it further  
532 increasing social inequalities. What we now note in this updated research is a significant  
533 increase in voluntary action in primary education and whilst we witness some innovative  
534 approaches to increasing voluntary action, we also see increasing inequality. Current  
535 mechanisms for engagement build upon long established processes, and risk exacerbating  
536 existing inequalities. As we see in our example of education, to increase collective co-  
537 production, schools sought to expand their current activities through the long-established  
538 PTAs and volunteer programmes. In some areas, particularly those likely richer in social  
539 capital, this was easier to upscale than in others.

540 The impact of this unequal distribution has wide implications for the universal provision of  
541 education and other public services. In short, some schools have up to almost £600 per child,  
542 per year of additional income and up to 75 minutes of volunteer time, per child per week,  
543 more than others, because of collective co-production through voluntary action efforts.  
544 Furthermore, over a third of schools had reduced support staff, and replaced them with  
545 volunteers, impacting the most vulnerable children in the school. If collective co-production  
546 in education and wider public services is a policy priority, then more innovative and flexible  
547 processes of co-production need to be found which seek to engage a wider range of citizens.  
548 In a bid to survive, schools are at risk of further reproducing the very inequalities education  
549 seeks to tackle.

550 Indeed, further consideration must also be paid to the incentives for this co-production in  
551 public policy. In education, the motivation for collective co-production is largely, though not  
552 wholly, driven at a local level by fiscal pressures – it is on large a rapid reaction to a period of  
553 crisis in funding. We suggest collective co-production driven by these mechanisms risks  
554 becoming a transactional and limited arrangement which does not fully achieve wider  
555 external benefits. Whilst our study specifically examined the extent and distribution of  
556 collective co-production in education, we would encourage further examination of its impact  
557 across public services more widely.

558 Nonetheless, we should not blame or criticise any individual school for taking forward this  
559 action. Schools are facing increasingly difficult financial circumstances, with reduced  
560 budgets coupled with ever increasing costs. As a result, school leaders are taking drastic  
561 action with far reaching consequences, reducing staffing, increasing class sizes, severely  
562 reducing pastoral and mental health support and even cutting down the length of time they  
563 are open or the number of days they open for. They simply cannot manage on the financial  
564 resources they are currently allocated, without making some difficult decisions.

565 These concerns do not by any means imply we are opponents of voluntary action in  
566 education. In raising these criticisms, we do not want to throw the baby out with the  
567 bathwater – collective co-production in the form of donations of time and money make huge

568 contributions to both education and other public services in England and beyond. We should  
569 both celebrate this and learn from successful schools. However, in education and across  
570 public services more broadly we should also be on our guard, wary of a sharp widening of  
571 inequalities resulting from an ever-increasing reliance on private support for a public good.

572

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