

Research report

Maternity and Paternity Rights and Women Returners Survey 2009/10

by Jenny Chanfreau, Sally Gowland, Zoë Lancaster,
Eloise Poole, Sarah Tipping and Mari Toomse

Department for Work and Pensions

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The Authors

Jenny Chanfreau is a Senior Researcher (Analyst) in the Income and Work team at NatCen and works on quantitative analysis projects. Jenny's main research and policy interest area relates to parents' labour market participation and work-life balance.

Sally Gowland is a mixed-methods Researcher in the Children and Young People team at NatCen. Her projects to date have allowed her to maintain her interest and focus on gender and family issues and mixed-methods research.

Zoë Lancaster is a Senior Researcher in the Income and Work team at NatCen. Her research interests include employment policies and practices from both employee and employer perspectives, employment relations, and skills and competencies. She has extensive experience of large scale quantitative research on work-related topics.

Eloise Poole is a Researcher in the Children and Young People team at NatCen. Her projects to date have focused on parental separation, childcare and work-life balance.

Sarah Tipping is a Research Director at NatCen. She works as a Survey Statistician and specialises in sample design and weighting methods.

Mari Toomse is a Research Director in the Income and Work Team at NatCen. She has a track record of managing complex social surveys relating to benefits, tax credits, income and basic skills. Her areas of interest include survey methodology and innovation in social research.

Abbreviations

AML	Additional Maternity Leave
BHPS	British Household Panel Study
BIS	Department for Business Innovation and Skills
CAPI	Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing
CTB	Council Tax Benefit
CTC	Child Tax Credit
DLA	Disability Living Allowance
DWP	Department for Work and Pensions
EU	European Union
FACS	Families and Children Study
HB	Housing Benefit
HMRC	Her Majesty's Revenue & Customs
IB	Incapacity Benefit
IS	Income Support
KIT	Keeping in Touch
JSA	Jobseeker's Allowance
LCA	Latent Class Analysis
MA	Maternity Allowance
NatCen	National Centre for Social Research
NI	National Insurance
OML	Ordinary Maternity Leave
OMP	Occupational Maternity Pay
PSU	Primary Sampling Units
SMP	Statutory Maternity Pay
SPP	Statutory Paternity Pay
SSP	Statutory Sick Pay
WTC	Working Tax Credit

Glossary of terms

Additional Maternity Leave (AML)	Employed women are entitled to Additional Maternity Leave (AML) of 26 weeks, in addition to 26 weeks Ordinary Maternity Leave (OML).
Administrative and secretarial occupations	Major Group 4 in Standard Occupational Classification. Clerical workers gather, record, order, transform, store and transmit information on paper or electronic media and require moderate literacy and numeracy skills.
Associate professional and technical occupations	Major Group 3 in Standard Occupational Classification. Persons in this group perform complex technical tasks requiring the understanding of a body of theoretical knowledge and significant practical skills.
Childcare vouchers	Childcare vouchers are provided by employers to employees to pay for approved or registered childcare, they are National Insurance (NI) and tax exempt up to a value of £55 per week (in 2008).
Elementary occupations	Major Group 9 in Standard Occupational Classification. Workers in this group perform routine tasks, either manually or using hand tools and appliances.
Emergency leave/time off for dependants	All employees, regardless of length of service, are entitled to take time off to deal with an emergency involving a dependant, including a disruption in care; a dependant is defined as a spouse, child, parent or someone living in the same household. The entitlement to time off to care for dependants is limited to short-term, emergency situations.
Employer size	Private employers with 1-24 employees are referred to as 'small', those with 24-499 employees as 'medium' and those with 500 or more employees as 'large'.
Employer supported childcare	The following types of employer supported childcare were explored by the survey: childcare vouchers, workplace childcare, other childcare supported by the employer and help with finding childcare.
Family-friendly arrangements	The family-friendly arrangements explored by the survey include: family leave and flexible working arrangements (see below) and employer supported childcare (see above).
Flexible hours	Working hours that meet an employee's needs.
Flexible working arrangements	The flexible working arrangements explored in the survey include: part-time work, term-time work, job share, flexible working hours, reduced hours for an agreed period, shifts to meet employees' needs and home working.
Full-time job	Working 30 or more hours a week.

Job share	Two people working part-time to fill a full-time post.
Keeping in Touch (KIT) days	Mothers on the Statutory Maternity Leave are entitled to work for their current employer without affecting their maternity pay entitlements. Mothers can use up to ten KIT days.
Managers and senior officials	Major Group 1 in the Standard Occupational Classification. Includes managers and senior officials in government, industrial, commercial and other establishments, organisations or departments within such organisations. They determine policy, direct and coordinate functions, often through a hierarchy of subordinate managers and supervisors.
Maternity Allowance (MA)	Women who do not qualify for Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) are entitled to MA if they have been an employed or self-employed earner in any 26 weeks in the 66-week period ending with the week before the week the baby is due. They must also have had average weekly earnings of £30 during any 13 weeks of the qualifying period.
Occupational Maternity Pay (OMP)	OMP is paid to women by their employer as part of the employment contract. Women who qualify for SMP and receive OMP will usually have SMP incorporated into their OMP.
Parental leave	Up to 13 weeks' statutory parental leave is available to parents with one year's continuous service with their employer who have a child under the age of six. If they have a disabled child the entitlement lasts till the child is 18 and parents can take up to 18 weeks.
Part-time job	Working between 1-29 hours a week.
Paternity leave	Employed men who have completed 26 weeks of service by the 15th week before the baby is due are entitled to two weeks' paid paternity leave.
Personal service occupations	Major Group 6 in Standard Occupational Classification. Occupations in this group include care assistants, child carers, assistant auxiliary nurses, travel agents, hairdressers, domestic staff and undertakers.
Process, machine and plant operatives and drivers	Major Group 8 in Standard Occupational Classification. Plant and machine operators and drivers operate vehicles and other large equipment to transport passengers and goods, move materials, generate power, and perform various agricultural and manufacturing functions.
Professionals	Major Group 2 in Standard Occupational Classification. Professionals perform analytical, conceptual and creative tasks that require a high level of experience and a thorough understanding of an extensive body of theoretical knowledge. They research, develop, design, advise, teach and communicate in their specialist fields.

xviii Glossary of terms

Sales and customer service occupations	Major Group 7 in Standard Occupational Classification. This group includes all employees engaged in buying (wholesale or retail), broking and selling.
School-term work	Working during school terms only.
Skilled trades occupations	Major Group 5 in Standard Occupational Classification. Employees in this group perform complex physical tasks. They apply a body of trade-specific technical knowledge requiring initiative, manual dexterity and other practical skills.
Statutory Maternity Leave (SML)	All employed women are entitled to 52 weeks of SML.
Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP)	Women are entitled to SMP if they have completed 26 weeks continuous employment with their employer into the 15th week before the baby is due, and have earned, on average, at least the lower earnings limit for NI contributions. SMP is paid for 39 weeks.
Statutory Paternity Pay (SPP)	Men are entitled to SPP if they have completed 26 weeks' continuous employment with their employer into the 15th week before the baby is due, and have earned on average at least the lower earnings limit for NI contributions. SPP is paid for two weeks.

Summary

Introduction

The report presents the results of the Maternity and Paternity Rights Survey conducted in 2009 and 2010. The Maternity Rights Survey series has been monitoring take-up of maternity benefits and mothers' post-birth employment decisions since the late 1970s. Earlier surveys in the series monitored mothers' employment behaviour at a time of unprecedented increase in maternal employment. Since the late 1990s there have been much smaller changes in the level of maternal employment and the increase in the rate of return to work after childbirth has also slowed down. However, in the past years a wide range of policy initiatives have been introduced to support working families. The impact of some of these changes could be monitored with the previous survey in this series, conducted in 2007. The 2009/10 survey will allow us to assess the permanency of these changes and gauge the effect of the policy changes introduced between the two surveys in 2007.

For this survey, just over 2,000 face-to-face interviews were conducted with mothers whose children were aged between 12 and 18 months in autumn 2009 and who had worked at some point in the 12 months before the baby's birth. The sample was selected from Child Benefit recipients in Britain and interviews were conducted over two years in autumn 2009 and 2010 (please refer to Appendix A for a detailed description of both waves of the survey).

Fathers' details were collected from their partners and were used to contact them for a telephone interview. Overall, over 1,200 interviews were carried out with fathers in 2009 and 2010.

The results of the 2009/10 Maternity Rights Survey are directly comparable to the results of the previous survey in 2007. Throughout the report we compare the mothers' results to establish recent trends. For the fathers, we present some findings from the 2005 Paternity Rights Survey alongside the current Paternity Rights Survey. However, these findings should be treated with caution, because any changes could partly reflect methodological changes to the 2009/10 survey.

The survey was carried out by the National Centre for Social Research (NatCen) on behalf of the Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) and the Department for Business Innovation and Skills (BIS).

Maternity leave

In 2008, when mothers included in the survey went on maternity leave, the statutory entitlement to maternity leave was 52 weeks (Ordinary Maternity Leave (OML) for 26 weeks and Additional Maternity Leave (AML) for another 26 weeks).

While all mothers who were employees were entitled to both OML and AML, a considerable proportion of these (21 per cent) believed they were only entitled to the statutory paid period of leave (i.e. 39 weeks). The proportion of mothers who believed they were only entitled to the statutory paid period of leave decreased between 2006 and 2008, decreasing from 31 per cent (for mothers entitled to AML) to 21 per cent. Mothers in low level occupations were particularly likely, in both years, to be unaware of their entitlement to an extended period of leave of 52 weeks in total.

The average number of weeks of maternity leave taken by mothers increased significantly from 32 weeks in 2006 to 39 weeks in 2008 (the median also increased from 27 to 39 weeks between 2006 and 2008). This shows that the changes to legislation in 2007 have resulted in more mothers taking

longer maternity leave. Although all employed mothers were entitled to a whole year of maternity leave in 2008, some mothers took less time off:

- 14 per cent of mothers took 26 weeks (six months) or less; and
- 55 per cent took 39 weeks or less maternity leave.

The above results reflect the fact that no statutory pay is available after 39 weeks and after this time additional maternity pay provided by the employer is not very common.

As in 2006, we found considerable variation in the duration of maternity leave among different groups. In 2008:

- the percentage of mothers taking longer maternity leave (beyond 39 weeks) was lowest among mothers working for small private sector employers and highest among mothers working for large private sector employers;
- longer leave was more common in workplaces with a trades union presence (compared with work places without a trades union presence) and in workplaces with a higher number of family-friendly arrangements (compared with no family-friendly arrangements);
- the percentage of mothers taking longer (beyond 39 weeks) maternity leave was lowest among skilled, process and elementary occupations and highest among professionals;
- family circumstances were also associated with the length of maternity leave. Longer leave was more common among partnered mothers, compared with single mothers. The prevalence of longer leave increased with the mother's age, peaking at the 35-39 age group before falling slightly for the oldest category of mothers.

Differences in the length of leave between different groups of mothers decreased between 2006 and 2008, showing that some mothers were able to benefit more from the changes. In particular, it was the mothers in the lowest pay group, with the lowest paid partner, working in small and medium sized private organisations or in skilled, process or elementary occupations as well as mothers working in administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service occupations, among whom the proportion taking long leave (40 weeks or more) increased the most.

Maternity pay

As our survey focused on mothers who had worked in the year before the birth, it was not surprising to find that the overwhelming majority (89 per cent) had received some type of maternity pay:

- The largest group of mothers (42 per cent) had received Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) on its own. In 2008, when mothers in our survey were on maternity leave, this entitled them to receive 90 per cent of their earnings for the first six weeks and then the lesser of either the flat rate of £117.18 or the earnings-related rate, which is 90 per cent of the employee's average weekly earnings, for the remaining 33 weeks.
- SMP combined with additional Occupational Maternity Pay (OMP) provided by the employer was received by 32 per cent of mothers.
- Eleven per cent of mothers had received Maternity Allowance (MA) only. In 2008 this entitled mothers to a flat rate of £117.18 for 39 weeks.

While overall in 2008, almost one-third of mothers had received a combination of SMP and OMP, this figure was considerably higher among some groups, including:

- mothers working for large private employers (47 per cent) and in the public sector (46 per cent);
- mothers in workplaces with a recognised trades union (51 per cent) and five or more family-friendly arrangements (46 per cent);
- mothers with the highest earnings (51 to 56 per cent of those with an hourly gross pay of £12.50 or more) and those who worked more than 30 hours per week (39 per cent);
- mothers who had worked in their job for a longer duration (43 to 46 per cent of those who had been in their job for more than five years).

The above factors remained significant predictors of receipt of SMP combined with OMP, even when the overlap between them was taken into account (for example, the fact that large employers may have more recognised trades unions).

Mothers who received no maternity pay were those in the least advantageous employment conditions. Eleven per cent of mothers reported receiving no maternity pay. Of these, this figure was significantly higher for some groups, including:

- mothers working for small private sector employers (24 per cent);
- mothers working between one and 15 hours per week (37 per cent), and those who had been in their job for less than one year (50 per cent);
- mothers with three or more children (19 per cent), and mothers who were lone parents (28 per cent).

This trend for better-off mothers to receive considerably better financial support than those in less advantageous labour market positions has persisted over the past decade.

Our findings show that a small group of mothers who did not receive maternity pay were legally entitled, according to our calculations, to some kind of maternity pay. While this was the case for a very small number of mothers entitled to SMP (two per cent), it affected a substantial minority of mothers entitled to MA (29 per cent).

Employment decisions after birth

Seventy-seven per cent of women who gave birth in 2008, and worked in the year before the birth, had returned to work 12-18 months later. This figure is very close to that observed in mothers who had given birth in 2006, 76 per cent.

Our findings suggest that mothers' employers, type of employment and individual characteristics played an important role in mothers' decisions around work. The factors with the strongest association with returning to work included:

- employer size and sector: 87 per cent of mothers working in the public sector returned to work, compared with 76 per cent working in large public companies, 75 per cent working in medium sized private companies and 61 per cent working in small private companies;
- duration of pre-birth job: 90 per cent of mothers who had worked in their pre-birth job for more than ten years returned to work compared with 34 per cent who had worked in their pre-birth job less than a year;
- type of maternity pay received: the rate of return to work was 90 per cent among mothers who received the most generous pay package (i.e. a combination of SMP and OMP), compared with 38 per cent among those who received no maternity pay;

- family structure: partnered mothers were more likely to return to work than lone mothers (82 per cent and 51 per cent respectively);
- qualifications: the rate of return was 84 per cent among the highest qualified mothers, compared with 49 per cent among those with no qualifications.

Returning to¹ work after childbirth

While the majority of mothers (84 per cent) who returned to work after maternity leave returned to their pre-birth job, their employment circumstances changed considerably after the birth:

- About half (56 per cent) of mothers who had previously worked full-time returned to full-time work, with about two-fifths reducing their working hours to long part-time hours (16–29 hours per week; 38 per cent). Interestingly, mothers who were working full-time before birth outside London were more likely to reduce their working hours post-birth than mothers in the capital (46 per cent and 35 per cent, respectively). The results could reflect the higher cost of living in the capital, which might restrict mothers' choice in relation to working hours, but could also reflect the availability of part-time jobs and longer commuting times in London, which may make part-time working less practical.
- While a proportion of mothers did take a cut in hourly pay following maternity leave, this was the case for significantly fewer women who had babies in 2008 (eight per cent) compared with in 2006 (15 per cent).

The survey also explored the types of childcare support used by families after the mother returned to work. In line with previous research, the results show the major role played by informal carers, grandparents in particular, in providing childcare support. Fifty-four per cent of families were using grandparents for regular childcare after the mother returned to work, compared with 35 per cent who were using a nursery, and 14 per cent a childminder.

Mothers who did not return to work after childbirth

A detailed analysis of the range of factors shaping mothers' decision to stay at home identified five distinct 'types' or 'clusters' of non-returners, depending on mothers' attitudes towards parental care and childcare, and on the perceived obstacles to work.

One cluster, **the job and childcare obstacles cluster**, comprised of mothers who reported many obstacles to work linked to job-related and financial issues (e.g. concerns about being financially better off in work), as well as lack of childcare support. These mothers reported a low orientation towards parental care and seemed, in principle, to be happy to use non-parental care in order to go out to work. In terms of the socio-demographic profile, this group was younger than average.

A second cluster, **family oriented, some obstacles**, included mothers who were very family oriented. For these mothers the most important factor in determining the decision to stay at home was a strong disposition towards parental care. All of the mothers in this cluster stated that their desire to look after their children themselves and their worry about not having enough time with their children were big factors influencing their decision not to return to work, while half stated that they were not prepared to leave their children in the care of anyone other than close family or friends. The socio-demographic profile of this group was close to the average of all non-returners.

¹ This refers to both mothers who changed jobs and those who remained in the same job.

For mothers in the third cluster, **the carer by choice cluster**, looking after their children was by far the most important reason for staying at home. These mothers were more likely than other non-returners to be living with a partner, be older, be highly qualified, and be in the top income category. These mothers' decision to stay at home after maternity leave seemed unconstrained by financial concerns.

Mothers in the fourth cluster, **the few obstacles cluster**, were less likely than other clusters to report work-related difficulties or a disposition towards parental care. A fifth of mothers cited education, while nearly a quarter of mothers cited job seeking, as activities they engaged in at the time of the interview.

Mothers in the fifth cluster, **the multiple obstacles cluster**, faced a combination of several internal and external constraints on working, including lacking confidence and both job and childcare obstacles. These mothers also showed a preference for parental care. This group of mothers was more likely than others (except cluster one) to be lone mothers, to have low educational qualifications and to have health problems.

Family-friendly arrangements

While mothers reported that a range of family-friendly arrangements were available in their post-birth job, these were by no means universal, for example:

- 12 per cent of mothers said no **flexible working arrangements** (e.g. part-time work, job share, flexible working hours, home working) were available in their first post-birth job, 36 per cent said one or two of these arrangements were available, while 52 per cent reported three or more flexible working arrangements;
- **childcare and other support** (e.g. childcare vouchers, Keeping In Touch (KIT) days, workplace childcare) was not available to 18 per cent of mothers in their first post-birth job. Forty-one per cent of mothers mentioned that there were one or two of these types of support arrangements available, while 40 per cent of mothers mentioning that three or more of these were available in their first post-birth job;
- 21 per cent of mothers said their employer did not provide **family leave** with just 15 per cent of mothers saying they had access to three or more types of family leave.

Access to family-friendly arrangements varied considerably according to employer's characteristics, type of employment and mothers' socio-economic profile. Mothers working for small and medium size employers were considerably less likely than other mothers to have access to a variety of arrangements, including arrangements, such as parental and emergency leave and request to flexible working, they were entitled to.

Mothers working for employers with no recognised trades union were also considerably less likely to have access to childcare and other support arrangements.

Mothers in lower level occupations and temporary jobs were less likely to say family-friendly arrangements were available in their workplace and so were lone mothers and those in low income groups.

Paternity leave and pay

In 2008, when fathers included in the survey took paternity leave, the statutory entitlement to paternity leave was two weeks which was paid at a statutory rate of £117.18 per week.

The vast majority of fathers did take some time off (including all different types of leave) before and after the birth of their baby (66 per cent and 91 per cent respectively). Fathers who took no time off following the birth were most likely to be working in small private organisations or the public sector, working in an organisation where there were no family-friendly arrangements available. Self-employed fathers and fathers earning the lowest rate of hourly pay were also less likely to take time off.

For those fathers who took some time off work following the birth of their baby:

- almost half took this time as paternity leave only;
- just over a quarter took time off as a combination of paternity leave and other paid leave.

This shows that around three-quarters of fathers who took time off following the birth of their baby took at least some of this time as paternity leave. Half of the fathers who took some paternity leave took the statutory length of two weeks. The fathers who took paternity leave were those in a more favourable employment situation, i.e. working in large private or public sector organisations, in organisations where family-friendly arrangements were available, and receiving higher rates of pay.

A large proportion of fathers received some of their paternity leave paid at their full pay rate. Two-fifths who took paternity leave received full pay for up to two weeks. This means that many employers must be topping up the statutory rate of paternity pay and paying fathers' occupational paternity pay. One-fifth of fathers who took paternity leave received none of this time paid at their full pay rate.

For those fathers who received some of their paternity leave at a pay rate which was less than their full pay, just under half received less than the statutory rate of pay, 30 per cent received the statutory rate and 13 per cent received more than the statutory rate (but less than full pay).

Fathers' working patterns and family-friendly arrangements

Fathers have a variety of statutory and non-statutory arrangements available to them in order to support the balance between work and family life such as flexible working arrangements, childcare support arrangements and family leave arrangements.

Working fathers were most likely to have access to and make use of:

- flexible working arrangements such as flexible working hours and working at home sometimes;
- childcare support arrangements such as using the telephone for family reasons and childcare vouchers;
- family leave arrangements such as fully paid time off for family emergencies and unpaid time off for family emergencies.

The number of flexible working arrangements available to fathers was most commonly three or more, however, most fathers who had access to these took up either one or no flexible working arrangements (both 39 per cent).

The number of childcare support arrangements available to fathers was most commonly one; and over half with access to at least one arrangement (51 per cent) made use of one childcare support arrangement. The fathers who had childcare support arrangements available to them were likely to be working in large private organisations or the public sector, have higher household incomes, be white, and be married.

Just under one-third (31 per cent) of fathers reported having three or more family leave arrangements available to them, however, almost the same percentage (55 per cent) did not use any of the family leave arrangements available to them. Fathers who were younger, living in higher income households and who were married, were more likely to make use of family leave arrangements available to them.

Slightly less than half of fathers (44 per cent) changed their working patterns following the birth of their baby. For fathers who did change their working patterns, the most popular types of changes were working shorter hours, working more flexible hours and doing more work at home, all of which point to the most common changes being more family-friendly.

Conclusion

The Work and Families Act 2006 increased the length of Statutory Maternity Leave for some mothers and length of SMP and MA for eligible mothers. These more generous entitlements enabled mothers to take longer time off work after giving birth.

The survey found that in 2008 mothers were taking substantially longer maternity leave than in 2006. However, as in 2006 most mothers did not take their full maternity leave entitlement. Instead, the mean length of maternity leave taken was equivalent to the length of SMP entitlement. The proportion of mothers taking off a shorter period of time than the SMP entitlement had increased between 2006 and 2008.

We also found that similar to 2006, maternity leave decisions in 2008 were strongly influenced by financial considerations. Many mothers who were entitled to an extended period of leave, did not take advantage of this, possibly because they were not willing or able to take unpaid time off. The duration of maternity leave was also considerably shorter among mothers in an economically disadvantaged position (e.g. mothers in low income and low occupational groups), who were also most likely to receive no maternity pay or to receive the least generous pay package, i.e. MA.

The majority of mothers (77 per cent) had returned to work when their baby was 12-18 months old. The proportion of mothers returning to work was very similar in 2006, so our results show that the first year of the economic downturn had not discouraged mothers from returning to work. This may be related to greater flexibility in timing the return to work that was introduced by the Work and Families Act 2006.

The changes introduced with the Work and Families Act 2006 aimed at increasing the return to work rates among employed mothers. The results of this survey show that this has not happened, as the return to work rate in 2008 was almost identical to that in 2006.

As in 2006, in 2008, mothers' post-birth employment decisions were influenced by both constraints and opportunities. On one hand, mothers who had access to family-friendly arrangements and who received maternity pay were more likely to go back to work after childbirth. On the other, lone mothers, those in the youngest age group and those with no qualifications were less likely to return to work. This could partly reflect the greater difficulties these mothers faced, because of their weak labour market position.

The post-birth employment decisions of mothers in more advantageous socio-economic circumstances seemed far less likely to be constrained by the kind of obstacles faced by mothers in disadvantaged groups.

The provision of childcare and other support by employers had increased, owing mainly to greater availability of childcare vouchers and KIT days. However, there had been no changes in the availability of flexible working and family leave arrangements.

As in 2006, the results for 2008 show that while these were widely available, they were considerably less likely to be reported by lone mothers and those in a weaker labour market position (e.g. mothers in low level occupations and low income groups). A substantial proportion of these mothers did not seem to have access even to arrangements they were legally entitled to, such as the right to request flexible working, and parental and emergency leave.

A vast majority of fathers took time off after the birth of their baby, with most of them taking the statutory entitlement of two weeks or more.

Fathers who were more likely to take more time off were employed, with medium earnings, working in large private or public organisations and with access to a larger number of family-friendly arrangements. It is notable that both fathers at the lower end of the occupational pay scale, as well as those in the top end, were less likely to take long leave.

The majority of fathers who took time off did so using paternity leave, either on its own or in combination with other types of leave. The take-up of paternity leave was highest among fathers working in large private and public organisations and with access to more family-friendly arrangements.

The majority of fathers who took paternity leave received their full pay for at least a part of their leave. This indicates that many employers are topping up the statutory pay and paying their employees occupational paternity pay. Fathers more likely to receive occupational paternity pay were more likely to be in a more favourable employment situation.

A majority of fathers who did not take up any paternity leave or who did not take their full entitlement cited being unable to afford this as the main reason. It would seem that in order to avoid a drop in family income, some fathers with no access to occupational paternity pay used other paid leave, such as annual leave, to be with their partner and baby after the birth.

Compared to mothers, fathers reported lower availability of the main types of family-friendly working arrangements. This could reflect differences between the types of organisations men and women work in, but also greater awareness among women.

Slightly over half of fathers made no changes to their working arrangements following the birth of their baby.

1 Introduction

The report presents the results of the Maternity and Paternity Rights Survey conducted in 2009 and 2010.

The Maternity Rights Survey series has been monitoring take-up of maternity benefits and mothers' post-birth employment decisions since the late 1970s². Earlier surveys in the series monitored mothers' employment behaviour at a time of unprecedented increase in maternal employment. Since the late 1990s there have been much smaller changes in the level of maternal employment and the rate of return to work after childbirth has also slowed down. However, in the past years a wide range of policy initiatives have been introduced to support working families. The impact of some of these changes could be monitored with the previous study in this series conducted in 2007. The 2009/10 survey will allow us to gauge the effect of the policy changes introduced between the two surveys in 2007.

In the first part of the chapter we discuss the relevant social and employment policies introduced in the past decade. This discussion is followed by a brief review of previous research on maternal employment and childbirth, and an outline of the main aims of the study. In the last part of the chapter we provide an overview of the methodology used for the 2009/10 Maternity and Paternity Rights Survey.

1.1 Policy background

Maternal employment in Great Britain has been steadily growing for the past three decades, however, it is only since the late 1990s that this increase has been facilitated and supported by a range of social and employment policies.

Parents' decisions about work and childcare are typically the result of a complex interplay of factors, including views and attitudes towards parenting, work orientation and children's needs at different life cycle stages, as well as the more practical difficulties families might face in finding suitable childcare and family-friendly employment. This complexity and diversity in terms of parents' views, expectations and circumstances have led to a range of policy responses to meet families' diverse needs.

There are a number of policy measures that are directly aimed at providing parents with greater choice and flexibility when making decisions about balancing their careers and family life. These include maternity and paternity leave and pay entitlements, parental leave, emergency leave, right to request flexible working, introduction of childcare vouchers, etc. Many of these policies have been enhanced and expanded over the past decade, with the latest major changes being introduced with the Work and Families Act in 2006.

The aim of the Act was to '*give children the best start in life, and to enable all families to have genuine choices about how they balance work and family caring responsibilities*' (Department for Business Innovation and Skills (BIS), 2010). The Act enhanced the Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) and leave package and gave mothers opportunities to remain in contact with their employer during maternity leave. In particular, the Act introduced the following changes from 1 April 2007 (see also Table 1.1):

- increase the SMP period from 26 to 39 weeks;
- increase the Maternity Allowance (MA) period from 26 to 39 weeks;

² For previous reports in the series see: Daniel, 1980; McRae, 1991; Callender *et al.*, 1997; Hudson *et al.*, 2004; Smeaton and Marsh, 2006; La Valle, Clery and Huerta, 2008.

- removed the eligibility requirements to Additional Maternity Leave (AML), which enabled all employed mothers to take up to one year's Statutory Maternity Leave (SML)³;
- introduced the right to ten Keeping in Touch (KIT) days during SMP and MA.

Table 1.1 Changes in maternity and paternity rights and benefits

Type of benefit and eligibility	Before April 2007	From April 2007
Ordinary Maternity Leave (OML) All employed women regardless of length of service	18 weeks	26 weeks
Additional Maternity Leave (AML) All employed women regardless of length of service	26 weeks in addition to 26 weeks OML for women who have completed 26 weeks of service by the 15th week before the baby is due	26 weeks in addition to 26 weeks OML
Paternity Leave Men who have completed 26 weeks of service by the 15th week before the baby is due	2 weeks	2 weeks
Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) Women who have completed 26 weeks continuous employment with their employer into the 15th week before the baby is due and have earned on average, at least the lower earnings limit for NI contributions	26 weeks – First 6 weeks: 90% of the woman's average earnings – Last 20 weeks: flat weekly rate: £108.85 (2006) or 90% of earnings if less	39 weeks – First 6 weeks: 90% of the woman's average earnings – Last 33 weeks: flat weekly rate: £117.18 (2008) or 90% of earnings if less
Maternity Allowance (MA) Women who do not qualify for SMP and who have been an employed or self-employed earner in any 26 weeks in the 66 week period ending with the week before the week the baby is due. They must also have had average weekly earnings of £30 during any 13 weeks of the qualifying period	26 weeks £108.85 (2006) or 90% of earnings if less	39 weeks £117.18 (2008) or 90% of earnings if less
Statutory Paternity Pay (SPP) Men who have completed 26 weeks of service by the 15th week before the baby is due	2 weeks £108.85 (2006) or 90% of earnings if less	2 weeks £117.18 (2008) or 90% of earnings if less

The changes extended the SML and pay periods making AML accessible to a greater number of women. The Act did not make changes to the level of pay in the first 26 weeks, meaning that women were still entitled to six weeks of SMP at the rate of 90 per cent of their earnings and the remainder of the period was paid at a flat rate. The additional 13 weeks of SMP were also paid at the flat rate. Corresponding extension of SML to 52 weeks meant that while mothers could stay at home for a year, they were entitled to receive SMP or MA for nine months, with the last three months of the leave being unpaid.

³ Statutory Maternity Leave consists of 26 weeks of Ordinary Maternity Leave (OML) and 26 weeks of AML.

It was expected that the changes would give women an opportunity to take more time off from work to be with their baby and to give them a chance to return to work at the time that is suitable for them (BIS, 2010). It was found that under the previous legislation some women would return to work but resign shortly afterwards because they felt they had returned early. Others did not return to work at all because they wished to spend more time with their baby than the legislation entitled them to. Thus, one of the aims of the legislation was to increase the proportion of mothers who are able to go back to work after their baby was born (BIS, 2010).

In particular, it was hoped that women would be more likely to return to their pre-birth employer. Previous research has shown that some women who returned to different employers were more likely to take a loss in pay or responsibility compared to those who did not change their employers. Thus, another expected outcome of the legislation was to improve the employment situation of women who return to work after giving birth (BIS, 2010).

KIT days give women an opportunity to work for their employer or to undertake training for up to ten days without this affecting their entitlement to SMP or SML. The aim of KIT days is to increase the contact that women have with their employers during maternity leave. This is expected to make return to work more likely and easier for mothers.

Balancing work and family life after having a baby can be challenging. One way to balance family and job obligations is to allow parents to work flexibly. This includes flexi-time, annualised hours, compressed hours, staggered hours, job sharing, home-working and part-time work. At the time of the survey parents with children aged less than six or of a disabled child aged less than 18 had a right to request flexible working. The employers have an obligation to consider all requests and can only refuse these if they have a clear business reason for doing so. In April 2010, the right to request flexible working was extended to all parents with children aged less than 17.

Fathers' statutory entitlements have been much less extensive than the maternity rights described above. Since 2003 fathers have been entitled to two weeks of paternity leave after the birth of their baby. During the paternity leave fathers are entitled to SPP at a flat rate. Employers can choose to pay fathers above the rate, i.e. to operate a system of Occupational Paternity Pay. The Work and Families Act 2006 did not introduce any changes that would have changed fathers' entitlements before our survey took place in 2009. However, it included provision for the introduction of Additional Paternity Pay. This provision came into force for parents of babies due from April 2011 (i.e. after the time of this survey) and allows fathers to take up to 26 weeks of Additional Paternity Pay after their partner has returned to work.

1.2 Aims of the survey

The aims of the Maternity and Paternity Rights Survey 2009/10 were to:

- examine the impact of the 2007 maternity rights legislative changes on mothers' engagement and experience in the labour market prior to, and following, the birth through tracking changes from the 2007 survey;
- provide a detailed, statistically representative, up-to-date picture of mothers' experiences and take-up of maternity rights and benefits to identify the impact of the 2007 legislative changes, and to provide a baseline against which the impact of future changes can be measured;
- identify differences in take-up and eligibility (including all types of leave and pay, including Occupational Maternity Pay) related to individual characteristics, job characteristics and employer characteristics and how it has changed following the introduction of the 2007 reforms;

- examine what enables women returners to remain in work, to explore the choices and constraints behind non-working mothers remaining out of the labour market post-childbirth and what would enable them to return to work including childcare usage;
- examine fathers' take-up of paternity leave and paternity pay in order to collect robust data on the various provisions for fathers during and after the mothers' pregnancy;
- explore the attitudes of both fathers and mothers on sharing the childcare responsibility during the six months, additional maternity leave.

1.3 Methodology

The Maternity and Paternity Rights Survey 2009/10 comprised separate interviews with mothers and fathers. Mothers of young children were approached first and interviewed face-to-face. Their partners were then contacted via telephone and asked to answer a few questions about their experience. 2,031 mothers and 1,253 fathers were successfully interviewed.

The original fieldwork took place in autumn 2009. However, due to problems with a sample, an additional round of fieldwork had to be undertaken in 2010. For details about the measures taken to ensure the equivalence of the two waves see Appendix A. Anonymised data files will be deposited in the UK Data Archive and can be accessed online.⁴

1.3.1 Sample design

The Maternity Rights Survey 2009 included a sample of parents with children aged between 12 and 18 months. This criterion was chosen because most mothers who intended to return to work after the birth were likely to have done so by this stage, at the same time their 'maternity' experiences were sufficiently recent to avoid any serious recall problems.

Mothers' sample

The sample was selected from Child Benefit recipients who had a baby between May and September 2008, only (birth) mothers were interviewed. Child Benefit take-up is nearly universal (98 per cent), so it is unlikely that the omission of mothers who do not claim Child Benefit affected the validity of results. As one of the key aims of the survey was to monitor the take-up of maternity benefits, only mothers who had worked at some point in the 12 months before the birth were included in the survey. These mothers could have been working for an employer as an employee or could have been self-employed. Whether mothers had worked before the birth was established with a doorstep screening. The aim of this screening criterion was to maximise the number of mothers entitled to maternity benefits. It was not possible to ensure that only mothers entitled to these benefits were interviewed, as the screening questions required for this would have been too complex to administer in a doorstep screening exercise. The selection criterion used for the survey also means that the sample is not representative of all mothers with young children. Mothers who have never been in paid employment are excluded and those with limited work experience are under-represented, while first-time mothers are over-represented, as they are more likely than other mothers to have been in work in the year before the birth⁵.

⁴ <http://www.data-archive.ac.uk>

⁵ Analysis of mothers who had a baby in 2001/02 shows that 86 per cent of first-time mothers were employed when pregnant, compared with 59 per cent of mothers who already had another child(dren) (Dex and Ward, 2007).

The sample was drawn in two stages:

- 120 Primary Sampling Units (PSUs) were drawn with equal probability, PSUs comprised postcode sectors or groups of postcode sectors;
- all claimants in the selected PSUs with children in the eligible birth range were selected for the sample.

After the fieldwork it was discovered that some Child Benefit recipients had been accidentally excluded from the sample frame and thus, also from the sample itself. This omission was not random, meaning that data was not representative of the population. To overcome this, a new sample was drawn from the Child Benefit recipients who had been missed in the first round. This sample was selected from the original PSUs. However, unlike the original sample, only a random subset of cases was selected from each PSU.

There were no selection weights for the first sample as all Child Benefit recipients were selected with equal probability, however, selection weights had to be calculated for the second sample to ensure that the combined sample was representative. Model base weights were calculated to compensate for non-response. The final weights are a combination of selection and non-response weights. Detailed information about the sample design and weighting can be found in Appendix A.

Fathers' sample

Mothers who were screened in and agreed to be interviewed as well as mothers who were screened out were asked for contact details of the baby's father. The contact details were passed on to the NatCen Telephone Unit who contacted fathers a few weeks later to complete the screening and carry out telephone interviews with eligible fathers. Fathers were eligible if they were working and living with the baby's mother at the time the baby was born (i.e. if they were likely to be eligible for paternity leave and pay).

The sampling problems that affected mothers' data collected in 2009 had an impact on fathers' 2009 data as well. Thus, the 2010 operation included telephone interviews with fathers whose partners had been excluded from the original sample. Contact details were available for a larger number of fathers than was required for achieving the required number of interviews, so a random sub-sample of fathers were selected for fieldwork. To ensure consistency with the 2009 sample, fathers who had been living with their partner in December 2009, but were no longer living with them at the time of mothers' interview were included in the 2010 sample.

Fathers' weights were calculated using the same methodology as had been applied for mothers' weights: the final weights were a product of selection weights and non-response weights. More details on fathers' sampling and weighting is available in Appendix A.

1.3.2 Questionnaire development

The 2009 questionnaire for mothers was largely based on the 2007 questionnaire to maintain comparability. However, some new sections were required to reflect the recent policy changes. The questions for the fathers' questionnaire were a mixture of questions taken from the mothers' survey, previous surveys and some completely new questions. Questions based on the 2005 previous survey were substantially redeveloped for the 2009 survey.

An extensive development and testing stage was carried out to improve the questions included in the 2007 survey and to develop new questions. An expert panel was initially consulted to get some advice from experienced NatCen researchers on some of the more problematic aspects of the mothers' questionnaire. A separate expert panel was held to gather views about the fathers'

questionnaire. The changes to the fathers' questionnaire were more substantial and were, therefore, subjected to cognitive testing. Sixteen cognitive interviews were conducted to test, in considerable depth, fathers' understanding of some of the more complex questions, and to identify ways of dealing with possible recall problems. Finally, a full dress-rehearsal pilot was carried out with 42 mothers and 52 fathers. The interview in its full CAPI (Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing) and CATI (Computer Assisted Telephone interviewing) format was tested at this stage. Wave 1 mothers and fathers questionnaire can be found in Appendix G and pilot reports for both mothers' and fathers' survey's in Appendix H.

The questionnaire had to be adapted slightly for the 2010 operation, as all the questions needed to refer to a specific point in time (December 2009). This was achieved by adding a time reference to all questions that in 2009 referred to the time of the interview. A field pilot was carried out to test the changes to both the mothers' and fathers' questionnaire. There was a risk that interviewing mothers and fathers a year later would lead to high levels of recall error. However, the results of the pilot were encouraging and confirmed that parents understood the questions and were able to remember the situation in December 2009.

1.3.3 Fieldwork

Parents selected for the survey were sent an initial letter to invite them to take part in the survey, but also to give them the option to 'opt out', if they did not wish to be contacted⁶: Seven per cent of parents opted out at this stage in 2009 and six per cent in 2010. There were no occasions where one of the partners wished to opt in while the other wished to opt out, so all cases that opted out were removed from both the mothers' and fathers' samples.

The overall response rate for the mothers' survey after excluding ineligible mothers was 54 per cent in 2009 and 51 per cent in 2010 (see Table 1.2). The lower response rate in 2010 was mainly a result of sampling problems described above and not the refusals, which were on the same level as in 2009. Overall, 1,492 interviews were achieved with mothers in 2009 and another 727 in 2010. One consequence of the errors in sampling was that some mothers who should not have been included in the 2009 sample were included. As a result some completed interviews had to be removed, leaving the overall mothers sample size of 2,031 cases.

Contact details for 1,449 fathers were issued for telephone fieldwork in 2009 and another 528 in 2010 (Table 1.3). Overall response rate, excluding ineligible fathers, was 75 per cent in 2009 and 77 per cent in 2010. As with mothers, some cases should not have been issued in 2009 and were, therefore, removed from the final data. This leaves the overall sample size of 1,253 for 2009 and 2010 fathers' survey.

⁶ The letters mentioned both the survey of mothers and survey of fathers, giving either of the parents an opportunity to opt out.

Table 1.2 Mothers' response rates

	2009	2010
In scope of fieldwork	4,937	1,841
Screened in		
Full interview	1,492	727
Partial interview ¹	2	4
Refusal	313	129
Other unproductive	25	23
Screened out	1,448	257
Screening not completed		
Mover	1,171	237
Non-contact	294	599
Contact, but screening not completed (including refusals)	192	102
Response rates		
Overall response rate %	54	51
Full response rate %	54	50
Co-operation rate %	82	83
Contact rate %	66	61
Refusal rate %	11	9
Eligibility rate %	56	77

¹ Interview with mother started but not completed.

Table 1.3 Fathers' response rates

	2009	2010
In scope of fieldwork	1,449	528
Screened in		
Full interview	971	385
Partial interview ¹	2	0
Refusal	6	5
Other unproductive	7	0
Screened out	118	24
Screening not completed		
Mover	59	7
Non-contact	45	9
Contact, but screening not completed (including refusals)	241	98
Response rates		
Overall response rate %	75	77
Full response rate %	75	77
Co-operation rate %	99	99
Contact rate %	76	78
Refusal rate %	0	1
Eligibility rate %	89	94

¹ Interview with father started but not completed.

Mothers' interviews lasted an average of 35 minutes and were carried out between October and December 2009 and October and December 2010. The mean length of fathers' interviews was 20 minutes and the fieldwork was conducted between November 2009 and January 2010 and then again between November 2010 and January 2011.

1.3.4 Comparability of results with fathers' 2005 survey

The 2009/10 telephone survey with fathers was not the first to investigate paternity experiences. The first survey on this topic was conducted in 2005 (Smeaton and Marsh, 2006). There were a number of differences between the 2005 and 2009/10 fathers' surveys in sample construction, response rates, seasonality and the age of the reference child. The two surveys were carried out at different times of year and included slightly different ages for eligibility⁷. In addition, the phone numbers for the 2009/10 survey were collected on the doorstep by interviewers but for the 2005 survey they were matched using a telephone look-up based on the bill-payer's name. This would have systematically excluded some fathers and introduced bias into the 2005 sample. It also had a detrimental effect on overall response rates of the 2005 survey. Given the likely bias these differences would introduce, the comparisons between the 2005 and 2009/10 data should be treated with extreme caution.

1.4 The report

1.4.1 Report content

Chapter 2 explores awareness and take-up of maternity leave and provides analysis of the relationship between different maternity leave arrangements and mothers' circumstances.

Chapter 3 provides an extensive analysis of the profile of mothers receiving different types of maternity pay, and explores the link between the duration of maternity pay and maternity leave. We also look at the experiences of receiving different types of maternity pay, including any difficulties mothers experienced in claiming and receiving maternity pay.

Chapter 4 includes a comprehensive examination of how mothers who returned to work after the birth differ from those who stayed at home. The analysis focuses on differences between returners and non-returners in terms of type of pre-birth employer, pre-birth job, type of maternity pay received and family circumstances.

Chapter 5 explores the decisions and employment outcomes of mothers who returned to work after the birth. We first explore the factors that influenced the timing of the return to work, and whether these might be linked to the type of maternity pay mothers received. We then look at whether mothers returned to their pre-birth job or changed jobs after the birth, and analyse any regional variations in relation to this decision.

Chapter 6 focuses on mothers who did not return to work after the birth. We present our findings from a typology of non-returners based on the factors influencing their decisions around work. We examine whether different 'types' of mothers vary according to socio-economic characteristics and the kind of working arrangements that would have facilitated the return to work of different 'types' of mothers.

Chapter 7 provides an overview of mothers' access to and take-up of different family-friendly working arrangements, followed by an analysis of how the availability and use of these

⁷ In 2005 fathers of babies aged between 13-19 months were eligible, in 2009 fathers of babies aged 12-18 months were eligible.

arrangements varies according to employer's characteristics, type of job and mothers' socio-demographic profile.

Chapter 8 investigates the take-up of paternity leave and other types of leave both before and after the birth of their baby, examines the reasons why fathers did not take up their full paternity leave entitlement and why fathers took no paternity leave at all and no time off at all. The chapter will then turn to examine paternity pay, concentrating on the period and rate of pay.

Chapter 9 explores the accessibility and take-up of family-friendly arrangements among fathers and changes to working patterns following the birth of their baby.

Chapter 10 draws together the main findings by focusing on the effect of recent policy changes, including: the length of maternity leave that women in different circumstances take, the influences that shape maternal employment decisions after birth, the effects of childbearing on maternal employment circumstances and the factors associated with access to, and take-up of, different family-friendly working arrangements. The chapter also summarises the main findings for fathers, focusing on the take-up of paternity leave and pay among different groups of fathers.

1.4.2 Interpreting the results

Comparison of results from the 2007 and 2009/10 surveys is central to the report. When reporting the results, we will refer to the surveys not by the year when they were conducted but by the year the baby was born (2006 and 2008 respectively), as this is the year that mothers and fathers were making their decisions about taking time off.

The tables in the report contain the total number of unweighted cases in the whole sample, or in the particular group being analysed, and the base for different columns (e.g. mothers in different types of employment). The bases for the tables include all eligible respondents (i.e. all respondents or all respondents who were asked a particular question), minus missing cases. As a result, base sizes for the same group of respondents may vary slightly between tables. Therefore, while the base description might be the same across several tables (e.g. all mothers who returned to work after birth), the base sizes might differ slightly due to the exclusion of missing cases.

Due to rounding, percentages may not add up to exactly 100 per cent.

Unless stated otherwise, when differences are reported in the text, these differences are statistically significant, at the 95 per cent confidence interval or above.

The following symbols have been used in tables:

- [] to indicate a percentage based on fewer than 50 unweighted cases
- * percentages based on fewer than 25 unweighted cases are not shown
- (blank) to indicate that no respondents gave that answer
- 0 to indicate a percentage value of less than 0.5 per cent

2 Maternity leave

This chapter looks at mothers' experiences of working during pregnancy and of taking maternity leave. It investigates awareness and take-up of maternity leave and other entitlements such as Keeping In Touch (KIT) days and provides extensive analysis of the relationship between mothers' circumstances and different maternity leave arrangements.

This chapter considers the experiences of mothers who had a baby in 2008 and explores how far the situation has changed since 2006, given recent maternity rights reforms, including the extension of entitlement to Additional Maternity Leave (AML) to all employed women in April 2007, and the extension of maternity pay to 39 weeks at the same time. One of the aims of the Work and Families Act 2006 that introduced these changes was to give mothers an opportunity to stay home longer with their baby before returning to work. This chapter will consider to what extent this has happened and whether any groups of mothers have been able to benefit more from the changes.

As statutory maternity leave is only available to employees, many of these areas of consideration are not relevant to self-employed mothers, who are excluded from much of the analysis. However, when relevant, differences between employees and self-employed mothers are explored. It is worth noting that maternity leave is separate to any accrued annual leave a mother may also take around the birth of her baby. In this report maternity leave is defined by the statutory amount of leave and does not incorporate any other types of leave which may have been taken in conjunction with maternity leave.

2.1 Treatment at work during pregnancy

In this section we look at how mothers, who were employees in their last pre-birth job, were treated at work during their pregnancy; we first look at any evidence of unfair treatment and then any difficulties relating to mothers' maternity leave arrangements.

Overall, the vast majority of mothers with babies born in both 2006 and 2008 experienced no unfair treatment by their employer. The proportion experiencing no unfair treatment seemed to decline somewhat between the two surveys, from 89 per cent in 2006 to 82 per cent in 2008. However, this may be a reflection of changes to the questionnaire.

Mothers who gave birth in 2006 were firstly asked whether they thought they were treated unfairly at work as a result of their pregnancy. This question did not include a definition of what constitutes 'unfair treatment', and was thus, open to mothers' own interpretation. Mothers who said they had been treated unfairly as a result of their pregnancy were asked about the types of unfair treatment encountered. However, all of the mothers who gave birth in 2008 were shown the list of different types of unfair treatment and asked whether they had encountered one or more of these. The latter approach is likely to have resulted in more mothers reporting unfair treatment, because some mothers might not have thought to include certain types of unfair treatment when asked the general question.

We found that the experience of unfair treatment was significantly associated with the number of family-friendly arrangements accessible in the workplace, as demonstrated in Figure 2.1, and that the effect of family-friendly arrangements on the experience of unfair treatment differed between the two points in time.

In 2006 the proportion of mothers reporting unfair treatment decreased relatively smoothly as the number of family-friendly arrangements increased, from 24 per cent of mothers in workplaces

with no family-friendly arrangements reporting unfair treatment to seven per cent of mothers in workplaces with five or more family-friendly arrangements doing so. However, in 2008, the proportion of mothers reporting unfair treatment fell from a high of 40 per cent in workplaces with no family-friendly arrangements to around a quarter of mothers in workplaces with one or two (23 per cent) and three or four (25 per cent) family-friendly arrangements, which was further reduced to 14 per cent of mothers in workplaces with five or more family-friendly arrangements.

The higher level of reported unfair treatment in 2008 compared with 2006 for all of the categories is likely to be in large part attributable to the changes in the questionnaire discussed above, however, the change in pattern is unlikely to be due to this. It should be noted that the results on family-friendly arrangements are based on mothers' awareness of the arrangements available in her workplace. For more information about the types of family-friendly arrangements explored by the survey, see Chapter 7.

Figure 2.1 Percentage of mothers who experienced unfair treatment by number of family-friendly arrangements in the last pre-birth job



We now turn to looking at the types of unfair treatment experienced in the two years. As shown in Table 2.1, overall, relatively similar levels of reported unfair treatment types were found in both years. Being given unsuitable tasks or workloads and receiving unpleasant comments from the employer or colleagues were the most common types of unfair treatment reported in both years. Each type was experienced by four to five per cent of employed mothers. However, a somewhat higher proportion of mothers with babies born in 2008 reported being denied access to training (three per cent), compared with in 2006 (one per cent). A higher proportion of mothers with babies born in 2008 also reported being bullied by their manager or supervisor (two per cent), compared with hardly any mothers reporting this in 2006 (zero per cent).

Table 2.1 Types of unfair treatment at work

Base: Mothers who were employees before going on maternity leave

Unfair treatment type	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
Unpleasant comments from employer and/or colleagues	4	5
Given unsuitable work or workloads	5	4
Discouraged from attending antenatal classes during work time	2	3
Unfairly criticised or disciplined about performance at work	2	3
Failed to gain a promotion that felt they deserved or otherwise sidelined	2	3
Denied access to training that would otherwise would have received	1	3
Treated so poorly that felt they had to leave	2	2
Bullied by line manager/supervisor	0	2
Other specific answer	2	2
Reduction in salary or bonus	1	1
Received a pay rise or bonus that was less than peers at work	1	1
Missed out on development opportunities		
None	89	82
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,517	1,534

Base: Mothers who were employees in the last pre-birth job.

Note: Multiple responses.

The majority of mothers in both years, reported no difficulties with their employer in relation to mothers' maternity leave decisions (82 per cent in 2006 and 81 per cent in 2008) (Table 2.2). The most common difficulty with employers relating to maternity leave in both surveys was the employer lacking knowledge about maternity leave entitlements and benefits; reported by 13 per cent of mothers in 2006 and 16 per cent of mothers in 2008. No other difficulty was encountered by more than three per cent of mothers.

Table 2.2 Difficulties with employers relating to maternity leave

Base: Mothers who were employees before going on maternity leave

Type of difficulty	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
Employer lacked knowledge about maternity leave entitlements and benefits	13	16
Employer unhappy about maternity leave	2	3
Encouraged by employer to start maternity leave earlier than would have liked	3	3
Encouraged to take time off/be signed off on sick leave before ready to start maternity leave	3	2
Put under pressure to hand in notice	1	1
Other difficulties	0	
None	82	81
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	<i>1,517</i>	<i>1,534</i>

Note: Multiple responses.

2.2 Awareness of maternity leave entitlement

Mothers who were employees rather than self-employed in their last pre-birth job were asked a range of questions to explore their understanding of the maternity leave they were legally entitled to and the maternity leave their employer provided. Mothers were asked how much maternity leave they thought they were allowed by law, regardless of whether it was paid or unpaid.

A significantly higher proportion of employed mothers in 2008 (69 per cent) thought they were legally entitled to a whole year of maternity leave compared with the previous survey (61 per cent) (Table 2.3). This appears to reflect the changes to the rules for legal entitlement of maternity leave in April 2007. For employed mothers who gave birth in 2006 the minimum statutory entitlement to Ordinary Maternity Leave (OML) was 26 weeks, while mothers who had worked for their employer for a sufficiently long period of time were entitled to an additional 26 weeks (i.e. AML). The majority of employed mothers fell into this latter category of being entitled to both OML and AML. However, following the 2007 policy change, all employed mothers-to-be automatically qualified for both OML and AML, entitling them to a total of 52 weeks of maternity leave regardless of their length of service with the employer.

Table 2.3 Mothers' awareness of legal entitlement to maternity leave, by calculated maternity leave entitlement

Base: Mothers who were employees before going on maternity leave

	Year baby was born		
	OML	2006 AML	2008 AML
Awareness of maternity leave legal entitlement, in weeks	%	%	%
1-25 weeks	2	3	2
26 weeks	47	31	5
27-38 weeks		1	2
39 weeks	2	2	21
40-51 weeks	2	0	1
52 weeks	48	61	69
53 weeks or more	2	1	1
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	61	1,365	1,467

Note: Column percentages.

To interpret these findings we also looked at the mothers' awareness of their legal entitlement to leave in each year, by our estimation of their legal entitlement (based on their employment information). In 2006, 61 per cent of those entitled to AML (52 weeks) correctly gave their legal entitlement, while only half (47 per cent) of those entitled to OML only (26 weeks) did so. In 2008, 69 per cent of employees (all entitled to AML) knew their legal entitlement. In both 2006 and 2008 a significant minority of employees entitled to a whole year of leave wrongly thought their legal entitlement to leave was equal to the paid part of the leave. However, this proportion declined from 31 per cent in 2006 to 21 per cent in 2008 (analysis not shown). Thus, it seems that awareness of legal entitlement has improved since the simplification of the entitlement rules.

We also investigated mothers' awareness of their legal entitlement to maternity leave by occupational group and the duration of leave actually taken by the mothers. As Table 2.4 shows, in both 2006 and 2008, awareness of legal entitlement varied by occupational group, with the highest proportion of employees reporting a legal entitlement to a whole year of leave found among professionals (76 per cent and 82 per cent, respectively) and the lowest among skilled, process and elementary occupations (37 per cent and 54 per cent, respectively).

In both surveys awareness of legal entitlement varied by number of weeks of leave actually taken (Table 2.5), with the highest proportion of mothers reporting a legal entitlement of 52 weeks if they had actually taken this amount of leave (89 per cent in 2006 and 85 per cent in 2008).

Table 2.4 Mothers' awareness of legal entitlement to maternity leave, by her occupational group

Awareness of maternity leave legal entitlement, in weeks (2006-08)	2008									
	2006					2008				
	Occupational group ¹		Occupational group		Occupational group		Occupational group		Occupational group	
	Managers and senior officials %	Professionals %	Associate professional and technical %	Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services %	Skilled, process and elementary occupations %	Managers and senior officials %	Professionals %	Associate professional and technical %	Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services %	Skilled, process and elementary occupations %
1-25 weeks	5	1	3	3	4	5	2	2	2	3
26 weeks	26	19	25	36	56	3	2	4	6	6
27-38 weeks		2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	2
39 weeks	1	2	1	3		21	11	18	24	35
40-51 weeks	1		1	1	1	0	1	1	1	
52 weeks	67	76	69	55	37	67	82	73	65	54
53 weeks or more	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	148	200	283	717	104	191	230	295	630	118

Note: Column percentages.

¹ See the Glossary of terms for the definition of occupational groups.

Table 2.5 Mothers' awareness of legal entitlement to maternity leave, by actual maternity leave taken

Base: Mothers who were employees at the time of the birth

Awareness of maternity leave legal entitlement, in weeks	Length of maternity leave taken, in weeks						
	1-25 weeks %	26 weeks %	27-38 weeks %	39 weeks %	40-51 weeks %	52 weeks %	53 weeks or more %
2006							
1-25 weeks	8	2	2	*	4	2	4
26 weeks	39	43	33	*	12	8	18
27-38 weeks	1	1	3	*	1		
39 weeks	2	1	3	*	2	1	4
40-51 weeks	2	0	0	*	1	1	
52 weeks	47	53	58	*	78	89	70
53 weeks or more	1	0	1	*	1		4
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	191	492	348	19	141	171	51
2008							
1-25 weeks	10		2	1	3	2	4
26 weeks	9	14	6	2	5	2	
27-38 weeks	4		2	1	2		2
39 weeks	19	18	22	30	22	10	17
40-51 weeks	4	1	1	1			
52 weeks	58	65	67	65	68	85	70
53 weeks or more		0	0			7	
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	119	67	319	303	330	241	70

Note: Column percentages.

Mothers were also asked about the maternity leave allowed by their employer at the time when they stopped working to have a baby. In 2006, the average length of time taken as maternity leave for mothers was 32 weeks compared to 2008 where this was 39 weeks. The median length of time taken as maternity leave in 2006 was 27 weeks compared to 39 weeks in 2008. Interestingly, mothers thought their employer allowed less maternity leave than they believed they were legally entitled to (Table 2.6). In both years only about half of mothers thought that their employer allowed a whole year of maternity leave (48 per cent in 2006 and 53 per cent in 2008), a lower proportion than stated that they thought they were legally entitled to a whole year (61 per cent in 2006 and 69 per cent in 2008). Many employees believed that their employer only allowed the paid leave (40 per cent in 2006 and 27 per cent in 2008).

Table 2.6 Mothers' perceptions of maternity leave allowed, by employer and legal entitlement

Base: Mothers who were employees at the time of the birth

Weeks	2006		2008	
	Maternity leave allowed by employer %	Legal entitlement to maternity leave %	Maternity leave allowed by employer %	Legal entitlement to maternity leave %
1-25 weeks	6	3	7	2
26 weeks	40	32	7	5
27-38 weeks	2	1	2	2
39 weeks	1	2	27	21
40-51 weeks	1	1	3	1
52 weeks	48	61	53	69
53 weeks or more	1	1	1	1
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,421	1,457	1,419	1,467

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Base sizes differ due to missing values.

In both years, awareness of the length of maternity leave allowed by the employer varied by occupational group. Again, mothers in higher occupational groups were more likely to think their employer allowed a longer period of maternity leave than those in other occupations (Table 2.7). The highest percentage of employees who thought that their employer allowed a whole year was found among professionals (61 per cent in 2006 and 60 per cent in 2008), while the lowest percentage who thought this was found among employees in skilled, process and elementary occupations (32 per cent in 2006 and 38 per cent in 2008).

Table 2.7 Mothers' perception of maternity leave allowed by own employer, by occupational group

Maternity leave allowed by employer, in weeks	2006										2008									
	Occupational group ¹					Occupational group					Occupational group					Occupational group				
	Managers and senior officials %	Professionals %	Associate professional and technical %	Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services %	Skilled, process and elementary occupations %	Managers and senior officials %	Professionals %	Associate professional and technical %	Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services %	Skilled, process and elementary occupations %	Managers and senior officials %	Professionals %	Associate professional and technical %	Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services %	Skilled, process and elementary occupations %	Managers and senior officials %	Professionals %	Associate professional and technical %	Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services %	Skilled, process and elementary occupations %
1-25 weeks	9	6	7	5	13	8	9	6	6	7	8	9	6	6	7	8	9	6	6	7
26 weeks	35	27	34	46	52	21	14	20	28	28	21	14	20	28	28	21	14	20	28	28
27-38 weeks	1	4	1	3	2	2	2	1	2	3	2	2	1	2	3	2	2	1	2	3
39 weeks	1	0	1	1	1	12	12	11	15	22	12	12	11	15	22	12	12	11	15	22
40-51 weeks	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	1
52 weeks	51	61	55	44	32	55	60	57	46	38	55	60	57	46	38	55	60	57	46	38
53 weeks or more	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1
Unweighted bases	143	198	278	693	106	179	223	294	607	113	179	223	294	607	113	179	223	294	607	113

Note: Column percentages

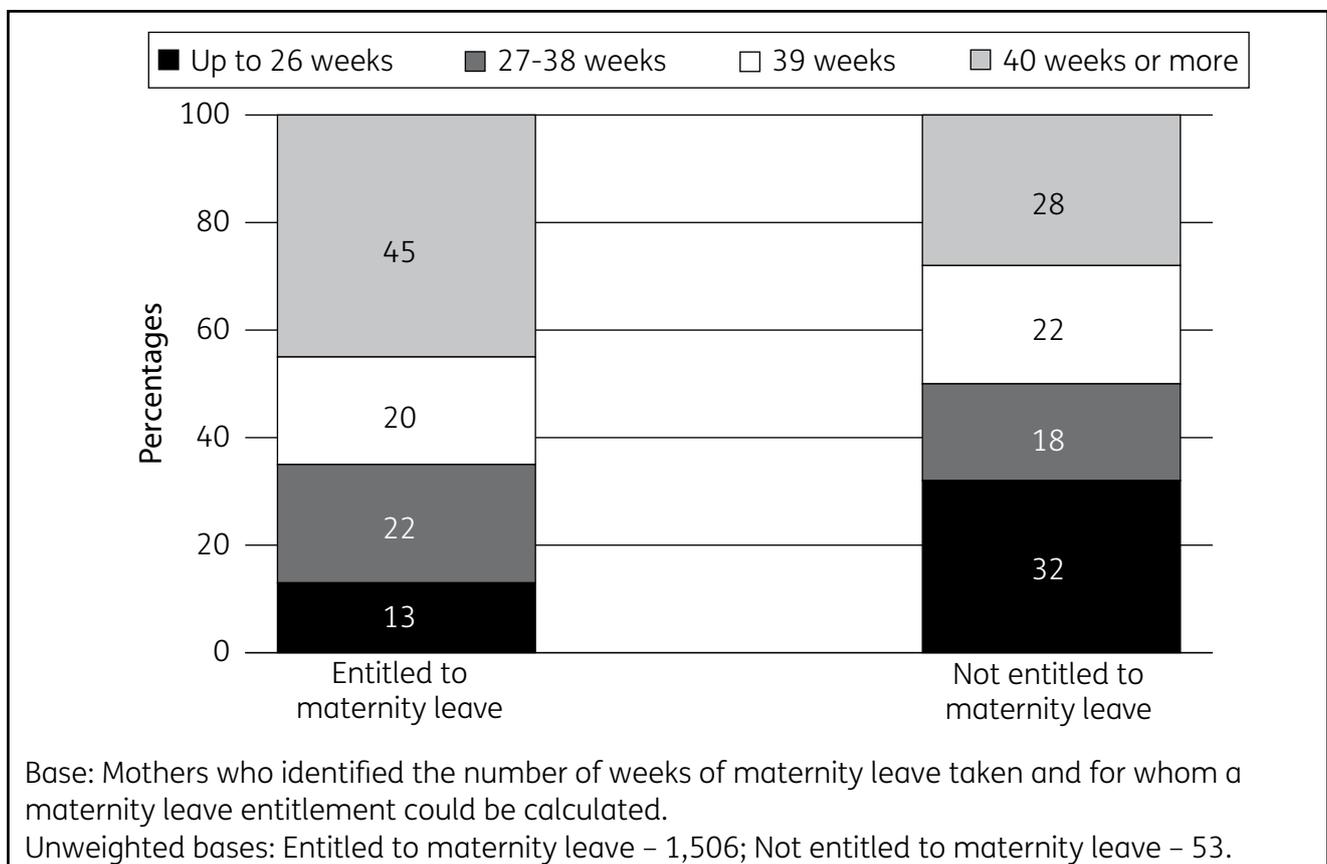
¹ See the Glossary of terms for the definition of occupational groups.

2.3 Maternity leave entitlement and actual duration

We now turn to compare mothers' maternity leave entitlement with the duration of the leave that they actually took. Because the maternity leave entitlement rules have changed between the two years so that all employees are entitled to both OML and AML, this section only presents findings for the mothers who gave birth in 2008. While statutory entitlement to maternity leave only applies to employees, self-employed mothers can arrange to take leave from their business following the birth and may be eligible for maternity pay in the form of Maternity Allowance (MA). Thus, in considering this issue, it is important to bear in mind that almost all mothers who were working at the time of birth were entitled to maternity pay (although there may be a few minor exceptions). For the mothers who gave birth in 2008, Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) or MA was available for the first 39 weeks of maternity leave. After the end of the statutory paid period, additional pay provided by the employer is not very common (see Chapter 3).

The mothers who were entitled to maternity leave (i.e. they were in employment when their baby was born either as employees or were self-employed) were significantly more likely to take time off beyond the statutory paid period (45 per cent), compared with those not entitled to maternity leave (28 per cent; Figure 2.2). Note that only 53 mothers not entitled to leave were included in this analysis, all of whom were self-employed and the majority of whom were entitled to MA. As MA is only paid at the flat rate of statutory pay, the shorter maternity leave generally taken by self-employed women may be due to financial constraints. On the other hand, it may be due to business reasons. We examine the reasons for the timing of the end of maternity leave for all mothers who returned to work in more detail in Chapter 5.

Figure 2.2 Length of maternity leave taken by entitlement



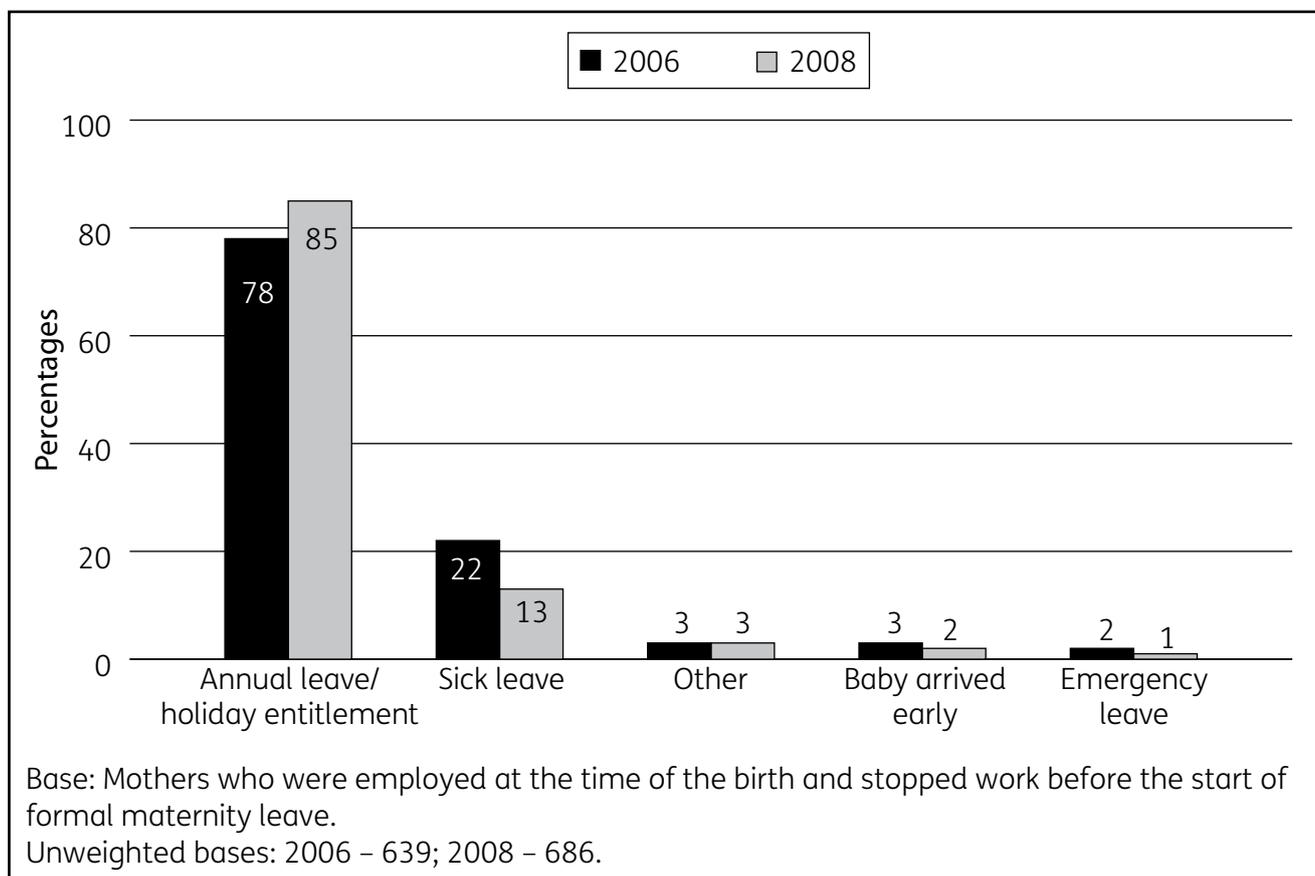
2.4 Stopping work before the official start of maternity leave

Before turning to examine the length of maternity leave taken by mothers, we look at how many mothers stopped working before the official start of their maternity leave and the reasons why they took this additional time off.

Approximately two in five mothers in both survey years took some time off work prior to the official start of their maternity leave (41 per cent in 2006 and 43 per cent in 2008).

The most common type of leave taken prior to the start of maternity leave was annual leave, the take-up of which has increased from 78 per cent in 2006 to 85 per cent in 2008. Conversely, taking sick leave prior to the official start of maternity leave had decreased from 22 per cent in 2006 to 13 per cent in 2008 (Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.3 Type of leave taken before the start of maternity leave



We, therefore, need to bear in mind, when examining the maternity leave taken by mothers, that in a considerable proportion of cases, this leave had been preceded by alternative leave arrangements⁸. Thus, many mothers will have taken a longer period of leave around the time of the baby's birth than that suggested by the length of formal maternity leave alone.

⁸ It is likely that a number of mothers took accrued annual leave after their formal maternity leave ended but before returning to work. However, this is not asked about in the survey so the incidence of this cannot be quantified.

2.5 Taking maternity leave

In this section we first consider the factors that influenced the timing of the start of the maternity leave and then the duration of this leave.

In both years the majority of mothers started maternity leave no more than four weeks prior to the estimated due date of their baby (69 per cent in 2006 and 70 per cent in 2008). Common reasons cited for starting maternity leave at a given time were:

- wanting to prepare for the baby's arrival;
- wanting to take as much leave as possible after the birth;
- being too tired to carry on working.

A significant reduction in the number of mothers reporting feeling too tired to carry on working as a reason for the timing of maternity leave was observed between the two time points; from 34 per cent in 2006 to 28 per cent in 2008 (Table 2.8).

Table 2.8 Reasons for starting maternity leave at a particular time

Base: Mothers who identified the reason(s) for starting maternity leave at a particular time

Reasons	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
Wanted to prepare for the baby's arrival	34	36
Wanted to take as much leave as possible after birth	29	31
Too tired to carry on working	34	28
Too big to carry on working	16	15
Health problems	17	14
The baby arrived early	7	10
Thought the baby might come early	9	7
Other reason	5	4
Had planned to stop working at that time	3	3
Wanted to spend time with other children before the birth	1	1
Self employed – no formal maternity leave start date	0	1
None	3	3
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,564	1,588

Note: Multiple responses.

Note: Cases with missing values have been excluded from the bases.

The number of weeks of maternity leave taken was calculated by asking mothers when their leave started and ended. Mothers were encouraged to verify these dates by checking relevant documentation. Preceding questions about other types of leave taken sought to ensure that the period identified by mothers constituted only their formal maternity leave and not the total duration of time spent at home including other leave arrangements. Nevertheless, due to the interview being

conducted several months after the end of maternity leave, it is possible that, in some cases, these dates, and hence the estimated length of maternity leave, are approximate rather than precise.

The average number of weeks of maternity leave taken by mothers increased significantly from 32 weeks in 2006 to 39 weeks in 2008 (the median also increased from 27 to 39 weeks between 2006 and 2008). This shows that the changes to legislation in 2007 have resulted in more mothers taking longer maternity leave.

Thus, a higher proportion of mothers in 2008 took longer leave, and maternity leave of six months or less was comparatively rare (14 per cent) in 2008, whereas in 2006 nearly half took this length of leave (49 per cent). The percentage of mothers taking a whole year or more of maternity leave also increased significantly from 16 per cent in 2006 to 23 per cent in 2008 (Table 2.9 also shows the length of leave by maternity leave entitlement in 2006). Mothers who were entitled to OML only took substantially shorter periods of leave than mothers who were entitled to AML. Mothers who were entitled to AML in 2006, that to 52 weeks of maternity leave, were still much more likely to take shorter leave than mothers in 2008. This shows that the increase in the length of maternity leave that mothers take is, for the most part, attributable to the increase in the length of SMP and to a lesser extent to extending AML eligibility to all mothers. More detailed breakdown of maternity leave taken is presented in Table E.1.

Table 2.9 Length of maternity leave taken by maternity leave entitlement

Base: Mothers who identified length of maternity leave taken

Length of maternity leave taken, in weeks	Year baby was born			
	2006			2008
	Maternity leave entitlement			Total
	OML %	AML %	Total %	Total %
1-25 weeks	8	14	15	10
26 weeks	53	34	34	4
27-38 weeks	24	25	24	21
39 weeks	2	1	1	20
40-51 weeks	5	10	10	22
52 weeks	6	12	12	17
53 weeks or more	2	4	4	6
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	62	1,370	1,513	1,560

Note: The 1-25 week category includes a very small number of mothers who reported taking no leave.

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Cases with missing values have been excluded from the bases.

2.6 Length of maternity leave among different groups

In this section we explore how the duration of maternity leave might be linked to the characteristics of the mother's employer, different job types and socio-economic characteristics.

Looking at the employer's characteristics first (Table 2.10), taking longer maternity leave (defined here as 40 weeks or more) varied significantly by employer sector and size; trades union presence; number of family-friendly arrangements and gender composition.

In both survey years the percentage of mothers taking longer maternity leave was lowest among those working for small private sector employers (12 per cent in 2006 and 38 per cent in 2008) and highest among those working for large private sector employers (36 per cent in 2006 and 51 per cent in 2008). A significant interaction effect⁹ shows that the effect of employer sector and size on the duration of maternity leave taken by employees has decreased. In other words, the difference in leave duration observed by employer sector and size was smaller in 2008 than it was in 2006. In particular, it is the difference between mothers working for public and large private employers and mothers working for small and medium size private employers that has increased, showing that the latter groups have benefited more from the policy changes.

In both years longer leave was more common in workplaces with a trades union presence, in workplaces with a higher number of family-friendly arrangements and in workplaces with a more even gender composition (compared with workplaces where all or most employees were women).

Table 2.10 Duration of maternity leave, by employer's characteristics

Base: Mothers who were employees and identified length of maternity leave taken

Pre-birth employer characteristics	Duration of maternity leave, in weeks							Unweighted bases
	1-25 weeks %	26 weeks %	27-38 weeks %	39 weeks %	40-51 weeks %	52 weeks %	53 weeks or more %	
2006								
Employer size and sector								
Private 1-24	23	44	19	2	4	6	2	235
Private 25-499	14	32	28	2	9	11	3	304
Private 500+	10	32	21	2	12	18	6	264
Public	14	33	26	1	12	12	3	665
Trades union presence								
Yes	13	33	20	0	12	15	6	460
No	16	37	22	1	8	13	2	481
Number of family-friendly arrangements								
None	19	43	21		7	10		69
One or two	18	43	22		5	8	4	224
Three or four	19	34	20	3	7	13	4	283
Four or more	12	31	27	1	12	13	4	890
Workforce gender composition								
All/mostly women	14	36	27	1	8	10	3	646
Half women and half men	15	32	24	1	10	13	5	598
Mostly men	14	34	18	3	14	14	2	223
Total	15	34	24	1	10	12	4	1,513

Continued

⁹ An interaction effect means that the statistical effect of one variable on the outcome depends on the values of another variable. In this instance, the pattern observed of maternity leave duration taken by mothers in organisations of different size and sectors is different in the two years.

Table 2.10 Continued

Base: Mothers who were employees and identified length of maternity leave taken

Pre-birth employer characteristics	Duration of maternity leave, in weeks							Unweighted bases
	1-25 weeks %	26 weeks %	27-38 weeks %	39 weeks %	40-51 weeks %	52 weeks %	53 weeks or more %	
2008								
Employer size and sector								
Private 1-24	15	5	18	23	24	11	3	260
Private 25-499	10	4	17	21	25	18	5	320
Private 500+	5	3	23	18	17	25	9	258
Public	8	5	25	20	21	16	6	665
Trades union presence								
Yes	6	6	22	18	22	20	7	738
No	13	3	21	22	22	14	5	736
Number of family-friendly arrangements								
None	23	2	14	27	20	9	6	70
One or two	15	5	26	22	16	13	3	208
Three or four	9	3	23	25	24	11	6	268
Four or more	7	5	21	18	23	20	7	960
Workforce gender composition								
All/mostly women	8	4	22	23	21	16	6	731
Half women and half men	7	4	22	19	23	19	7	566
Mostly men	18	7	18	15	20	17	4	207
Total	10	4	21	20	22	17	6	1,560

Note: The 1-25 week category includes a very small number of mothers who reported taking no leave.

Note: Row percentages.

When looking at different occupational groups (Table 2.11)¹⁰, we find a significant interaction effect showing that the distribution of maternity leave duration by occupational group was different in the two years. In both 2006 and 2008 the percentage of mothers taking longer maternity leave was lowest among skilled, process and elementary occupations (12¹¹ per cent in 2006 and 35 per cent in 2008). In both years the proportion of mothers taking longer leave was highest among professionals (36 per cent in 2006 and 51 per cent in 2008). A significant interaction effect shows that differences between occupational groups have decreased between 2006 and 2008. In particular, it is the mothers working as skilled, process or elementary workers as well as mothers working in administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service occupations who have benefited most from the policy changes.

¹⁰ Please note that 2006 and 2008 data are presented on separate pages.

¹¹ The percentages for mothers taking leave that lasts for a year or longer have been derived by adding together '40-51 weeks', '52 weeks' and '53 weeks or more' columns in the tables.

Taking longer leave was least common among the lowest paid mothers (nine per cent of mothers earning less than £5 per hour in 2006 and 36 per cent of mothers in this pay band in 2008) and most common among mothers in the second highest pay band (£13-£19.99 per hour; 38 per cent in 2006 and 52 per cent in 2008). However, there is also a significant interaction effect which shows that the effect of pre-birth hourly pay on the duration of maternity leave taken has decreased over time. In other words, the difference in leave duration observed by hourly pay was smaller in 2008 than it was in 2006. This is likely to be a reflection of the simplification of maternity leave entitlement and the increased duration of paid maternity leave making longer maternity leave affordable for lower paid mothers too.

In both years taking longer maternity leave varied significantly by pre-birth working hours, length of service with the employer and employment status. Taking longer leave was:

- most common among mothers working part-time (16-29 hours; 29 per cent in 2006 and 51 per cent in 2008),
- most common among mothers who had been in their job for ten years or more (33 per cent in 2006 and 49 per cent in 2008); and
- more common among employed mothers (26 per cent in 2006 and 45 per cent in 2008), compared with self-employed mothers (11 per cent in 2006 and 28 per cent in 2008).

We also examined the link between duration of maternity leave and a range of socio-economic characteristics (Table 2.12)¹². The prevalence of longer maternity leave (40 weeks or more) increased with higher partner income. When the figures for the uptake of 40-51 weeks, 52 weeks and 53 weeks or more are combined, we can see that eight per cent of mothers in 2006 and 39 per cent of mothers in 2008 with lowest earning partners took longer maternity leave. For mothers with the highest earning partners, these figures were 45 per cent and 56 per cent in 2006 and 2008, respectively. However, as with the mother's earnings, a significant interaction effect shows that the effect of partner's earnings on the duration of maternity leave taken decreased over time. In other words, the difference in leave duration observed by partner earnings was somewhat smaller in 2008 than it was in 2006. Again, this is likely to be a reflection of the increased duration of maternity pay, reducing the unpaid proportion of the leave entitlement and thus, making longer maternity leave affordable also for lower income households.

In both 2006 and 2008 the duration of maternity leave was significantly related to family status and the mother's age:

- Longer leave was more common among partnered mothers (27 per cent in 2006 and 45 per cent in 2008), compared with single mothers (16 per cent in 2006 and 37 per cent in 2008).
- The prevalence of longer leave increased with the mother's age, peaking at the 35-39 age group before falling slightly for the oldest category of mothers.

Duration of maternity leave was not associated with the number of children, disability status of the mother, nor the mother's ethnicity.

¹² Please note that 2006 and 2008 data are presented on separate pages.

Table 2.11 Duration of maternity leave, by job characteristics

<i>Base: Mothers who were employees and identified length of maternity leave taken</i>								
Pre-birth job characteristics	Duration of maternity leave, in weeks							Unweighted bases
	1-25 weeks %	26 weeks %	27-38 weeks %	39 weeks %	40-51 weeks %	52 weeks %	53 weeks or more %	
2006								
Occupation								
Managers and senior officials	27	25	22	1	10	13	3	153
Professionals	15	24	24	2	13	20	3	207
Associate professional and technical	11	28	24	2	17	12	6	293
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services	14	38	27	1	6	10	4	734
Skilled, process and elementary occupations	23	47	18		8	4		122
Hourly earnings								
Less than £5	28	33	28	1	4	4	1	115
£5-£7.49	15	46	22	1	5	8	3	400
£7.50-£12.99	15	34	25	0	10	12	4	541
£13-£19.99	11	24	23	3	16	17	5	285
More than £20	15	18	27	3	18	16	2	119
Weekly working hours								
1-15 hours	21	31	24		9	10	5	109
16-29 hours	14	32	24	1	13	11	5	422
30 or more hours	15	35	25	2	9	12	3	980
Years in job								
Less than 1 year	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	8
1-2 years	14	52	20	1	5	8	1	132
More than 2, up to 5 years	16	34	26	1	9	11	4	681
More than 5, up to 10 years	16	30	25	2	11	13	3	481
More than 10 years	13	30	23	1	15	13	5	208
Employment status								
Employee	15	34	24	1	10	12	4	1,468
Self-employed	[39]	[22]	[24]	[3]	[7]	[2]	[2]	45
Total	15	34	24	1	10	12	4	1,513

Continued

Table 2.11 Continued

<i>Base: Mothers who were employees and identified length of maternity leave taken</i>								
Pre-birth job characteristics	Duration of maternity leave, in weeks							Unweighted bases
	1-25 weeks %	26 weeks %	27-38 weeks %	39 weeks %	40-51 weeks %	52 weeks %	53 weeks or more %	
2008								
Occupation								
Managers and senior officials	13	5	20	16	17	21	8	196
Professionals	8	3	22	17	27	20	4	244
Associate professional and technical	11	6	25	15	18	16	9	319
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services	9	4	20	24	24	15	5	660
Skilled, process and elementary occupations	8	4	24	29	19	12	4	138
Hourly earnings								
Less than £5	11	2	19	33	19	9	8	78
£5-£7.49	10	3	24	29	20	12	3	391
£7.50-£12.99	7	5	21	21	24	15	7	528
£13-£19.99	10	4	20	13	23	22	7	340
More than £20	16	6	20	9	20	21	6	178
Weekly working hours								
1-15 hours	21	2	15	23	21	12	6	130
16-29 hours	6	3	18	23	26	19	6	500
30 or more hours	11	5	24	19	20	16	6	927
Years in job								
Less than 1 year	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	8
1-2 years	12	3	26	25	9	20	5	95
More than 2, up to 5 years	11	3	23	22	20	14	6	660
More than 5, up to 10 years	8	5	20	19	24	16	7	546
More than 10 years	9	5	20	17	23	22	4	249
Employment status								
Employee	9	4	22	20	22	17	6	1,509
Self-employed	32	1	17	21	21		7	51
Total	10	4	21	20	22	17	6	1,560

Note: The 1-25 week category includes a very small number of mothers who reported taking no leave.

Note: Row percentages.

Table 2.12 Duration of maternity leave, by mother's demographic characteristics

<i>Base: Mothers who identified length of maternity leave taken</i>								
Socio-demographic characteristics	Duration of maternity leave, in weeks							Unweighted bases
	1-25 weeks %	26 weeks %	27-38 weeks %	39 weeks %	40-51 weeks %	52 weeks %	53 weeks or more %	
2006								
Number of children aged 14 and under								
1 child	13	36	26	2	8	12	3	764
2 children	18	31	23	1	12	11	4	581
3 or more children	19	31	23		11	12	4	168
Father's gross weekly earnings								
Less than £200	25	45	23		3	3	2	65
£200-389	18	44	21	1	7	8	2	316
£390-579	12	33	31	1	9	11	3	354
£580-769	13	25	26	1	15	15	5	204
£770 or more	10	22	22	2	18	22	5	267
Family status								
Partnered parent	15	32	25	1	11	12	4	1,309
Lone parent	19	45	19	1	4	8	4	204
Age of mother								
Under 25	18	44	23	1	5	7	2	160
25-29	13	39	28	1	6	10	4	318
30-34	17	31	25	1	12	12	3	530
35-39	14	29	23	3	13	15	3	394
40 or above	16	38	21	1	6	9	8	110
Disability status of mother								
Mother has disability	14	34	25	2	5	16	5	130
No disability	15	34	24	1	10	11	3	1,383
Disability status of children								
No children with disability	16	35	24	1	10	11	3	1,382
One or more children with disability	12	27	28	1	8	14	10	130
Ethnicity of mother								
White	16	34	24	1	10	12	3	1,380
Black	[7]	[35]	[32]	[3]	[7]	[5]	[11]	41
Asian	9	31	19	4	16	15	6	55
Mixed or other	[21]	[39]	[23]			[13]	[3]	33
Total	15	34	24	1	10	12	4	1,513

Continued

Table 2.12 Continued

Base: Mothers who identified length of maternity leave taken

Socio-demographic characteristics	Duration of maternity leave, in weeks							Unweighted bases
	1-25 weeks %	26 weeks %	27-38 weeks %	39 weeks %	40-51 weeks %	52 weeks %	53 weeks or more %	
2008								
Number of children aged 14 and under								
1 child	9	4	21	21	19	19	6	647
2 children	9	5	22	19	24	15	6	694
3 or more children	18	2	21	18	24	13	3	219
Father's gross weekly earnings								
Less than £200	9	2	34	16	22	13	4	68
£200-389	11	5	24	27	20	10	4	286
£390-579	9	6	22	20	22	16	5	355
£580-769	7	2	20	16	29	18	7	264
£770 or more	12	3	13	16	19	28	9	269
Family status								
Partnered parent	10	4	21	20	22	17	6	1,309
Lone parent	10	6	26	23	21	9	7	204
Age of mother								
Under 25	9	2	25	33	17	12	2	142
25-29	10	6	26	25	21	8	4	316
30-34	9	4	22	17	23	18	7	517
35-39	10	3	16	18	24	21	7	449
40 or above	14	5	20	14	17	25	5	136
Disability status of mother								
Mother has disability	5	10	6	17	16	32	16	123
No disability	3	10	4	22	21	21	17	1,437
Disability status of children								
No children with disability	10	4	21	20	22	17	6	1,424
One or more children with disability	13	7	26	17	16	17	4	135
Ethnicity of mother								
White	10	4	21	20	21	17	6	1,427
Black	[8]	[2]	[34]	[13]	[31]	[5]	[7]	35
Asian	8	2	25	18	30	13	5	56
Mixed or other	[4]	[8]	[14]	[21]	[32]	[17]	[3]	38
Total	10	4	21	20	22	17	6	1,560

Note: The 1-25 week category includes a very small number of mothers who reported taking no leave.

Note: Row percentages.

2.7 Work-related contact during maternity leave

In April 2007 a new arrangement was introduced for mothers on maternity leave to take up to ten optional Keep In Touch (KIT) days for work-related activities in agreement with their employer. KIT days may involve doing some work or taking up training without this ending their maternity leave or entitlement to maternity pay. Prior to this, an employer could make reasonable contact with an employee during her maternity leave, however, changes in 2007 clarified this provision for reasonable contact.

In this section we look at the type of contact mothers who had given birth in 2008 had with their employer during maternity leave and the take-up of KIT days.

The most common types of contact with the employer during maternity leave were face-to-face meetings (58 per cent) and telephone conversations (55 per cent) (Table 2.13). Face-to-face contact with the employer varied significantly by the number of family-friendly arrangements available at the place of work. Face-to-face contact with the employer during maternity leave was most prevalent among mothers working for organisations with the most family-friendly arrangements (64 per cent of mothers reporting this type of contact) and least prevalent among mothers working for organisations without any such arrangements (29 per cent).

Telephone contact with the employer varied significantly by occupational group, trades union presence and the number of family-friendly arrangements available at the place of work. Telephone contact with the employer during maternity leave was most common among managers and senior officials (72 per cent) and least common among mothers working in skilled, process and elementary occupations (29 per cent). This type of contact was more common among mothers working in organisations with a trades union presence, with 62 per cent of mothers in such organisations reporting telephone contact with their employer, compared with about half of mothers (51 per cent) working for organisations without a trades union presence. Telephone contact with the employer during maternity leave was most prevalent among mothers working for organisations with the most family-friendly arrangements (64 per cent of mothers reporting this type of contact) and least prevalent among mothers working for organisations without any such arrangements (25 per cent).

Twelve per cent of mothers reported no work-related contact with their employer during maternity leave. Non-contact varied significantly by occupational group, trades union presence and number of family-friendly arrangements available. The highest proportion of mothers reporting no contact with their employer worked in process and elementary occupations (23 per cent). Fourteen per cent of mothers working in organisations without a trades union presence reported no contact with their employer, compared with seven per cent of mothers in organisations with a trades union presence. Finally, nearly half of mothers working for organisations without any family-friendly arrangements reported having no contact with their employer during maternity leave (46 per cent) while just six per cent of mothers in organisations with five or more such arrangements did so.

The most common reason for not having contact with the employer during maternity leave was having no reason for work-related contact, cited by 77 per cent of mothers who did not have any contact with their employer (Table 2.14). The perception of having no reason for work-related contact did not vary significantly by occupational group, trades union presence or number of family-friendly arrangements.

Table 2.13 Type of contact with someone from workplace during maternity leave, by job characteristics

Base: Mothers who were employees in their pre-birth job

Type of contact	Occupational group					Any trades union groups at work		Number of family-friendly arrangements				
	Managers and senior officials %	Professionals %	Associate professional and technical %	Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services %	Skilled, process and elementary occupations %	Yes %	No %	None %	One or two %	Three or four %	Five or more %	Total %
Face-to-face meeting	63	61	59	56	51	59	59	29	45	57	64	58
Telephone conversation	72	58	65	49	29	62	51	25	40	43	64	55
Received letters	43	32	45	38	28	44	32	11	24	29	46	38
Email correspondence	48	40	38	22	7	32	30		14	23	38	30
Other	5	3	2	5	5	3	5	7	6	5	3	4
None	8	9	9	14	23	7	14	46	24	14	6	12
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	194	234	306	658	139	638	575	73	218	270	970	1,534

Note: Multiple responses.

Table 2.14 Reason for no contact with workplace during maternity leave, by job characteristics

Base: Mothers who were employees in their pre-birth job and had no work-related contact with their employer during maternity leave

Reason	Occupational group		Any trades union groups at work		Number of family-friendly arrangements					
	Managers, senior officials, professionals, associate professional and technical %	Administrative, secretarial, personal sales and customer services %	Skilled, process and elementary occupations %	Yes %	No %	None %	One or two %	Three or four %	Five or more %	Total %
There was no need for work-related contact	74	75	[87]	84	80	[82]	70	[77]	78	77
Employer was reluctant to contact mother	3	9	[6]	5	4		12	[8]	5	6
Mother was reluctant to contact employer	6	4	[6]	1	5	[7]	10	[2]	2	5
Other	15	11	[5]	5	11	[11]	9	[12]	14	11
None	2	2	[2]	5	1		3	[2]	2	2
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	67	100	34	51	87	33	57	40	70	201

Note: Multiple responses.

We will now turn to look specifically at the awareness of and take-up of KIT days. Overall, the majority of mothers (59 per cent) were aware of their entitlement to optional KIT days. However, awareness of KIT days among mothers varied significantly by the number of family-friendly arrangements available at the workplace, the mother's occupational group and her hourly pay.

- Awareness of KIT days increased with higher number of family-friendly arrangements, with just 15 per cent of mothers working for organisations with no family-friendly arrangements being aware of KIT days, while 69 per cent of mothers working for organisations with five or more were aware of this entitlement.
- Awareness of KIT days was highest among managers (72 per cent) and lowest among skilled, process and elementary occupations (30 per cent).
- Awareness of KIT days increased with higher hourly pay, with 79 per cent of mothers in the highest earnings bracket being aware of this entitlement.

Table 2.15 Take-up of KIT days, by pre-birth employer and job characteristics

Base: Mothers who were employees in their pre-birth job

Pre-birth job and employer characteristics	Aware of KIT day entitlement?		Unweighted bases
	Yes %	No %	
Number of family-friendly arrangements			
None	15	85	73
One or two	41	59	218
Three or four	48	52	270
Five or more	69	31	969
Occupational group			
Managers and senior officials	72	28	194
Professionals	70	30	234
Associate professional & technical	68	32	306
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services	51	49	658
Skilled, process and elementary occupations	30	70	138
Hourly gross pay before birth			
Less than £5	43	57	115
£5-£7.49	38	62	388
£7.50-£12.99	60	40	520
£13-£19.99	72	28	336
More than £20	79	21	167
Total	59	41	1,533

Note: Row percentages.

Despite the relatively high awareness of KIT days, their take-up – that is mothers either working or undergoing training while on maternity leave – was relatively low. Eleven per cent of employed mothers did some work and five per cent underwent some training during their maternity leave.

We now look in more detail at this group of mothers who used KIT days, to investigate whether the number of KIT days used varied by whether they received payment for these days and by a number of job and employer characteristics. Take-up of a large number of KIT days (defined here as five or more) did not vary by whether the mother was paid for her KIT days (Table 2.16).

Table 2.16 Number of KIT days, by whether they were paid

Base: Mothers who were employees in their pre-birth job and used KIT days

Number of KIT days used	Payment for KIT days		Total %
	Yes %	No %	
Up to 1 whole day	18	31	23
More than 1 but less than 3 whole days	18	12	16
3 or 4 days	26	18	23
5 to 10 days	38	25	33
More than 10 whole days	1	14	5
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	137	76	215

Note: Column percentages.

Due to the limited take-up of KIT days, and especially the small number of mothers with unpaid KIT days, it was not possible to analyse take-up of KIT days by both receipt of payment and employer or job characteristics. Therefore, we looked at the overall take-up of KIT days (paid and unpaid) by some employer characteristics and job characteristics (Table 2.17). Take-up of a large number of KIT days (five or more) was associated with occupational group at a borderline significance level ($p=0.052$). The use of five or more KIT days was most common among managers and senior officials.

Table 2.17 Take-up of KIT days, by pre-birth employer and job characteristics*Base: Mothers who were employees in their pre-birth job*

Pre-birth job and employer characteristics	Number of KIT days used					Unweighted bases
	Up to 1 day %	More than 1 but less than 3 days %	3 or 4 days %	5 to 10 days %	More than 10 whole days %	
Number of family-friendly arrangements						
None	*	*	*	*	*	5
One or two	*	*	*	*	*	17
Three or four	[34]	[9]	[17]	[29]	[11]	27
Five or more	21	18	24	33	4	166
Occupational group						
Managers and senior officials	[10]	[7]	[23]	[53]	[7]	44
Professionals	28	14	31	22	6	53
Associate professional and technical	24	16	21	30	8	51
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services	26	27	14	33	1	59
Skilled, process and elementary occupations	*	*	*	*	*	7
Hourly gross pay before birth						
Less than £5	*	*	*	*	*	12
£5-£7.49	[32]	[26]	[3]	[39]		27
£7.50-£12.99	20	16	32	24	8	67
£13-£19.99	22	15	27	33	2	63
More than £20	[16]	[16]	[18]	[42]	[9]	44
Total	23	16	23	33	5	215

Note: Row percentages.

In addition to the aimed benefit of retention of skills, another underlying assumption of the KIT days was that by maintaining some contact with their workplace throughout maternity leave, the return to work would be facilitated and retention rates would be improved long-term. Therefore, we looked at whether the take-up of KIT days was related to mothers' employment decisions after maternity leave.

The use of KIT days varied significantly by subsequent return to work (Table 2.18). Ninety-five per cent of mothers who did some work or training during subsequently returned to the same job, compared with seventy-eight per cent of mothers who did no work or training.

Table 2.18 Use of KIT days, by subsequent return to work decision

Base: Mothers who were employees in their pre-birth job

Whether mother did any work or training during maternity leave	Whether mother returned to work after birth			Unweighted bases
	Returned to same job %	Returned to different job %	Did not return to work %	
Yes	95	3	2	222
No	78	9	13	1,312
Total	81	8	11	1,534

Without further information about the attitudes towards combining work and family responsibilities and the motivations to return to work, it is not possible to know whether the take-up of KIT days encourages women to return to employment after maternity leave, or whether the take-up of KIT days is a reflection of these women's higher level of labour market attachment and motivation to return to work.

2.8 Conclusion

As in previous studies in the series, this most recent wave of the Maternity Rights survey found considerable diversity in mothers' experiences at work at the time the baby was born.

Unfair treatment at work and difficulties relating to maternity leave decisions were reported by a small number of mothers, with the main types of unfair treatment being related to unsuitable workloads and receiving unpleasant comments from the employer or colleagues. The incidence of unfair treatment was considerably higher among mothers who worked for employers without family-friendly arrangements.

Although all employed mothers who gave birth in 2008 were entitled to a year of maternity leave, a considerable proportion believed they were only entitled to the statutory paid period of leave. Mothers in low level occupations were particularly likely to be unaware of their entitlement to a full year of leave.

The results on the length of maternity leave show that as a result of the introduction of policy changes in 2007, mothers with babies born in 2008 tended to take longer leave than mothers who gave birth two years earlier. The majority of the mothers were entitled to 52 weeks of leave in 2006, so the increase in the length of maternity leave is likely to be a result of the increase in the length of SMP and MA, and to a lesser extent, to increase of length of maternity leave for a small number of mothers.

While financial factors still seemed to play a part in determining how much time mothers took off work, it was the mothers on the lowest pay and mothers whose partner was low paid who benefited the most from the changes. This shows that taking long leave has become more affordable to mothers. Other groups to benefit more from the legislative changes were mothers working for small size and medium private employers and mothers working as skilled, process or elementary workers, as well as mothers working in administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service occupations before going on maternity leave.

While awareness of entitlement to KIT days was relatively high, take-up was not widespread. However, the use of KIT days was associated with a subsequent return to work at the end of maternity leave.

3 Maternity pay

As was the case with maternity leave, legislative change in 2007 has provided mothers entitled to Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) or Maternity Allowance (MA) with a more generous package than in the past. In April 2007, both SMP and MA were extended from 26 to 39 weeks.

This chapter starts with an overview of the different types of maternity pay and other sources of income mothers received while on maternity leave. It then examines whether mothers were getting what they were entitled to, and how the duration of maternity pay links with the length of maternity leave. The chapter includes an exploration of the factors associated with whether mothers received maternity pay. In the final part of the chapter, we examine the experiences of mothers who reported different types of pay, that is SMP, MA and Occupational Maternity Pay (OMP), focusing on the level and the duration of maternity pay, and any difficulties mothers encountered in obtaining these benefits.

3.1 Overview of maternity pay and other sources of income

There are three types of maternity pay mothers can receive, either individually or in combination. The standard maternity pay for employees is SMP, which is provided to all mothers who have completed 26 weeks' continuous service with their employer into the 15th week before the week the baby is due, and whose average earnings have reached a set minimum. SMP is paid initially by the employer, who then claims it back through deductions from tax, National Insurance (NI) and other payments due to be paid to Her Majesty's Revenue & Customs. Mothers who do not qualify for SMP, but were employed or self-employed in any 26 weeks in the 66 weeks ending with the week before the week the baby is due, and reached a minimum earning level, are entitled to MA, which is paid by Jobcentre Plus. Some employers provide an additional payment in the form of OMP, which is typically paid to mothers in addition to SMP, and more rarely, MA. In very exceptional cases, mothers might receive OMP in isolation, if they do not qualify for SMP or MA.

Predictably, Table 3.1 shows that the overwhelming majority of mothers in our sample, who had worked at some point in the year before the birth, had received some form of maternity pay. In 2008, almost three-quarters of mothers received SMP, either on its own (42 per cent) or in combination with OMP (32 per cent).

The largest group of mothers (42 per cent) had received SMP on its own. In 2008, when mothers in our survey were on maternity leave, this entitled them to receive 90 per cent of their earnings for the first six weeks and then the lesser of either the flat rate of £117.18, or the earnings-related rate, which was 90 per cent of the employee's average weekly earnings, for the remaining 33 weeks.

The most generous pay package, that is, SMP combined with additional OMP provided by the employer, was received by 32 per cent of mothers.

Eleven per cent of mothers received MA only. In 2008 this entitled mothers to a flat rate of £117.18 for 39 weeks. The remaining 11 per cent of mothers did not receive any maternity pay at all.

Table 3.1 Types of maternity pay received¹³

<i>Base: All mothers</i>	
Type of maternity pay	Baby born in 2008 %
SMP only	42
SMP and OMP	32
MA only	11
OMP only	4
MA and OMP	1
None	11
<i>Unweighted base</i>	2,026

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Cases with missing values have been excluded from the bases.

As shown in Table 3.2, being unemployed and not working long enough were the two most common reasons for not receiving maternity pay cited by respondents in both 2006 and 2008. Stating self-employment as a reason for not receiving maternity pay was found to vary significantly between survey years, with 2008 showing a higher proportion (eight per cent) of mothers giving this as a reason than did in 2006 (four per cent).

Giving the reason 'Did not know about maternity pay/benefits' also varied significantly between survey years. A lower proportion of mothers gave this as a reason for not receiving maternity pay in 2008 (ten per cent) than did in 2006 (20 per cent). Our calculations suggest that in 2008 14 per cent of these mothers were actually entitled to SMP and a substantial 38 per cent of them were entitled to receive MA. This drop in the incidence of this reason being cited implies that knowledge of maternity pay and benefit entitlements is improving amongst mothers.

It is also interesting to note that, of the small group of 28 mothers in 2008 who thought that they had not received maternity pay because they did not earn enough, 61 per cent, according to our calculations, were entitled to either MA or SMP.

¹³ For some types of maternity pay received it is not possible to compare results in 2006 with 2008 due to the more sensitive data cleaning principles applied in 2008. This affects mothers who received either SMP only or SMP and OMP. A provisional replication of 2006 data cleaning rules on 2008 data showed that the resulting proportions were very similar to 2006 data, i.e. the proportion of mothers receiving SMP only/SMP and OMP has not changed. The proportion of mothers receiving MA and no maternity pay is directly comparable between the two years and has not changed between 2006 and 2008.

Table 3.2 Reasons for not receiving maternity pay, by year

Base: All mothers who did not receive any maternity pay and identified reasons for this

Reason given	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
Had not worked long enough	27	30
Unemployed	30	29
Gave up work too early	17	13
Did not know about maternity pay/benefits	20	10
Did not earn enough	12	10
Self-employed	4	8
Employer refused to give maternity pay	1	5
Did not bother to apply	3	1
Living abroad at that time	1	0
Did not give employer enough notice	1	0
Found process of applying too complicated	0	.
Other	12	18
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	224	231

Note: Multiple responses.

Table 3.3 shows the other sources of income (apart from maternity pay) mothers personally received while they were on maternity leave.¹⁴ In both survey years, Child Benefit, Child Tax Credit, Working Tax Credit, and Sure Start Maternity Grant were the four most common other sources of income personally received by mothers while they were on maternity leave.

Between 2008 and 2006, the incidence of respondents receiving income from these other sources did not vary significantly.

It is not possible to analyse these other sources of income by employment status because the base numbers in the self-employed groups are too low to provide any meaningful results.

¹⁴ In the few cases when mothers said they had not taken maternity leave, they were asked about sources of income in the six months after the baby was born.

Table 3.3 Sources of income during maternity leave, by year

Base: All mothers

Source of income	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
Child Benefit	97	100 ¹
Child Tax Credit	54	53
Working Tax Credit	21	19
Sure Start Maternity Grant	13	13
Housing Benefit	8	11
Council Tax Benefit	8	10
Earnings from employment/self-employment	7	8
Income from savings and investment	4	3
Income support	5	5
Incapacity benefit/Disability Living Allowance	1	2
Child/spouse maintenance	2	3
Statutory Sick Pay	1	0
Carer's Allowance	1	0
Income from insurance/health policy	1	1
Income from business	1	2
Jobseeker's Allowance	1	1
New Deal allowance	0	0
Other	1	0
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,952	2,031

Note: Multiple responses.

¹ Please note, in 2008, data was edited to show all respondents to be in receipt of Child Benefit as the sample was drawn from the Child Benefit records.

3.2 Eligibility and receipt of different types of maternity pay

Entitlement to different types of maternity pay was calculated using information provided by mothers about their pre-birth job duration and earnings, and the calculation was heavily dependent on accurate date information. While a number of checks were included to verify the accuracy of this information, it is possible that the information provided by mothers, and therefore, our calculation of maternity pay entitlement, might not always have been accurate. Inaccuracies in date information are likely to lead to incorrectly calculated entitlement, in both directions (explained more fully below). Similarly, some mothers might have reported receiving a different type of maternity pay from the type they actually did receive. For these reasons, the following results should be treated with caution.

It is not possible to analyse entitlement and type of maternity pay by employment status because the base numbers in the self-employed groups are too low to provide any meaningful results.

The results in Table 3.4 show that in 2008 the overwhelming majority of mothers (89 per cent) who qualified for SMP said they had received it, either on its own (49 per cent) or in conjunction with

OMP (40 per cent). A very small proportion of mothers who were apparently entitled to SMP said they had received OMP only (five per cent). It is also possible that mothers who received both SMP and OMP may have assumed they were only receiving the latter, as both SMP and OMP are paid by the employer. There were also three per cent of mothers who were apparently entitled to SMP, who reported receiving MA only instead, and two per cent who received no maternity pay.

For mothers who were apparently entitled to MA or did not qualify for maternity pay, there was a less clear relationship between what they were entitled to and what they reported receiving.

Of those mothers who were apparently entitled to receive MA, 46 per cent received MA only and one per cent received MA and OMP. A further 23 per cent of this group reported receiving SMP, either on its own or together with OMP, rather than MA.

Our findings show that the small group of mothers who did not receive maternity pay in 2008 were entitled, according to our calculations, to some kind of statutory maternity pay. While this was the case for a very small number of mothers entitled to SMP (two per cent), it affected a substantial minority of mothers entitled to MA (29 per cent).

A proportion of mothers who, based on their stated employment history, were not entitled to maternity pay did report receiving some; only 47 per cent of mothers who were apparently not entitled to any maternity pay said they did not actually receive any maternity pay, with 33 per cent reporting receipt of SMP either on its own or together with OMP, and 19 per cent reporting having received MA only.

While the analysis presented in this section seems to suggest that some mothers are not receiving the maternity pay they are entitled to, some of the discrepancies could be explained by inaccurate date information. It is more likely that mothers have accurately reported the type of maternity pay they received as it is likely to be more salient and thus, more memorable for them. This has also been checked against the maternity pay amounts. It is more likely that mothers have misreported their employment history; entitlement is based on the number of weeks worked and even small errors in dates can change the calculated entitlement. For this reason we will be looking at reported pay type in the rest of the report.

Table 3.4 Type of maternity pay received, by calculated maternity pay entitlement (2008 only)

Base: Mothers for whom a calculation of maternity pay entitlement was possible

Type of maternity pay received	Calculated entitlement to type of maternity pay			Total 5
	SMP %	MA 5	None %	
SMP and OMP	40	5	9	32
SMP only	49	18	24	42
MA only	3	46	19	11
OMP only	5	1	1	4
MA and OMP	1	1	.	1
None	2	29	47	11
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,485	375	166	2,027

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Cases with missing values have been excluded from the bases.

3.3 Duration of maternity pay

In April 2007, SMP and MA were extended from 26 weeks to 39 weeks. As shown in Table 3.5, overall in 2008, 47 per cent of mothers received maternity pay for a period of 39 weeks, in line with their legal entitlement. In 2006, the equivalent figure was 65 per cent of all mothers being in receipt of maternity pay for the statutory 26 weeks that applied at that time. If mothers with an unknown pay period are excluded, the vast majority in most years reported taking their full entitlement (79 per cent in 2006 and 60 per cent in 2008) (calculation not shown).

For both SMP and MA, a substantial minority claimed to have received maternity pay for less than the statutory length of time and this has increased over the years. A higher proportion of both SMP-eligible and MA-eligible mothers reported receiving less than the statutory number of weeks of maternity pay in 2008 (SMP: 37 per cent; MA: 24 per cent) than did in 2006 (SMP: 16 per cent; MA: ten per cent). However, it should be noted that this may reflect the mother's choice to return to work before the end of their legal entitlement rather than the mother not having maternity pay available to them. This may be especially true in cases where the SMP payment is significantly lower than normal pay.

There is a significant interaction effect, meaning that the effect of entitlement on receipt of maternity pay for exactly the statutory number of weeks was different in each of the two years.

- In 2008 approximately half (51 per cent) of those eligible for SMP took maternity pay for the statutory number of weeks. This was a significantly lower proportion than that seen in 2006, when the majority (72 per cent) took the statutory number of weeks of maternity pay.
- For mothers eligible for MA, the difference between the years was much smaller. In 2008, 41 per cent of this group of mothers took the statutory number of weeks of maternity pay, but in 2006 this was closer to half of respondents (49 per cent).

Within the group of mothers taking more than the statutory number of weeks' maternity pay, a higher proportion were calculated as being eligible for SMP (eight per cent) than were eligible for MA (three per cent) in both 2008 and 2006. Those calculated as being eligible for SMP are likely to be employees and therefore, more likely to have received OMP from their employer which can last for longer than the statutory pay period.

It is not possible to analyse entitlement and duration of maternity pay by employment status because the base numbers in the self-employed groups are too low to provide any meaningful results.

Table 3.5 Duration of maternity pay received by calculated maternity pay entitlement

Base: Mothers for whom a calculation of maternity pay entitlement was possible

Duration of maternity pay	Calculated entitlement to type of maternity pay		
	SMP %	MA 5	Total %
2006			
1 to 25 weeks	16	10	15
26 weeks	72	49	65
27 to 28 weeks	7	3	6
39 weeks	0	.	0
40 to 51 weeks	0	.	0
52 weeks	0	.	0
No information on duration of maternity pay ¹	4	36	13
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,463	325	1,952
2008			
1 to 25 weeks	11	6	10
26 weeks	7	2	6
27 to 28 weeks	19	16	18
39 weeks	51	41	47
40 to 51 weeks	7	3	6
52 weeks	1	.	1
No information on duration of maternity pay ¹	4	32	12
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,487	378	2,031

Note: Column percentages.

¹ These were mothers who, according to our calculation, were eligible for either MA or SMP but for whom, as they claimed to have received no maternity pay, no information on duration was collected.

3.3.1 The relationship between maternity pay and maternity leave

As discussed in Chapter 2, the duration of maternity leave seemed to be influenced by financial considerations, and in Tables 3.6 and 3.7 we explore the link between the number of weeks of maternity leave taken and the duration of maternity pay (SMP, OMP or MA), by year. This table groups results based on the number of weeks of maternity pay and leave taken that are less than, exactly, or more than the statutory duration. Mothers who did not receive any maternity pay have been excluded.

Duration of maternity pay was found to vary significantly by duration of maternity leave. In 2008, as seen in 2006, the duration of maternity leave was clearly linked to financial considerations. In both years, up until the end of the statutory paid period there was a very high correlation between duration of pay and duration of leave. Beyond this period, a high proportion of respondents received pay for a shorter duration than the duration of their leave. This is a reflection of pay and leave entitlement, where leave entitlement is greater than the pay entitlement.

The 2008 results showed that 84 per cent of those mothers who took maternity leave for less than the statutory 39 weeks also received maternity pay for fewer than 39 weeks. Similarly, 88 per cent of mothers who took exactly 39 weeks' leave received maternity pay for the same length of time.¹⁵

Of the mothers who took maternity leave that was longer than 39 weeks in 2008, only 17 per cent of them received maternity pay for the weeks after their statutory entitlement ended (that is after 39 weeks of maternity leave). The majority (66 per cent) received maternity pay for the statutory 39 weeks, and 14 per cent were paid for less than the statutory length of time.

Length of maternity pay taken also varied significantly by survey year for those taking less than or exactly the statutory number of weeks' maternity pay.

Overall, in 2008, there was a higher proportion of mothers taking less than the statutory number of weeks of maternity pay (34 per cent took less than 39 weeks) than seen in 2006 (15 per cent took less than 26 weeks), and a lower proportion of mothers receiving maternity pay for exactly the statutory duration (47 per cent in 2008 and 65 per cent in 2006). However, this must be viewed in reference to the fact that the length of statutory maternity leave and maternity pay have increased; the average duration of maternity leave has increased from 2006 to 2008 and the increase in pay has increased duration of leave, albeit not to the statutory pay period of 39 weeks for all mothers.

Table 3.6 Duration of maternity, by duration of maternity pay, 2006

Base: All mothers who took maternity leave and received maternity pay

Duration of maternity pay	Maternity leave taken			Total %
	1 to 25 weeks %	26 weeks 5	More than 26 weeks %	
1-25 weeks	65	9	8	15
26 weeks	19	87	74	65
More than 26 weeks	1	1	15	7
No information on duration of maternity pay ¹	15	2	3	13
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	230	513	767	1,949

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Cases with missing values have been excluded from the bases.

¹ These were mothers who, according to our calculation, were eligible for either MA or SMP but for whom, as they claimed to have received no maternity pay, no information on duration was collected.

¹⁵ There is a small proportion of mothers who report receiving maternity pay for a longer period than they were on maternity leave. This estimate should be treated with caution, because it is based on a small number of mothers (n=4) and could be caused by measurement error.

Table 3.7 Duration of maternity, by duration of maternity pay, 2008*Base: All mothers who took maternity leave and received maternity pay*

Duration of maternity pay	Maternity leave taken				Total %
	1 to 25 weeks %	26 to 38 weeks %	39 weeks %	More than 39 weeks %	
25 weeks or less	70	12	1	3	10
26-28 weeks	3	76	8	11	24
39 weeks	3	10	88	66	47
More than 39 weeks	0	0	1	17	7
No information on duration of maternity pay ¹	23	2	1	2	12
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	159	410	321	670	2,029

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Cases with missing values have been excluded from the bases.

¹ These were mothers who, according to our calculation, were eligible for either MA or SMP but for whom, as they claimed to have received no maternity pay, no information on duration was collected.

3.3.2 Duration of maternity leave at full pay

Table 3.8 gives a comparison of the number of weeks of maternity leave taken at full pay between years. Results show that the length of fully-paid maternity leave taken varied significantly by survey year for those receiving full pay for less than or exactly the statutory number of weeks.

A higher proportion of mothers received full pay for 38 weeks or less in 2008 (70 per cent received full pay for between one and 38 weeks), compared to 2006 (55 per cent received full pay for between one and 25 weeks). There was a significant decrease in the proportion of mothers receiving full pay for the same length of time as the statutory duration of maternity pay.¹⁶ This dropped from 15 per cent in 2006 to just five per cent in 2008. However, more mothers were receiving OMP for longer, for example, seven per cent of mothers received OMP for 39 or more weeks in 2008, compared with less than one per cent in 2006. So while, in general, employers are not providing OMP for an equivalent length of time as the 38 week statutory period, mothers were receiving OMP for longer in 2008 than in 2006.

¹⁶ SMP duration in 2006 was 26 weeks, and in 2008 it was 39 weeks.

Table 3.8 Length of maternity leave taken at full pay (OMP) by year

Base: All mothers who received regular OMP payment on its own or in combination with SMP or MA

Number of weeks in receipt of full pay	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
0 weeks	28	22
1-25 weeks	55	56
26 weeks	15	12
27-38 weeks	1	2
39 weeks	.	5
40-51 weeks	0	1
52 weeks or more	.	1
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	480	593

Note: Column percentages.

3.4 Influences on type of maternity pay mothers received

Analysis of the duration of maternity leave in Chapter 2 showed that this varied substantially for different groups, with better off mothers and those in favourable employment conditions being more likely to take a longer period of leave. In this section, we explore whether this was also true of the types of maternity pay received by mothers, focusing on:

- mothers who received MA only or SMP only;
- mothers who received SMP and OMP, who, therefore, received the most generous pay package;
- mothers who reported no maternity pay.¹⁷

The type of maternity pay received is explored in relation to employer's characteristics, type of pre-birth employment and socio-economic characteristics. The tables in this section omit 2006 data and show only the 2008 results. This is because, as mentioned earlier, it is not possible to compare some types of maternity pay received in 2006 with 2008 results due to the more sensitive data cleaning principles applied in 2008.

3.4.1 Employer's characteristics

This section focuses on mothers who were employees in their last pre-birth job. As discussed in Chapter 2, mothers working for large private employers took longer maternity leave. Table 3.9 shows that these mothers, along with those working in the public sector, also received more generous maternity pay. In 2008, the most common type of pay was receipt of SMP and OMP for mothers working in the public sector (46 per cent) and for those working in large private companies (47 per cent).

Around half of mothers working for small or medium sized companies were in receipt of SMP only (48 per cent of those in small companies and 56 per cent of those in medium sized companies), with only 11 per cent and 21 per cent (respectively) in receipt of SMP combined with OMP. A substantial minority (24 per cent) of mothers working in small organisations did not receive any maternity pay.

Receipt of only MA varied significantly by employer size and sector. The proportion of mothers receiving MA only was highest among mothers working for private employers with one to 24

¹⁷ Mothers who received OMP in isolation or in conjunction with MA are excluded from the following tables, as these groups are too small to enable meaningful analysis.

employees and the lowest proportions were found jointly in private employers with 500 or more employees and in public sector employers (six per cent).

Mothers in workplaces with a trades union or a large number of family-friendly policies¹⁸ were more likely to be in an advantageous position in relation to maternity pay. Regarding the presence of trades unions in the workplace, a higher proportion of mothers in workplaces without trades unions were in receipt of MA (12 per cent) and not receiving any maternity pay (15 per cent). Receipt of MA only varied significantly by the number of family-friendly arrangements available to the respondent at their pre-birth employer. The proportion of mothers receiving MA only was highest (27 per cent) in pre-birth employers with no family-friendly arrangements available, and the lowest proportion (five per cent) was found in employers with five or more family-friendly arrangements available. Not receiving any maternity pay also varied significantly by the number of family-friendly arrangements available to the respondent at their pre-birth employer and the pattern was the same as that seen for the group receiving MA only.

As in 2006, workforce gender composition did not seem to be linked to the type of maternity pay mothers received. However, in 2008, receiving no maternity pay varied significantly by the gender composition of the workplace, with the lowest proportion in those workplaces made up of mostly men (seven per cent).

Table 3.9 Types of maternity pay received, by pre-birth employer (2008 only)¹⁹

Base: Mothers who were employees in the last pre-birth job

Pre-birth employer characteristics	Type of maternity pay received				Unweighted bases
	MA only	SMP only	SMP and OMP	None	
Employer size and sector					
Private 1 to 24	15	48	11	24	425
Private 25 to 499	11	56	21	8	418
Private 500+	6	38	47	5	322
Public	6	35	46	6	770
Presence of trades union in the workplace					
Trades union	5	33	51	4	835
No trades union	12	50	20	15	1,053
Number of family friendly arrangements					
None	27	38	3	31	165
1 to 2	14	44	18	21	350
3 to 4	9	52	25	10	356
5 or more	5	40	46	3	1,078
Workforce gender composition					
All/mostly women	10	43	32	11	950
Half women and half men	8	43	35	10	729
Mostly men	9	41	35	7	263
Total	11	42	32	11	2,026

Note: Row percentages.

Note: Cases with missing values have been excluded from the bases.

¹⁸ It should be noted that the results regarding family-friendly arrangements are based on mothers' awareness of the arrangements in their workplace. For more information about the types of family-friendly arrangements explored by the survey, see Chapter 7.

¹⁹ Note: Row percentages; also, the SMP only and SMP and OMP categories are not comparable between years due to the differences in data editing mentioned earlier.

3.4.2 Type of employment

Table 3.10 shows that in 2008, as seen in 2006, receipt of SMP and OMP rose alongside occupational group, with seven per cent of those in elementary occupations, 22 per cent of those in administrative and secretarial jobs, 48 per cent of associate professionals, and 56 per cent of professionals receiving this type of maternity pay. However, only 43 per cent of managers were found to be in receipt of both SMP and OMP. It should also be noted that the highest proportion of mothers who did not receive maternity pay (35 per cent) were in the lowest occupational group, elementary occupations. The lowest proportions were seen in the managers, professionals and associate professionals groups (four per cent for each group).

When looking at earnings, we find that mothers at the bottom of the pay scale were the most likely to have received no maternity pay. Twenty-eight per cent of those earning less than £5 per hour and 17 per cent of those earning between £5 and £7.49 did not receive any maternity pay. The highest proportions of those receiving the least generous maternity pay, MA, were also found in these lowest paid groups, i.e. respondents being paid less than £5.00 per hour (25 per cent), and those earning between £5.00 and £7.49 (17 per cent). On the other hand, the most generous maternity pay package was reported as being received by the highest earning mothers. Between 51 and 56 per cent of those earning £12.50 or more were receiving a combination of SMP and OMP.

Mothers who worked the shortest hours were much more likely to report no maternity pay. Of those respondents working between one and 15 hours per week, 37 per cent did not receive maternity pay, a significantly higher proportion than the six per cent of those working full-time (that is 30 hours or more) who did not get any maternity pay. Mothers working full-time (30 hours or more) had the lowest proportion of those receiving MA (seven per cent) and the highest proportion of those receiving a combination of SMP and OMP (33 per cent). Only eight per cent of mothers working between one and 15 hours were in receipt of SMP and OMP combined.

Of the mothers who were in a temporary job before the birth, the highest proportion reported not receiving any maternity pay (41 per cent), compared with six per cent of permanent employees. Only 37 per cent of temporary employees said they got SMP, either on its own or with OMP, compared with 81 per cent of permanent employees; and conversely, 20 per cent of temporary employees received MA compared with eight per cent of the permanent group.

As there is a minimum job duration required for receipt of SMP, and mothers who are only eligible for MA need to have worked a certain number of weeks in the period prior to the baby's birth, we might expect the duration of the last pre-birth job to link with whether the mother received any maternity pay. This was indeed the case: of the mothers who had been in their pre-birth job for less than a year, 50 per cent did not receive any maternity pay, compared with a fifth (20 per cent) of those with one to two years' tenure and six per cent or less of those with more than two years in their job. The proportion of mothers receiving SMP combined with OMP increased as job tenure increased. Only one per cent of mothers who had been in their job for less than a year received this type of maternity pay, increasing to 12 per cent of the group who had been in their job between one and two years. At the other end of the scale, for those with more than ten years of service the proportion receiving SMP and OMP was 46 per cent.

However, the proportion of mothers in receipt of MA decreased as tenure increased. Of those who had less than one-year job tenure, 31 per cent were in receipt of MA, dropping to 22 per cent of those with one to two years' tenure, and of those with over ten years in their job at the other end of the scale, only six per cent were receiving MA.

Table 3.10 Types of maternity pay received by pre-birth job characteristics (2008 only)²⁰

Base: Mothers who were employees in the last pre-birth job

Pre-birth job characteristics	Type of maternity pay received				Unweighted bases
	MA only	SMP only	SMP and OMP	None	
Occupational Group					
Managers	4	43	43	4	233
Professionals	6	29	56	4	269
Associate professionals	7	33	48	4	356
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales & customer service	14	49	22	12	903
Skilled trades	*	*	*	*	[15]
Process, plant & machine operatives	[29]	[54]	[4]	[6]	[39]
Elementary occupations	18	38	7	35	204
Hourly gross pay					
£1 to £4.99	25	39	5	28	152
£5 to £7.49	17	51	13	17	596
£7.50 to £9.99	9	51	32	5	340
£10 to £12.49	5	45	39	7	239
£12.50 to £14.99	6	30	51	5	193
£15 to £20	3	33	54	2	243
More than £20	8	23	56	5	195
Weekly working hours					
1 to 15 hours	28	26	8	37	211
16 to 29 hours	15	46	24	11	644
30 or more hours	7	42	39	6	1165
Employment status					
Temporary	20	28	9	41	244
Permanent	8	45	36	6	1711
Duration of job					
Less than 1 year	31	17	1	50	212
1 to 2 years	22	46	12	20	199
2 to 5 years	10	48	32	6	747
5 to 10 years	5	42	43	3	596
More than 10 years	6	39	46	3	266
Total	11	42	32	11	2,026

Note: Row percentages.

Note: Cases with missing values have been excluded from the bases.

²⁰ Note: Row percentages; also, the SMP only and SMP and OMP categories are not comparable between years due to the differences in data editing mentioned earlier.

Finally, we consider any differences in relation to maternity pay between employee and self-employed mothers, although it should be noted that the latter group is rather small (Table 3.11). The majority of mothers in 2008 who were self-employed in the period before the baby was born received MA (68 per cent), compared with only nine per cent of employees. A substantial minority of self-employed mothers received no maternity pay, 20 per cent, compared with ten per cent of employees.

Table 3.11 Types of maternity pay received by pre-birth employment status, by year

Type of maternity pay received ¹	2008		
	Employee %	Self-employed %	Total %
MA only	9	68	11
SMP only	43	4	42
SMP & OMP	33	1	32
MA & OMP	1	.	1
OMP only	4	7	4
None	10	20	11
Unweighted bases	1,955	71	2,026

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Cases with missing values have been excluded from the bases.

¹ There was a check for mothers who were self-employed just before the birth and who claimed to have received OMP. As indicated in the table, a small proportion of self-employed mothers confirmed they were receiving OMP; this could be because they decided to 'pay themselves' OMP or because they mistook OMP for MA.

3.4.3 Socio-economic characteristics

The type of maternity pay mothers received was examined in relation to several socio-economic characteristics, and the results are shown in Table 3.12.

Mothers under the age of 25 had the highest proportion not receiving any maternity pay (29 per cent), compared to proportions of between five and seven per cent for the 30 and over age groups. This finding probably reflects the fact that very young mothers tend to be in lower occupational and earnings groups, to have been in work for less time, and to be lone parents – all factors associated with no maternity pay. Similarly, the youngest age group (under 25) also had the highest proportion (18 per cent) of mothers in receipt of MA. The proportion of mothers receiving MA dropped to between seven and ten per cent for mothers in the 30 and over age groups.

Please note that because the numbers in the non-white ethnic groups of mothers are low, we cannot make any useful comparisons between these groups and the mothers in the white ethnic group regarding the type of maternity pay received.

In terms of other demographic characteristics, family structure was related to the types of maternity pay received. Mothers with a large family and lone mothers were more likely to report no maternity pay. This was the case for 19 per cent of mothers with three or more children, compared with nine per cent of mothers with just one child; and 28 per cent of lone parents, compared with seven per cent of mothers who were married and living with a partner. Half (50 per cent) of cohabiting mothers were in receipt of SMP only, compared with 39 per cent of married mothers, and

37 per cent of lone mothers. Almost four in ten married mothers (39 per cent) received SMP in conjunction with OMP, compared with 28 per cent of cohabiting mothers, and 14 per cent of single mothers.

Mothers with partners earning less than £200 per week had the highest proportion of mothers receiving MA (15 per cent), whereas only eight per cent of those with partners who had earnings in the top two weekly wage groups received MA.

Table 3.12 Types of maternity pay received by socio-economic characteristics (2008 only)²¹

Base: All mothers, except for the partner's salary analysis which only includes married and cohabiting mothers

Socio-economic characteristics	Type of maternity pay received				Unweighted bases
	MA only	SMP only	SMP and OMP	None	
Age of mother					
Under 25	18	44	7	29	285
25 to 29	13	46	26	11	439
30 to 34	10	41	38	6	623
35 to 39	9	37	41	7	527
40 or above	7	39	43	5	152
Ethnicity of mother					
White	11	42	32	10	1,849
Black	14	30	31	23	53
Asian	13	33	32	16	72
Mixed or other	[4]	[37]	[32]	[20]	[48]
Family status					
Married and living with partner	10	39	39	7	1,227
Cohabiting	10	50	28	8	467
Lone parent	17	37	14	28	332
No. of children aged 14 and under					
1 child	11	42	34	9	897
2 children	11	41	33	10	836
3 or more children	17	40	19	19	293
Partner's gross weekly salary					
Less than £200	15	46	28	9	86
£200 to £389	11	50	25	10	367
£390 to £579	4	44	37	4	416
£580 to £769	8	37	46	1	289
£770 or more	8	37	43	9	330
Total	11	42	32	11	2,026

Note: Row percentages.

Note: Cases with missing values have been excluded from the bases.

²¹ Note: Row percent; also, the SMP only and SMP and OMP categories are not comparable between years due to the differences in data editing mentioned earlier.

3.4.4 Disability

Table 3.13 shows the types of maternity pay received for mothers with and without a disability themselves, and for mothers who had at least one child under the age of 14 with a disability.

Results show that significantly more mothers who reported having a disability (16 per cent) did not receive maternity pay compared with those mothers who did not have a disability (ten per cent). Similarly, significantly more mothers who had at least one child under the age of 14 with a disability (21 per cent) received no maternity pay compared to those mothers who did not have a disabled child (nine per cent).

Table 3.13 Types of maternity pay received by disability status of mother or children, by year

Base: All mothers

Disability status	Type of maternity pay received				Unweighted bases
	MA only	SMP only	SMP and OMP	None	
Disability status of mother					
Mother has disability	15	37	26	16	186
Mother does not have disability	11	42	33	10	1,840
Disability status of child(ren)					
At least 1 child aged 14 or under has a disability	12	35	28	21	200
No child has a disability	11	42	33	9	1,825
Total	11	42	32	11	2,026

Note: Row percentages.

Note: Cases with missing values have been excluded from the bases.

Comparisons of the type and amount of maternity pay received according to whether there is a disabled child in the household or not are not possible because the group sizes are too small to provide reliable results.

3.4.5 Key determinants of type of maternity pay

Clearly, many of the factors associated with whether and what type of maternity pay mothers received are correlated with one another; for instance, mothers in the higher occupational groups would have been much more likely to have higher earnings. To ascertain which factors predicted the types of maternity pay received, when their interactions with other related factors are controlled for, multivariate analysis was undertaken. Specifically, two complex sample logistic regressions were run: the first to assess which factors independently predicted no maternity pay (the least advantaged outcome); the second to determine which factors independently predicted receipt of SMP and OMP (the most advantaged outcome). Tables B.1 and B.2 give details of the factors included in the regressions, odds ratios, and lower and upper 95 per cent confidence intervals. Results are discussed below.

The odds of receiving no maternity pay were significantly higher for:

- mothers working for small private employers, compared to those working for medium to large private employers and those working in the public sector;
- mothers working between one and 15 hours per week before the birth, compared to those working 16 hours or more per week;

- mothers who had been in their job for less than one year, compared to those who had been in their job for at least one year or more;
- mothers with two or more children, compared to those with only one child;
- lone mothers compared to mothers with a partner.

Therefore, significant predictors of no maternity pay included mothers' job tenure, possibly because this factor (amongst others) determines entitlement to SMP and MA.

The odds of receiving both SMP and OMP were significantly higher for:

- mothers working in large private (500+ employees) and public sector companies, compared to those working in small private companies, and those mothers who were self-employed in their pre-birth job;
- mothers for whom a trades union was present in the workplace, compared to those without trades union presence and to self-employed mothers;
- mothers with at least one family-friendly arrangement available at their workplace, compared to those with no arrangements available to them;
- mothers earning £12.50 or more per hour (gross), compared to those earning between £1 and £4.99 per hour gross;
- mothers working 16 hours or more per week before the birth, compared to those working between one and 15 hours;
- mothers who had been in their job for at least a year, compared to those who had been there less than one year;
- mothers who had only one child, compared to those who had two or more children.

Therefore, as was found in relation to maternity leave, having more favourable and secure employment conditions was independently associated with the most advantaged outcome in terms of maternity pay.

3.5 Experiences of receiving maternity pay

We now turn to examine, in detail, the experiences of receiving different types of maternity pay, that is, MA, SMP and OMP. Here, our interest is in establishing whether mothers received the level of pay they were entitled to and any difficulties they encountered in arranging and receiving these payments.

3.5.1 Maternity Allowance

Starting with mothers who received MA, Table 3.14 summarises the reasons why mothers thought they had received MA, the average weekly payment and the duration of MA.

As in 2006, in 2008 35 per cent of mothers who received MA said they did so because they had not worked long enough for their employer. The pattern of reasons given for receiving MA in 2008 was similar to that seen in 2006, with other common reasons cited as being self-employed (24 per cent) and not earning enough (23 per cent), or that they did not know about other types of pay (nine per cent). However, the proportion of respondents stating that they received MA because they did not earn enough was significantly higher (23 per cent) in 2008 than it was in 2006 (15 per cent).

The 2006 data was edited so that cases which had a value of MA received per week greater than £108 were recoded to £108. Therefore, Table 3.14 shows that 24 per cent of mothers said they received the statutory amount of MA or more in 2006, compared to 52 per cent of mothers in 2008 who reported receiving exactly or more than the statutory amount of MA, which was approximately £117.

In 2008, around one-third (34 per cent) of those receiving MA reported receiving less than £100 MA on average per week, while in 2006 this figure was much lower at 18 per cent. These were likely to be mothers on a very low wage, and if their earnings were below the statutory pay level they would have received 90 per cent of their earnings rather than the statutory amount of MA.

Around two-thirds of mothers (64 per cent) in 2008 said that they had received MA for the statutory amount of time (39 weeks); however, this is significantly lower than the proportion of MA-receiving mothers (77 per cent) who were paid MA for the statutory duration of 26 weeks in 2006.

Conversely, in 2008 a significantly higher proportion of mothers in receipt of MA were being paid for less than the statutory number of weeks (31 per cent), when compared to those in similar circumstances in 2006 (16 per cent).

However, it is also possible that the information provided by mothers about the duration of maternity pay was in some cases not very accurate. This is reflected by the fact that seven per cent in 2006 and six per cent in 2008 claimed to have received MA for more than the statutory 26 or 39 weeks, respectively.

Figures 3.1 and 3.2 focus on problems experienced by MA recipients with Jobcentre Plus, firstly in relation to their application for MA, and secondly in relation to its payment.

Most mothers did not have any problems with receipt of MA. However, experiencing problems has risen across the years. The proportion of respondents reporting no problems was significantly lower in 2008 (62 per cent) than in 2006 (74 per cent).

The most common problem reported in 2006 was not being given useful information about the conditions for getting maternity pay, and in 2008 the 'other' response was the most prevalent. In fact, there has been a significant increase in 'other' reasons cited as problems relating to receipt of MA, rising from seven per cent in 2006 to 18 per cent in 2008.

Difficulties with the application centred around lack of information relating to the payment level and duration of MA. Significantly fewer respondents reported the reasons 'Didn't give useful information about how much pay I could receive', and 'Didn't give useful information about number of weeks allowed' in 2008 (seven per cent and five per cent, respectively) than did in 2006 (13 per cent and ten per cent, respectively).

In relation to the payment of MA, again, most mothers did not have any problems to report. However, mothers experiencing problems has risen across the years. The proportion of respondents reporting no problems was significantly lower in 2008 (75 per cent) than in 2006 (88 per cent). The main problem mothers cited was payments being late, and the occurrence of this had significantly increased from six per cent in 2006 to 17 per cent in 2008.

Table 3.14 Experiences of receiving MA, by year*Base: All mothers who received MA*

Experiences of receiving MA	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
Reasons for receiving MA (multiple responses)		
Had not worked long enough for employer	35	35
Self-employed	29	24
Did not earn enough	15	23
Did not know about other types of pay	4	9
Unemployed	10	7
Gave up work too early	6	6
Other	8	6
Employer refused to give other types of pay	5	5
Was sick for too long	2	1
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	193	251
Average amount of MA received weekly (2006)		
Less than £100	18	
£100 to £105	27	
£106	29	
£107	2	
£1081	24	
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	164	
Average amount of MA received weekly (2008)		
Less than £100		34
£100 to £116		15
£117		47
£118 or more		5
<i>Unweighted bases</i>		189
Duration of MA payments		
1 to 25 weeks	16	6
26 weeks	77	4
27 to 38 weeks	6	21
39 weeks	.	64
40 to 51 weeks	.	6
52 weeks or more	1	.
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	179	243

Note: Column percentages.

¹ In 2006, all cases which had a value of MA received per week greater than £108 were recoded to £108.

Figure 3.1 Problems encountered with Jobcentre Plus in relation to MA application

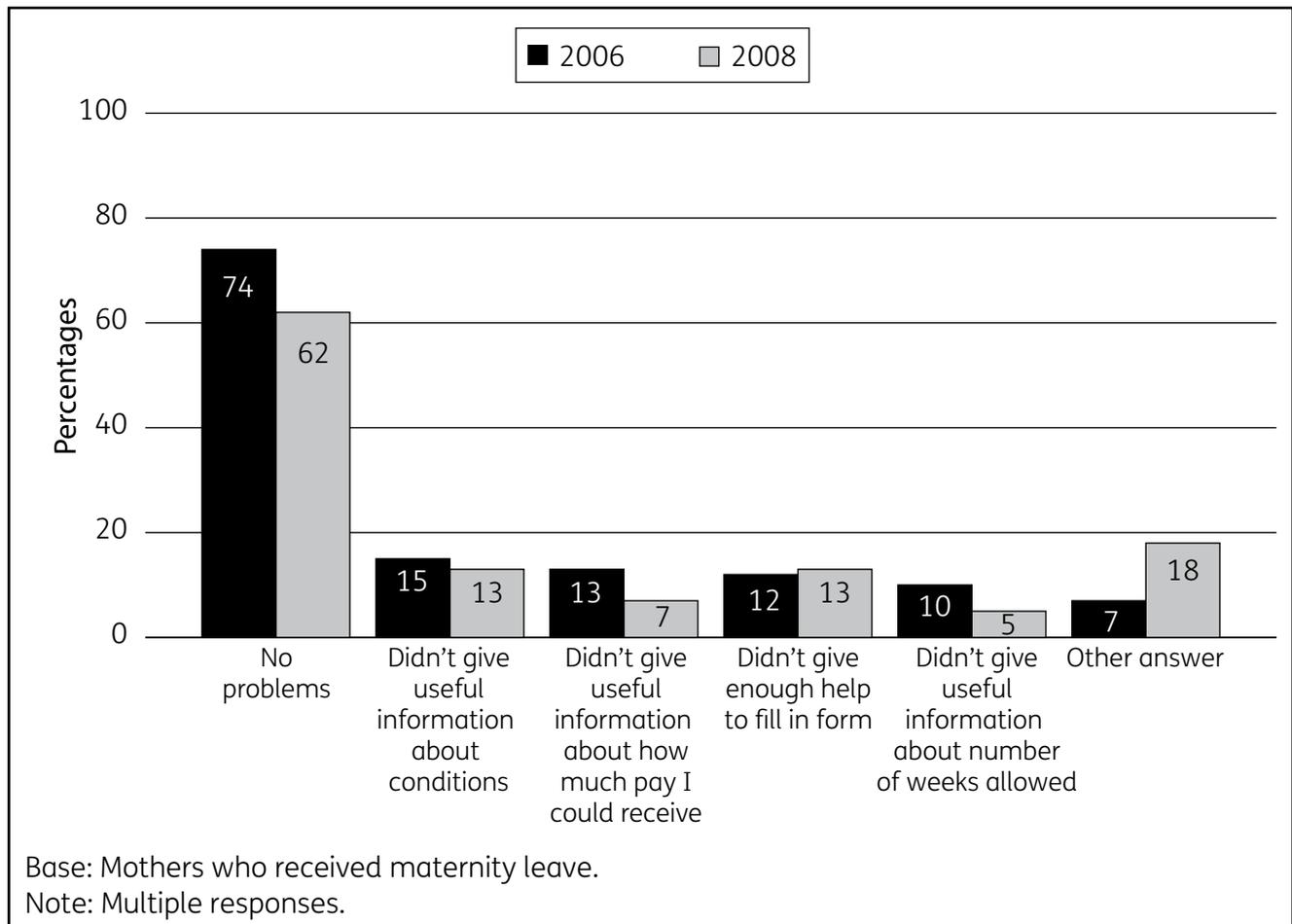
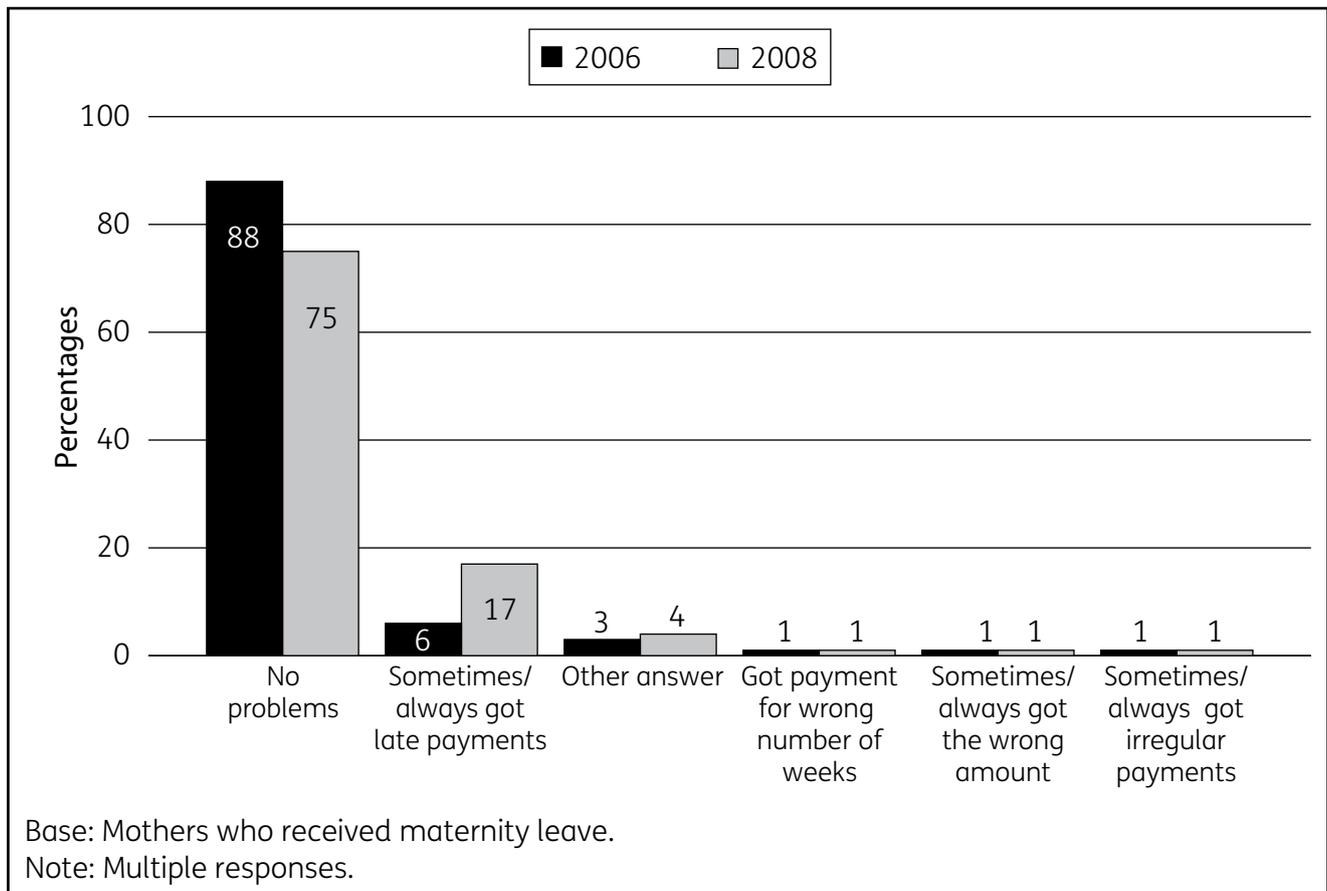


Figure 3.2 Problems experienced with receipt of MA payments



3.5.2 Statutory Maternity Pay

We next turn to examine the experiences of mothers who received SMP on its own. Table 3.15 shows the duration that mothers received 90 per cent of their normal earnings for, the average weekly amount of SMP, the duration of SMP, and the reasons why some mothers received SMP for less than the statutory period.

SMP recipients are entitled to receive 90 per cent of their normal earnings for the first six weeks. The results suggest that the overwhelming majority of mothers received this level of payment for at least six weeks. In 2008, a significantly higher proportion of mothers (80 per cent) received 90 per cent of their earnings for between six and ten weeks, compared with 2006 (70 per cent). For those receiving 90 per cent of earnings for 11 to 15 weeks, there was a significantly lower proportion in 2008 (eight per cent) compared to those in the same group in 2006 (12 per cent). The substantial number of mothers receiving 90 per cent of their earnings for more than six weeks could reflect the number of SMP recipients whose earnings were below the SMP level, and who, therefore, received 90 per cent of their earnings for the whole period, rather than just the first six weeks. However, recall problems could also have affected this figure.

Predictably, given the entitlement to 90 per cent of earnings for six weeks, SMP recipients were paid on average more than their MA counterparts. Just under two-thirds (61 per cent) of SMP recipients in 2008 received an average of more than £125 or more per week; around a quarter (24 per cent) received between £100 and £125 per week; and 15 per cent reported receiving less than £100 on average per week.

There has been a significant drop between years in the proportion of mothers taking SMP for exactly the statutory number of weeks. In 2008, 57 per cent of respondents were in this category, down from 74 per cent of respondents in 2006. Furthermore, in 2008, significantly more mothers (37 per cent) reported receiving SMP for less than the statutory duration than did in 2006 (17 per cent). The proportion of respondents saying that the reason they received SMP for fewer than the statutory number of weeks was because they needed to return to work for financial reasons, has increased significantly to 40 per cent in 2008 from 29 per cent in 2006. Other common reasons for taking less than the statutory duration of SMP included those who did not know they were entitled to SMP for longer than they actually received it (22 per cent), and another fifth (20 per cent) who wanted to return to work early.

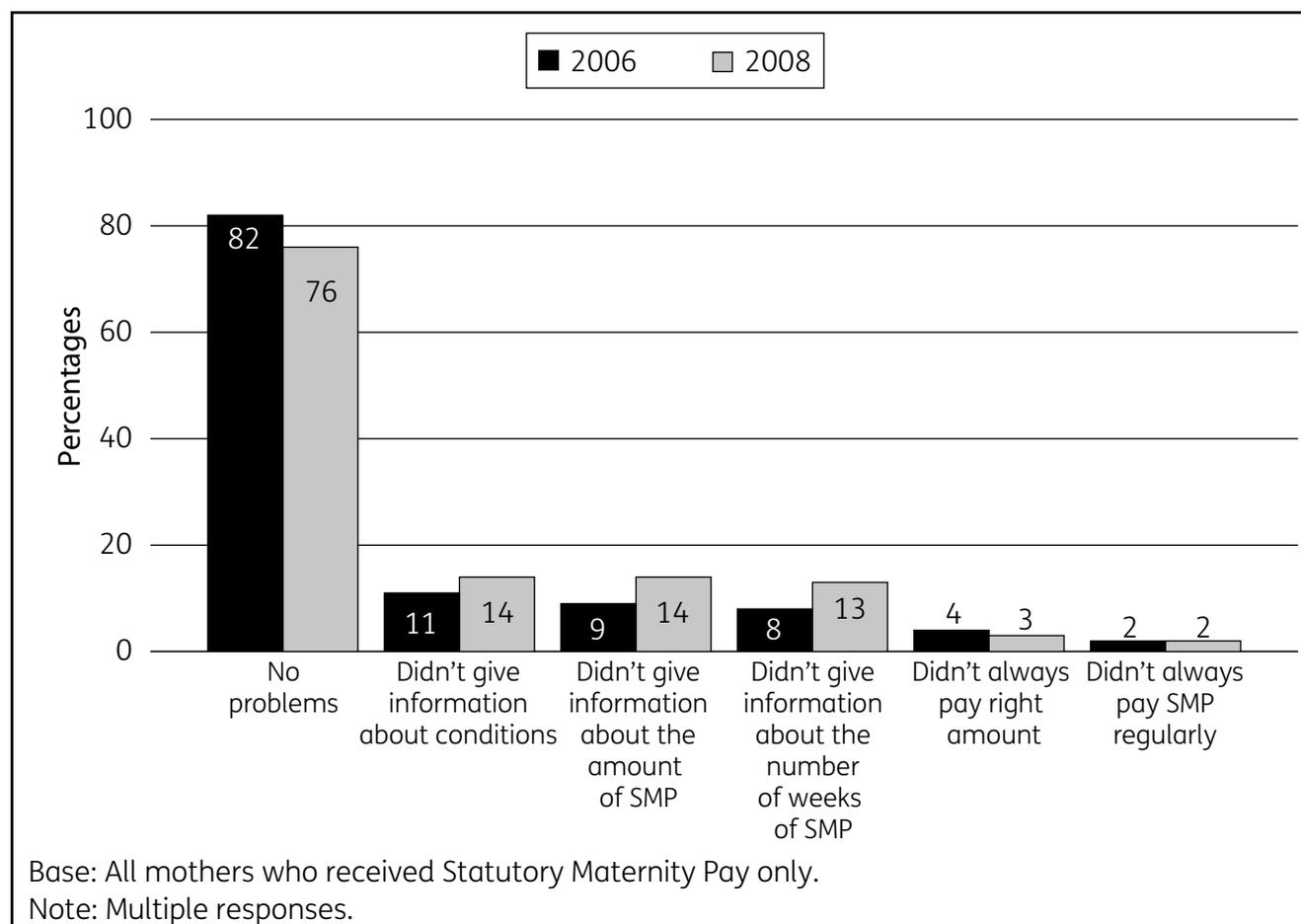
Table 3.15 Experiences of receiving SMP, by year

Experiences of receiving SMP	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
<i>Base: All mothers who received SMP</i>		
Number of weeks for which received 90% of normal earnings		
1 to 5 weeks	7	6
6 to 10 weeks	70	80
11 to 15 weeks	12	8
16 to 20 weeks	3	1
21 to 25 weeks	1	1
26 to 50 weeks	6	4
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	891	726
Average amount of SMP received weekly		
Less than £100	12	15
£100 to £125	23	24
More than £125	65	61
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	872	820
Duration of SMP payments		
1 to 25 weeks	17	10
26 weeks	75	5
27 to 38 weeks	8	22
39 weeks	.	57
40 to 51 weeks	0	6
52 weeks or more	0	.
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,023	852
Reasons why got SMP for fewer than statutory number of weeks (multiple responses)		
Needed to return to work early for financial reasons	29	40
Wanted to return to work early	20	20
Did not know could get maternity pay for longer	17	22
Received SMP as a lump sum payment	5	1
Employer pressurised respondent to return to work early	3	3
Started a new job/business	3	3
Other	26	15
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	176	307

Note: Column percentages.

As indicated in Figure 3.3, although the majority of mothers did not have any problems with receipt of SMP, this figure is significantly lower in 2008 (76 per cent) than it was in 2006 (82 per cent). There have been significant increases in the proportion of 2008 mothers reporting that they did not get enough information about the amount of SMP (14 per cent) or about the number of weeks of SMP they could receive (13 per cent), when compared to 2006 (nine per cent and eight per cent, respectively). Another common problem cited was that their employer did not give information about the eligibility conditions (14 per cent in 2008).

Figure 3.3 Problems experienced with employers regarding receipt of SMP



3.5.3 Occupational Maternity Pay

We turn, finally, to examine the experiences of mothers who received OMP, either on its own or in conjunction with SMP (or more rarely, MA). Table 3.16 shows how OMP was paid, the duration of OMP, for how long mothers received their full pay and the average level of pay.

As was the case in 2006, in 2008 the vast majority of mothers (96 per cent) received OMP in the form of regular payments. Lump sum payments²² were not very common, either on their own (one per cent), or combined with regular payments (two per cent).

Predictably, OMP levels were considerably higher than those reported for MA and SMP: the largest group of OMP recipients (54 per cent) in 2008 was paid an average of £100 to £299 per week. This was a significant increase on the proportion in this group in 2006 (41 per cent). A significantly lower proportion of 2008 mothers (15 per cent) received £500 or more per week in OMP than was found in 2006 (29 per cent).

²² While information was collected on the level of the lump sum payment and when this was paid, there were not enough cases to conduct more detailed analysis.

In 2008, 15 per cent of mothers received their normal full pay all of the time, 63 per cent were given full pay for part of the time (a significant increase on 2006 proportions (53 per cent)), and 22 per cent did not receive full pay at all.

As noted for the mothers who received SMP, for the OMP recipients there has been a significant drop between years in the proportion of mothers taking OMP for exactly the statutory number of weeks (39 weeks). In 2008, 47 per cent of mothers were in this category, down from 77 per cent of mothers in 2006. Coupled with this is a significant increase in the number of mothers receiving OMP for less than the statutory number of weeks. The proportion of mothers in this category in 2008 was 43 per cent, up from 16 per cent in 2006. Only ten per cent of mothers received OMP for more than 39 weeks in 2008. These findings imply that employers found it more difficult or were less inclined to cover the additional payment for the statutory period or longer.

However, though employers may not be covering the whole period of entitlement it should be noted that mothers in 2008 were in a better position than mothers in 2006 with regards to receipt of OMP: 66 per cent of women in 2008 received OMP for 26 weeks or more, compared to six per cent in 2006, so mothers are receiving OMP for longer, even if not for 39 weeks, though almost half (47 per cent) of mothers are receiving OMP for 39 weeks.

Table 3.16 Experiences of receiving OMP, by year

Base: All mothers who received regular OMP payments, except for type of payment, which includes all mothers who received OMP

Experiences of receiving OMP	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
Type of payment		
Regular payments only	94	96
Lump sum only	3	1
Both regular payments and lump sum	3	2
<i>Base (unweighted)</i>	504	685
Average amount of OMP received weekly		
Less than £100	2	5
£100 to £299	41	54
£300 to £499	28	26
£500 or more	29	15
<i>Base (unweighted)</i>	432	539
If and for how long received normal full pay		
Full pay all of the time	19	15
Full pay part of the time	53	63
Did not receive full pay any of the time	28	22
<i>Base (unweighted)</i>	485	598
Duration of OMP payments		
1 to 25 weeks	16	14
26 weeks	77	9
27 to 38 weeks	6	19
39 weeks	0	47
40 to 51 weeks	0	7
52 weeks or more	0	3
<i>Base (unweighted)</i>	487	668

Note: Column percentages.

3.6 Conclusion

As our survey focused on mothers who had worked in the year before the birth, it was not surprising to find that the overwhelming majority had received some type of maternity pay, with over one-third having received maternity pay from their employer, as well as statutory maternity pay. However, amongst the small group of mothers who did not receive any maternity pay, according to our calculations, some were entitled to maternity pay of some kind. While this was the case for a very small number of mothers entitled to SMP it affected a substantial minority of mothers entitled to MA.

The duration of maternity pay was clearly linked to the duration of maternity leave, indicating that financial concerns were an important factor in determining mothers' decision-making in this area. The legislative changes in 2007 that increased the statutory number of weeks that SMP and MA are paid for from 26 to 39 weeks, have resulted in fewer mothers taking maternity leave or maternity pay for the full statutory duration. A common reason for this is financial pressures. However, it is clear that mothers have benefited from the statutory increase in maternity pay with mothers, in general, receiving maternity pay for longer periods in 2008 than in 2006.

The kind of financial support mothers received while on maternity leave varied considerably. We saw in the previous chapter that better-off mothers with more favourable working conditions took the longest period of maternity pay. These mothers were also most likely to receive the most generous maternity pay package, which is a combination of SMP and OMP. Conversely, mothers who were the least well off and in a less favourable employment position (e.g. in temporary and part-time jobs, and low level occupations) were by far the most likely not to have received any maternity pay. This is a tendency that has persisted since the 2002 survey.

4 Employment decisions after birth

In this chapter we explore the rate of return to work among mothers who gave birth in 2008 and to what extent this might vary among different groups. During the 1980s and 1990s there was a significant growth in the proportion of women returning to work after childbirth in Britain (Hudson *et al.*, 2002). This growth was due to the introduction of maternity rights and family-friendly policies, as well as changes in attitudes towards work. However, research has shown that these changes were not experienced equally by all women, with mothers from disadvantaged backgrounds being less likely to re-enter the labour market after childbearing. It has been argued that a polarisation of opportunities emerged in the 1980s and continued in the 1990s (Smeaton, 2006).

In this chapter, we first explore the rate of return among mothers who gave birth in 2008 and to what extent this was linked to opportunities for progression, pay rise and increased responsibility provided by the employer. We then look at how mothers' decision to return to work might have been affected by the characteristics of their pre-birth employer, the type of job they had before the baby was born and a number of socio-demographic factors.

Although the main focus of the chapter is looking at the employment decisions of women who gave birth in 2008, throughout the chapter comparisons are made, where significant, between mothers who gave birth in 2008 and those who gave birth in 2006. All tables show the figures from both. One of the aims of extending the Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) period in 2007 was to give mothers greater flexibility in deciding when they return to work and thus encouraging more of them to return. Comparison of return to work rates in 2006 and 2008 will allow us to assess to what extent this has happened.

4.1 Employment opportunities and the decision to return to work

Our estimates indicate that in 2008 three-quarters (77 per cent) of mothers who had worked before the birth, had returned to work when the child was aged 12 to 18 months²³. This has not changed since 2006 when 76 per cent of mothers returned to work in 12 to 18 months after the baby was born.

Table 4.1 shows the kind of opportunities offered by the pre-birth employers to mothers who returned to work and to those who stayed at home after the birth. No variation was found in the proportion of returners by the level of responsibilities in either 2008 or 2006. However, in 2008 those mothers who were offered lower pay (89 per cent) were less likely to return than those offered higher pay (99 per cent) or the same level of pay (93 per cent). This pattern was not seen in 2006 where there was no variation in the likelihood of returning to work by the level of pay offered. Mothers who were offered a higher level of pay in 2008 were more likely than mothers who were offered a higher level of pay in 2006 to return to work, 99 per cent and 94 per cent respectively.

The 'not applicable' category includes women who did not discuss these issues with their employer. Women in the latter category were the most likely to stay at home after childbearing (almost two-thirds of mothers in 2008). The proportion of mothers in this group who did not return to work was higher in 2008 than in 2006, 64 per cent and 52 per cent respectively. It is possible that women in

²³ This figure does not reflect the proportion of mothers who return to work after the birth at a later point in time.

this group included many mothers in lower occupational groups who were less likely to discuss these issues with their employer and also mothers who had made the decision, prior to birth, that they were not to return to work after the baby was born.

Table 4.1 Opportunities offered by pre-birth employers, by returners and non-returners

Pre-birth employer characteristics	Whether returned to work post-birth			
	Returners 2006 %	Returners 2008 %	Unweighted bases 2006	Unweighted bases 2008
<i>Base: All mothers</i>				
Level of responsibility offered				
More responsibility	95	97	98	110
Less responsibility	92	92	140	138
Same responsibility	92	93	1,160	1,159
Not applicable/did not discuss	47	37	110	99
Level of pay offered				
Higher pay	94	99	137	117
Lower pay	94	89	78	64
Same pay	91	93	1,186	1,228
Not applicable/did not discuss	48	36	109	98
All mothers	76	77	1,952	2,020

Note: Cell percentages.

Note: Cases with missing values have been excluded from the bases.

4.2 Characteristics of pre-birth employer and post-birth employment decisions

In this section we examine whether the characteristics of the pre-birth employer were associated with mothers' return to paid work.

Table 4.2 shows that women who worked in the public sector before birth were more likely than those in the private sector to return to work after childbirth (87 per cent in 2008 and 84 per cent in 2006). Likewise, we observe a notable difference in the proportion of returners by employer's size: mothers who worked in large private companies were more likely to go back to work than those who worked in other size companies. For example, looking at the 2008 figures, 76 per cent of mothers in large private companies and 75 per cent in medium sized companies returned to work compared with 61 per cent in small companies. It is possible that these associations are explained by the availability of family-friendly arrangements, as it is more common for the public sector and large companies to provide arrangements, which might facilitate mothers' return to work. There are no significant differences between 2006 and 2008.

In addition, we observe substantial variations in the proportion of returners by industrial sector, partly reflecting the high rate of return in the public sector. Women who worked in public administration and defence and those in health and social work were the groups most likely to go back to work (91 per cent and 85 per cent, respectively, in both 2008 and 2006). In contrast, women

who worked in the other services and distribution sectors were the less likely to return to work after childbearing (68 per cent and 69 per cent correspondingly in 2008).

Figures in Table 4.3 show a positive association between mothers' rate of return and the number of family-friendly arrangements provided by their pre-birth employer²⁴. Eighty-six per cent of mothers with access to five or more family-friendly arrangements went back to work after childbearing in both 2008 and 2006. This compares with 64 per cent of those who reported one or two family-friendly arrangements in 2008 and 48 per cent of those with no such arrangements.

Table 4.2 Returning to work, by characteristics of pre-birth employer

Pre-birth employer characteristics	Whether returned to work post-birth			
	Returners 2006 %	Returners 2008 %	Unweighted bases 2006	Unweighted bases 2008
<i>Base: All mothers</i>				
Employers size and sector				
Private 1-24	64	61	373	426
Private 25-499	70	75	404	418
Private 500 or more	79	76	313	322
Public	84	87	795	773
Industrial sector				
Production/communication	72	76	250	196
Distribution	66	69	265	312
Financial services	81	77	129	135
Public administration and defence	91	91	121	127
Education	81	87	225	241
Health and social work	85	85	400	432
Other services	71	68	562	577
Number of family-friendly arrangements				
None	42	48	154	166
1-2	64	64	354	351
3-4	76	73	376	357
5 or more	86	86	1,000	1,079
All mothers	76	77	1,952	2,031

Note: Cell percentages.

Note: Cases with missing values have been excluded from the bases.

²⁴ It should be noted that these figures correspond to mothers' awareness of working arrangements available in her workplace. For more information about the different types of arrangements explored in the surveys see Chapter 7.

4.3 Characteristics of pre-birth employment and post-birth employment decisions

Next, we observe a number of associations between employment circumstances and mothers' decision to return to work. Table 4.3 shows that most of the characteristics analysed were clearly linked to mothers' willingness or ability to return to work.

Mothers in higher level occupations were more likely to resume working than those in lower level occupations; this pattern was seen in both 2008 and 2006. For example, in 2008, around nine in ten professionals, or associate professionals and over eight in ten managers returned to work after having their baby (89 per cent, 90 per cent and 85 per cent, respectively). In contrast, 56 per cent of mothers in other elementary occupations went back to work after childbirth.

Mothers' return rate was also strongly related to their level of earnings, with mothers in the highest earning category being the most likely to return to work in both years (89 per cent in 2008 and 88 per cent in 2006). A difference between the two years is that mothers in the lowest earning category were less likely to return to work in 2008 (55 per cent) than in 2006 (65 per cent).

Working hours were also associated with the likelihood of returning to work. As expected, mothers who worked fewer hours were less likely to resume employment after childbearing. Looking at the 2008 figures, 63 per cent of mothers who worked short part-time hours (fewer than 16 hours a week) returned to work, compared with 76 per cent of those who worked long part-time hours (16-29 hours a week) and 79 per cent of those who worked full-time. The same pattern was also observed for mothers who gave birth in 2006.

Our data shows little variation between the experiences of mothers who worked as self-employed and those who worked as employees. In contrast, we observe substantial variations in terms of employment status: 51 per cent of mothers in temporary pre-birth employment in 2008 went back to work, compared with 80 per cent of mothers in a permanent position. There is no significant difference between 2006 and 2008.

There is a strong and positive relationship between the duration of pre-birth job and mothers' rates of return: the longer mothers had worked for the pre-birth employer, the more likely they were to return to work after childbirth. For instance looking at 2008, women who had worked for the same employer for more than ten years were the most likely to resume working (90 per cent). In contrast, women who had worked for their pre-birth employer for less than one year were the least likely to go back to work (34 per cent). Women who worked for an employer between one and two years were less likely in 2008 to return to work (41 per cent) than in 2006 (56 per cent). The fact that women are increasingly less likely to return to work when they have not been with employers for a number of years may reflect women's reluctance to return, or it may reflect employers' attitudes towards these women who have been in their employment for a shorter amount of time.

Table 4.3 Returning to work, by characteristics of pre-birth employment

Base: All mothers

Pre-birth employment characteristics	Whether returned to work post-birth			
	Returners 2006 %	Returners 2008 %	Unweighted bases 2006	Unweighted bases 2008
Occupational group				
Managers	83	85	177	233
Professionals	87	89	227	269
Associate professional	86	90	339	357
Administrative/secretarial	74	71	969	907
Other elementary ¹	58	56	233	258
Hourly gross pay				
£0-£4.99	65	55	265	221
£5-£9.99	72	71	964	938
£10-£14.99	85	86	406	434
More than £15	88	89	317	438
Weekly working hours				
1-15 hours	63	63	177	211
16-29 hours	75	76	548	644
30 hours or more	79	79	1,222	1,170
Employment status				
Temporary	54	51	178	422
Permanent	79	80	1,708	3,422
Employee	76	77	1,887	1,959
Self-employed	79	85	65	72
Duration of job				
Less than 1 year	30	34	183	212
1-2 years	56	41	218	200
2-5 years	82	84	792	748
5-10 years	87	88	527	599
More than 10 years	89	90	226	266
All mothers	76	77	1,952	2,031

Note: Cell percentages.

¹ Other elementary consists of those employees who worked in the following occupational groups: skilled trades; process, plant and machine operatives; and other elementary occupations.

Finally, we look at the association between the type of maternity pay received and the proportion of mothers who returned to work. Table 4.4 shows substantial variations between groups, with 38 per cent of mothers who did not receive any maternity pay returning to work, compared with 59 per cent of mothers who received Maternity Allowance (MA) only, and 80 per cent of those receiving SMP only (2008 figures). Additionally, our data suggests that mothers benefiting from Occupational Maternity Pay (OMP) were the most likely to return to work (90 per cent of those receiving OMP and SMP returned to work).

It is clear from Table 4.4 that those mothers who received MA had low rates of return to work, despite the fact that self-employed mothers had very high rates of return to work (as seen in Table 4.3). This is likely to be due to the fact that although mothers who are self-employed typically receive MA, those mothers who are on low income or temporary and short-term work also receive this type of maternity pay. While the former have high return to work rates, the latter have low return to work rates.

The 2008 figures show the same pattern of maternity pay receipt and mothers' likelihood of returning to work as seen in 2006.

Table 4.4 Returning to work, by type of maternity pay received

Base: All mothers

Type of maternity pay received	Whether returned to work post-birth			
	Returners 2006 %	Returners 2008 %	Unweighted bases 2006	Unweighted bases 2008
MA only	62	59	192	254
SMP only	79	80	673	858
OMP only	[86]	93	49	98
SMP and OMP	87	90	806	578
None	41	38	226	231
All mothers	76	77	1952	2031

Note: Cell percentages.

4.4 Socio-economic profile and post-birth employment decisions

In this section, we explore whether a set of individual characteristics was linked to mothers' propensity to return to work after childbirth. We examine the relationship with both mothers' demographic and socio-economic characteristics.

Table 4.5 shows that returning to work was related to age; mothers who were younger than 25 years were substantially less likely to resume work (52 per cent in 2008 and 59 per cent in 2006) than their older counterparts. However, from age 25 onwards rates of return did not vary much, around eight in ten mothers over 25 returned to work after the birth. This pattern was seen in both 2008 and 2006.

In terms of family status, mothers with a partner were more likely to return to work than lone mothers (82 per cent and 51 per cent respectively in 2008). However, lone mothers in 2008 were less likely to return to work (51 per cent) than those who gave birth in 2006 (62 per cent). The fact that lone mothers are less likely to return to work post-birth, combined with the fact that lone mothers are more likely to take shorter maternity leave than partnered mothers (Table 2.12) suggests that there are extremes in the behaviour of lone mothers; either lone mothers return to employment early or do not return to employment post-birth.

The findings on the number of children (aged 15 or under) shows that those mothers with two children were most likely to return to work (82 per cent), with mothers with just one child being the least likely (73 per cent). This pattern was seen in both 2008 and 2006. Further, looking at children's age, we find that the association with a return to work was small and not statistically significant. This was seen in both 2008 and 2006.

We explored possible differences according to whether someone in the family (including the mother) had a disability or the mother had adult care responsibilities, and returning to work. However, in 2008 there was no statistically significant difference found between the presence of disability in the family or having adult care responsibilities.

Looking at the marital status of the mother, mothers who were married and living with their partner are more likely to return to work following childbirth than other mothers. For example, in 2008, 84 per cent of married mothers returned to work compared with 76 per cent of mothers who were cohabitees and 51 per cent of lone parents. Further, those mothers who were married and living with a partner in 2008 were more likely to return to work following childbirth (84 per cent) than those who were married in 2006 (80 per cent).

The 2006 and 2008 figures showed no significant difference in the likelihood of returning to work by the mother's ethnicity.

Returning to employment was highly correlated with mother's educational qualifications; for example, in 2008, 84 per cent of mothers who had the highest level of qualifications returned to work compared with 62 per cent at the lowest level. The relationship between the level of qualifications and likelihood of returning to work may be strengthening as those mothers with the lowest level of qualifications, NVQ 1-2, were less likely to return to work in 2008 than in 2006 (62 per cent and 69 per cent, respectively).

Table 4.5 Returning to work, by mothers' demographic characteristics*Base: All mothers*

Pre-birth employment characteristics	Whether returned to work post-birth			
	Returners 2006 %	Returners 2008 %	Unweighted bases 2006	Unweighted bases 2008
Age				
Under 25	59	52	278	285
25-29	76	76	431	441
30-34	80	83	643	625
35-90	81	83	469	527
40 or above	80	83	130	153
Family status				
Partnered	79	82	1,625	1,697
Lone-parent	62	51	327	333
Number of children aged 14 or under				
1 child	74	73	996	902
2 children	79	82	729	836
3 or more children	77	79	227	293
Children's age				
Pre-school children only	75	76	1,441	1,613
Pre- and school-age children	79	81	511	418
Whether someone in family has a disability				
No	77	78	1,582	1,590
Yes	72	72	370	441
Whether cares for relative or friend				
No	77	77	1,894	1,949
Yes	66	69	58	82
Marital status				
Married and living with partner	80	84	1,212	1,230
Cohabiting	77	76	413	468
Lone parent	62	51	327	333
Ethnic group				
White	77	77	1,758	1,854
Black	80	75	59	53
Asian	72	82	76	72
Mixed or other	67	[72]	55	48
Highest educational level				
NVQ 4+	82	84	964	1,088
NVQ 3	77	77	411	438
NVQ 1-2	69	62	501	448
No qualifications	42	[49]	55	42
All mothers	76	77	1,952	2,031

Note: Cell percentages.

Table 4.6 presents the return rates of partnered mothers according to partners' employment circumstances. Mothers with working partners were more likely to return to work than mothers with a non-working partner (83 per cent and 71 per cent, respectively, in 2008).

However, the bivariate analysis shows no systematic association between partner's earnings and women's return to work. Mothers with a partner earning a salary of £580 – £769 were the group with the highest chances of returning to work (90 per cent). Further, women with partners in this income bracket were more likely to return to work in 2008 than in 2006 where returning rates stood at 79 per cent (11 percentage points less).

Table 4.6 Returning to work, by partners' current employment status

Base: Partnered mothers whose partner was working at the time of the interview, except for the partner's working status analysis which is based on all partnered mothers

Pre-birth employment characteristics	Whether returned to work post-birth			
	Returners 2006 %	Returners 2008 %	Unweighted bases 2006	Unweighted bases 2008
Employment status				
In paid employment	80	83	1,542	1,555
Not in paid employment	70	71	82	139
Weekly gross pay				
Less than £200	80	76	82	86
£200-£389	79	79	401	367
£390-£579	84	87	418	417
£580-£769	79	90	248	291
More than £770	76	78	332	330
All partnered mothers	79	80	1,697	1,625

Note: Cell percentages.

4.5 Key determinants of return to work

In addition to the bivariate analysis presented throughout this chapter, three logistic regression models have been estimated for 2008 data to identify the most important factors associated with returning to work. This analysis adds an extra layer of insight into the factors which are associated with mother's return to work, because unlike the bivariate analysis, which is just able to look at how one factor is related to mother's likelihood of returning to work after birth, the following three models allow us to control for the joint effect of the other explanatory variations in the models:

- Model 1 was estimated using information on all mothers in the sample;
- Model 2 was fitted using information on partnered mothers only and included the same explanatory variables as in Model 1 plus partners' earnings;
- Model 3 was estimated using the same explanatory variables as in Model 1, but with information on lone mothers only.

The detailed results of these models are presented in Tables B.3-B.5; below we provide a summary of this analysis.

The first model, looking at all mothers, indicates that, even after controlling for the joint effect of other explanatory variables, a number of factors had a significant association with mothers' probability of returning to work.

The odds of returning to work following birth were significantly **higher** for:

- partnered mothers, compared with lone mothers;
- mothers with higher qualifications, compared with mothers with lower qualifications;
- mothers working in the public sector, compared with those working in the private sector;
- mothers who had been in their job for more than ten years prior to childbirth compared with those who had been in their job for less than two years;
- mothers who received maternity pay other than MA, compared with those who received no maternity pay or received MA.

Firstly, looking at individual characteristics, we find that family structure and mothers' qualifications remained significant, with the results being similar to what was seen in the bivariate analysis. According to Model 1, lone mothers were more likely to remain at home following birth than partnered mothers, as were mothers with lower qualifications compared with mothers with higher qualifications. Two factors which were significant in the bivariate analysis, but were not when controlling for other factors, were the mother's age and the number of children.

Among the pre-birth employers' characteristics, Model 1 identified size and sector of job as remaining significant. Our estimates suggest that, after accounting for other job-related factors, those working in the private sector were less likely to return to work than those who worked in the public sector. However, the number of family-friendly arrangements available in the workplace, though significant in the bivariate analysis, was a factor which was not significant in Model 1.

With regards to the pre-birth employment characteristics, Model 1 indicates that duration of job remains significant, with those mothers who had been in their pre-birth job for longer periods being more likely to return. The type of maternity pay received also remained significant after controlling for the influence of other variables, as noted before; resuming work was negatively related with not receiving maternity pay and receiving MA. Pre-birth employment characteristics which were not significant in this model were mothers' earnings and mothers' occupational group.

Model 1 shows that an important predictor of returning to work after childbirth is the location the respondent lives in. Our estimates suggest that women in some regions outside London had higher chances of resuming work after childbirth. In particular, women who worked in the West Midlands or East Midlands were more likely to return than women who worked in London.

Model 2 (which only includes partnered mothers) presents some similar results to those of Model 1:

The odds of returning to work following birth for partnered mothers were significantly **higher** for:

- mothers working in the public sector, compared with those working in small and large private companies;
- mothers older than 35 years old, compared with younger mothers;
- mothers who had been in their job for more than ten years prior to childbirth compared with those who had been in their job for less than two years;
- mothers with three or more children;

- mothers who worked as managers or senior officials, compared with those who worked in lower occupations;
- mothers whose partner earned in the middle range of incomes.

Employer size and sector, years in pre-birth job and location of pre-birth employment are factors which were significant in both Model 1 and Model 2. However, for partnered mothers three factors emerged as significant which were not significant for all mothers overall: occupational group, mothers' age and number of children. With regards to occupational group partnered mothers who worked as professionals, in skilled trades or in administrative or secretarial work were less likely to return to work than those partnered mothers who were managers or senior officials. In terms of the number of children, partnered mothers with three or more children were more likely to return to work following the birth of their child than mothers with only one child.

Further, for partnered mothers, estimates suggest that partners' income was also associated with the likelihood of returning to work; mothers who had partners with incomes in the middle of the range were more likely to return than those who had partners earning the highest weekly rate, which reflects what was seen in the bivariate analysis. The type of maternity pay received and the highest qualification of the mother were factors which although significant in Model 1 (all mothers), were not significant in Model 2 (partnered mothers).

Model 3 (which only includes lone mothers) shows similar factors influencing post-birth employment decisions to Model 1 and the bivariate analysis.

The odds of returning to work following birth for lone mothers were significantly **higher** for:

- mothers working in the public sector, compared to those working in small private companies;
- mothers working long part-time hours, compared with full-time hours;
- mothers who had been in their job for more than two years prior to childbirth compared to those who had been in their job for less than two years;
- mothers who received maternity pay other than MA or only OMP.

Two factors emerging from the multivariate analysis which were not significant for all mothers (Model 1) but were significant for lone mothers (Model 3) were the number of pre-birth weekly working hours and the number of children the mother has. Interestingly, lone mothers who worked long part-time hours before birth were more likely to return to work than those who worked full-time; this is likely due to the fact that working part-time is easier to balance with family commitments when the mother has no resident partner to share childcare.

Although significant in Model 1, the location the respondent lives in and the mother's highest qualification were not significant predictors of the return to work for lone mothers.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter shows that 77 per cent of women who gave birth in 2008 and worked in the year before the birth, had returned to work 12-18 months later. This figure is very close to that observed in mothers who had given birth in 2006, 76 per cent. One may expect the return to work rate to decrease during the economic downturn as there were fewer jobs available. The fact that this has not happened could indicate that the changes introduced with the Work and Families Act 2006 have encouraged women to go back to work.

Our findings suggest that mothers' employers, type of employment and individual characteristics played an important role in mothers' decisions around work. The factors with the strongest association with returning to work included: employer size and sector, duration of pre-birth job, type of maternity pay received, family structure and mothers' educational level. For partnered mothers, the father's weekly earnings was also associated with their likelihood of returning to work.

Overall, we observe that work return rates were influenced by both opportunities and constraints. On one hand, mothers who worked for employers offering more flexibility to combine work and care and mothers who received maternity pay were more likely to go back to work. On the other, lone parents and mothers with no qualifications might have faced more difficulties in re-entering the labour market after childbearing. Indeed, there is evidence to suggest that these constraints were making it increasingly harder for some mothers to return to work; lone mothers and mothers with the lowest level of qualifications were less likely to return to work in 2008 than in 2006.

The analysis of the 2008 data reinforced what was seen in 2006; there were persistent differences in the rates of return to work, with women in the most advantaged situations – highly qualified, living with a partner, in better paid jobs with a number of family-friendly arrangements – facing fewer constraints on their employment decisions.

5 Mothers who returned to work

In this chapter we look at the decisions and employment outcomes of mothers who returned to work after the birth. We first explore the factors that influenced the timing of the return to work, and whether these might be linked to the type of maternity pay mothers received. We then look at whether mothers returned to their pre-birth job or changed jobs after the birth, and analyse any regional variations in relation to this decision. Childbirth can result in considerable changes in maternal employment circumstances, including shorter working hours, lower pay and the loss of supervisory responsibility. These employment outcomes are explored by comparing mothers' employment circumstances in the last job they had before the birth, with those in the first job they went back to after the child was born. We conclude the chapter by analysing the type of childcare used after their return to work.

5.1 Returning to work

In both years the majority of mothers who returned to work after their maternity leave, returned to the same job with the same employer (86 per cent in 2006 and 84 per cent in 2008). This did not vary by region.

Among those who returned to the labour market but to a different job, in both years the most commonly cited reasons for changing jobs after maternity leave were wanting to work hours that suited their needs (51 per cent in 2006 and 43 per cent in 2008) and wanting to work part-time (33 per cent in 2006 and 39 per cent in 2008). There were no significant difference between the two years in the proportion of mothers reporting these reasons.

5.2 Timing of the return to work

The mothers who returned to the same job were asked to give the reasons for the timing of their return to work. The timing of the return to work was strongly influenced by financial factors, which confirms the findings on maternity leave and pay discussed earlier. The most common reason given in both years was needing the money, cited by 61 per cent of mothers in 2006 and 59 per cent of mothers in 2008. Other common reasons in both years included the maternity leave coming to an end (47 per cent in 2006 and 43 per cent in 2008) and the maternity pay coming to an end (31 per cent in 2006 and 35 per cent in 2008). The percentage of mothers giving these reasons has not changed significantly between the two years.

Table 5.1 Reasons for timing of return to work, by year baby was born

Base: Mothers who returned to pre-birth job following birth

Reason	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
Needed the money	61	59
Maternity leave came to an end	47	43
Maternity pay came to an end	31	35
Enjoys working and was keen to return	23	25
Missed the company at work	13	12
Wanted to work to be independent	11	11
Found suitable childcare	10	9
A longer break could have harmed career/business	8	8
Was worried might lose their job if stayed away longer	4	5
Other	5	5
Got additional money from employer for returning at that time	2	1
Found a new job that suited needs	1	1
Condition of employer's maternity pay to return at that time	1	0
None	0	0
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,248	1,286

Note: Multiple responses.

Turning to the maternity pay actually received, we were only able to look at the reasons for the timing of the return to work by the type of maternity pay received for the mothers who had their babies in 2008. However, we also look at these reasons across both years by a number of other characteristics presented in Tables 5.3 to 5.7.

The proportion of mothers citing the maternity leave coming to an end varied significantly by the type of maternity pay received (Table 5.2). This reason was most commonly cited by mothers receiving either Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) only, both SMP and Occupational Maternity Pay (OMP) or OMP only (46 per cent, 45 per cent and 42 per cent respectively), compared with less than a third of mothers receiving Maternity Allowance (MA) only (31 per cent) and just over a tenth of mothers receiving no maternity pay (12 per cent). A large number of mothers receiving MA only were self-employed and not eligible for maternity leave which explains why this reason was not as commonly given by mothers receiving MA only. On the other hand, the majority of the mothers who did not receive any maternity pay were employees who were not eligible for maternity pay because they were on very low earnings (less than £30 per week) and the majority returned to work within the first six months of the birth which explains why this reason was not commonly cited by this group of mothers.

Table 5.2 Reasons for timing of return to work, by type of maternity pay received

Base: Mothers who returned to pre-birth job following birth

Reason	Type of maternity pay received					Total %
	MA only %	SMP only %	SMP and OMP %	OMP only %	None %	
Needed the money	54	59	60	55	51	59
Maternity leave came to an end	31	46	45	42	12	43
Maternity pay came to an end	41	37	33	39		35
Enjoys working and was keen to return	26	24	26	27	25	25
Missed the company at work	9	12	12	12	15	12
Wanted to work to be independent	15	11	11	5	19	11
Found suitable childcare	10	8	10	11	8	9
A longer break could have harmed career/business	17	5	8	10	17	8
Was worried might lose their job if stayed away longer	8	6	4	7	4	5
Other	6	4	4	3	16	5
Got additional money from employer for returning at that time		1	2	1		1
Found a new job that suited needs	1	1	1			1
Condition of employer's maternity pay to return at that time		1		2	2	0
None	1	0	0		2	0
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	<i>104</i>	<i>559</i>	<i>479</i>	<i>90</i>	<i>52</i>	<i>1,286</i>

Note: Multiple responses.

Note: OMP only category includes a small number of respondents who claimed to be receiving both MA and OMP.

Next we look at the reasons for the timing of the return to work by a number of characteristics (Table 5.3 to Table 5.7), discussing the most commonly cited reasons (needing the money, maternity leave ending and maternity pay ending) in turn.

The timing of the return to work being determined by financial necessity varied significantly by region (Table 5.4). Among mothers who had given birth in 2006, the highest proportion of mothers citing this reason was in Yorkshire and Humberside (73 per cent) and the lowest proportion, at only 40 per cent, was in the North East. In 2008 the variation by region was less marked, ranging from about half of mothers in the East Midlands citing this reason (52 per cent) to 66 per cent in the South West and London. There were no significant differences in the citing of financial necessity between, or within, years with regards to mother's disability status or ethnicity (Tables 5.6 and 5.7).

The proportion of mothers citing the maternity leave coming to an end as a reason for the timing of their return to work varied significantly by maternity pay eligibility status, region and the mother's age (Table 5.3, Table 5.4 and Table 5.5). In both years, the proportion of mothers citing this reason

was highest among those eligible for SMP (49 per cent in 2006 and 45 per cent in 2008) and lowest among those eligible for MA (35 per cent in 2006 and 30 per cent in 2008). Among mothers with babies born in 2006, the lowest proportion citing the end of maternity leave as a reason was in the South East (37 per cent), this was also seen in 2008 with the lowest proportion again being found in the South East (35 per cent). The highest proportion of mothers giving this reason was in the North East in 2006 (61 per cent) and in Wales in 2008 (59 per cent). In 2006 mothers in the youngest age brackets were most likely to give this reason. There was, however, no significant difference seen in 2008 in relation to mother's age with the proportion of mothers in the youngest age group reporting this reason falling from 62 per cent in 2006 to 47 per cent in 2008. Again, there were no significant differences either between or within years with regards to mother's disability status or ethnicity (Tables 5.6 and 5.7).

The proportion of mothers citing the maternity pay coming to an end as a reason for the timing of their return to work varied significantly by the mother's age (Table 5.5). In both years, mothers in the 25 to 29 year age range were most likely to cite this reason (38 per cent in 2006 and 44 per cent in 2008), while mothers aged 40 years and older were least likely to give this reason (27 per cent in 2006 and 24 per cent in 2008). Analysis of mother's disability and ethnicity showed no significant differences in relation to citing maternity pay coming to an end, either between or within years (Tables 5.6 and 5.7).

Table 5.3 Reasons for timing of return to work, by maternity pay eligibility

Base: Mothers who returned to pre-birth job following birth

Reasons	2006			2008		
	Maternity pay eligibility			Maternity pay eligibility		
	SMP %	MA %	None %	SMP %	MA %	None %
Needed the money	62	56	53	60	54	[49]
Maternity leave came to an end	49	35	43	45	30	[28]
Maternity pay came to an end	31	34	24	36	32	[29]
Enjoys working and was keen to return	23	19	30	25	27	[27]
Missed the company at work	14	7	7	12	13	[10]
Wanted to work to be independent	10	17	6	11	14	[17]
Found suitable childcare	10	10	11	9	7	[10]
A longer break could have harmed career/business	6	17	9	7	13	[25]
Was worried might lose their job if stayed away longer	3	5	3	5	6	[13]
Other reason	4	7	11	4	7	[12]
Got additional money from employer for returning at that time	2		4	1		
Found a new job that suited needs	1	2		1	1	
Condition of employer's maternity pay to return at that time	1	1		0	1	[2]
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	<i>1,063</i>	<i>124</i>	<i>61</i>	<i>1,097</i>	<i>141</i>	<i>48</i>

Note: Multiple responses.

Table 5.4 Reasons for timing of return to work, by location of current job

	Region																			
	Yorkshire and Humberside		South East		North East		East of England		West Midlands		South West		North West		London		Wales		Scotland	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
2006																				
Needed the money	73	64	40	59	55	64	66	54	53	70	63									
Maternity leave came to an end	49	37	61	39	49	55	38	60	47	43	49									
Maternity pay came to an end	27	39	30	30	30	41	28	32	23	36	26									
Enjoys working and was keen to return	27	29	12	27	32	23	24	20	27	13	11									
Missed the company at work	10	12	12	13	13	14	18	17	12	9	9									
Wanted to work to be independent	16	10	6	10	8	11	11	11	12	7	10									
Found suitable childcare	7	14	10	10	8	11	11	5	13	9	8									
A longer break could have harmed career/business	9	12	3	9	10	5	7		11	8	6									
Other reason	7	5	5	4	3	5	8	4	3	6	5									
Was worried might lose their job if stayed away longer	4	4		4		4	4	2	7	4	2									
Got additional money from employer for returning at that time	1	3		3	1	3			3	1	1									
Found a new job that suited needs	2	1	1	1					1											
Condition of employer's maternity pay to return at that time	2	4		3		1			1	1	1									
Unweighted bases	154	153	77	137	74	129	96	109	134	77	108									

Continued

Table 5.4 Continued

Base: Mothers who returned to pre-birth job following birth

	Region										
	Yorkshire and Humberside %	South East %	North East %	East of England %	East Midlands %	West Midlands %	South West %	North West %	London %	Wales %	Scotland %
2008											
Needed the money	57	58	61	54	52	65	66	56	66	58	55
Maternity leave came to an end	41	35	44	48	44	37	42	44	43	59	50
Maternity pay came to an end	37	35	38	34	27	31	43	38	33	38	35
Enjoys working and was keen to return	27	33	11	38	13	29	30	22	25	16	17
Missed the company at work	8	14	9	16	7	15	13	10	17	8	8
Wanted to work to be independent	10	10	16	16	13	10	11	10	13	7	8
Found suitable childcare	8	13	6	14	11	5	13	7	7	6	5
A longer break could have harmed career/business	11	11	4	12	6	11	9	5	5	4	2
Was worried might lose their job if stayed away longer	4	7	4	10	3	5	4	4	7	5	4
Other reason	3	5	8	2	10	7	4	2	3	4	5
Got additional money from employer for returning at that time		3		1	1			2	1	2	1
Found a new job that suited needs	1	1			1		1		4		2
Condition of employer's maternity pay to return at that time		2			1						
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	112	169	73	120	89	152	126	143	102	61	139

Note: Multiple responses.

Table 5.5 Reasons for timing of return to work, by mother's age

Base: Mothers who returned to pre-birth job following birth

	Mother's age				
	Under 25 %	25-29 %	30-34 %	35-39 %	40 or above %
2006					
Needed the money	57	64	63	58	59
Maternity leave came to an end	62	53	45	40	49
Maternity pay came to an end	29	38	29	31	27
Enjoys working and was keen to return	22	18	24	29	15
Missed the company at work	20	11	15	11	6
Wanted to work to be independent	16	12	11	9	6
Found suitable childcare	5	10	11	11	7
A longer break could have harmed career/ business	1	4	10	9	13
Other reason	5	4	5	6	5
Was worried might lose their job if stayed away longer	6	3	4	2	3
Got additional money from employer for returning at that time		2	2	2	1
Found a new job that suited needs		1	1	1	
Condition of employer's maternity pay to return at that time		2	1	2	
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	118	266	440	330	94
2008					
Needed the money	57	65	59	56	54
Maternity leave came to an end	47	42	41	45	46
Maternity pay came to an end	34	44	36	31	24
Enjoys working and was keen to return	25	22	25	27	32
Missed the company at work	8	11	12	14	13
Wanted to work to be independent	10	14	11	10	8
Found suitable childcare	11	7	7	13	6
A longer break could have harmed career/ business	2	4	9	11	10
Was worried might lose their job if stayed away longer	5	5	7	4	7
Other reason	3	4	4	6	5
Got additional money from employer for returning at that time	1	2	1	1	
Found a new job that suited needs	1	1	1		2
Condition of employer's maternity pay to return at that time			1		
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	102	260	432	382	110

Note: Multiple responses.

Table 5.6 Reasons for timing of return to work, by mother's disability status*Base: Mothers who returned to pre-birth job following birth*

Reasons	2006		2008	
	Disability status		Disability status	
	Mother has disability %	No disability %	Mother has disability %	No disability %
Needed the money	67	60	65	58
Maternity leave came to an end	50	47	37	44
Maternity pay came to an end	37	31	30	35
Enjoys working and was keen to return	19	24	25	25
Missed the company at work	9	13	11	12
Wanted to work to be independent	9	11	10	11
Found suitable childcare	6	10	14	9
A longer break could have harmed career/business	8	8	10	8
Was worried might lose their job if stayed away longer	9	3	6	5
Other reason	3	5	5	5
Got additional money from employer for returning at that time	3	1	1	1
Found a new job that suited needs		1		1
Condition of employer's maternity pay to return at that time		1	2	0
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	<i>107</i>	<i>1,141</i>	<i>101</i>	<i>1,185</i>

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Multiple responses.

Table 5.7 Reasons for timing of return to work, by mother's ethnic background

Base: Mothers who returned to pre-birth job following birth

Reasons	2006			2008		
	Ethnic background			Ethnic background		
	White %	Non-white %	Total %	White %	Non-white %	Total %
Needed the money	47	54	47	43	47	43
Maternity leave came to an end	32	26	31	36	27	35
Maternity pay came to an end	2	3	2	1		1
Enjoys working and was keen to return	61	55	61	58	63	59
Missed the company at work	3	12	4	5	11	5
Wanted to work to be independent	8	7	8	8	6	8
Found suitable childcare	23	21	23	25	29	25
A longer break could have harmed career/business	13	11	13	12	12	12
Was worried might lose their job if stayed away longer	11	11	11	11	14	11
Other reason	1	1	1	1	2	1
Got additional money from employer for returning at that time	10	11	10	9	10	9
Found a new job that suited needs	1	2	1	0	1	0
Condition of employer's maternity pay to return at that time	5	3	5	5	3	5
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	<i>1,132</i>	<i>113</i>	<i>1,248</i>	<i>1,169</i>	<i>113</i>	<i>1,286</i>

Note: Multiple responses.

Mothers who had received OMP were asked whether this made a difference to the timing of their return to work (Table 5.8). Two-fifths of mothers in both years said that they could only afford to take time off while receiving OMP (41 per cent in both years), while a substantial proportion of mothers in both years also said that receiving OMP did not make a difference to the timing of when they returned to work (47 per cent in 2006 and 41 per cent in 2008). Approximately one in ten mothers reported being obliged, under their employer's scheme, to return to work at a certain time (ten per cent in 2006 and nine per cent in 2008).

Table 5.8 Perceived effect of receiving OMP on the timing of return to work*Base: Mothers who received OMP and returned to pre-birth job following birth*

Perceived effects	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
I could only afford to take time off while I was receiving OMP	41	41
Receiving OMP didn't make a difference to the time I returned to work	47	41
I was obliged under the scheme to return to work after a certain amount of time	10	9
Receiving OMP enabled me to take extra unpaid mat leave	1	5
Other	3	6
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	404	473

Note: Multiple responses.

5.3 Employment outcomes after the return from maternity leave

In this section we explore post-birth employment outcomes, by looking at the hourly pay, working hours, job status and supervisory responsibilities mothers had in their last pre-birth job and whether these had changed when they returned to work, after their child was born.

Comparing mothers' hourly earnings before and after the birth shows that the majority of mothers in both years returned to the same hourly pay range as they had been in prior to the birth, ranging from 65 per cent to 84 per cent of mothers in 2006 and from 66 per cent to 86 per cent of mothers in 2008 (Table 5.9). While a proportion of mothers did take a cut in hourly pay following maternity leave, this was the case for significantly fewer women who had babies in 2008 (eight per cent) compared with in 2006 (15 per cent; analysis not shown).

Table 5.9 Hourly gross earnings before and after birth

Hourly gross pay after birth	2006										2008													
	Less than £5					Hourly gross earnings before birth					Less than £5					Hourly gross earnings before birth								
	%	£5-£7.49	%	£7.50-£12.99	%	£13-£19.99	%	More than £20	Total	%	£5-£7.49	%	£7.50-£12.99	%	£13-£19.99	%	More than £20	Total	%					
Less than £5	69	21	12	12	12	9	21	21	66	4	3	1	2	8	2	2	8	21	66	4	3	1	2	8
£5-£7.49	23	65	4	4	2	22	22	20	20	77	6	1	1	22	1	1	22	22	20	77	6	1	1	22
£7.50-£12.99	5	13	76	4	1	31	31	7	7	16	78	7	3	33	7	3	33	31	7	16	78	7	3	33
£13-£19.99	1	0	7	74	4	17	17	3	3	2	11	79	8	24	79	8	24	17	3	2	11	79	8	24
More than £20	2	0	1	10	84	9	9	5	5	1	2	11	86	14	11	86	14	9	5	1	2	11	86	14
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	173	402	518	281	111	1,489	1,489	119	119	390	513	336	177	1,539	336	177	1,539	1,489	119	390	513	336	177	1,539

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Total bases exclude cases where information on after birth pay was missing.

It is well documented that childbearing tends to affect British women's careers, with a tendency for mothers to work part-time. Mothers who had worked less than full-time before the birth were highly likely to return to similar working hours after the birth (Table 5.10). However, only about half of mothers who had previously worked full-time returned to full-time work (50 per cent in 2006 and 56 per cent in 2008), with about two-fifths returning to long part-time hours (16-29 hours per week: 42 per cent in 2006 and 38 per cent in 2008).

Table 5.10 Weekly working hours before and after birth

Base: Mothers who returned to work

Weekly working hours after birth	2006				2008			
	Weekly working hours before birth				Weekly working hours before birth			
	1-15 hours %	16-29 hours %	30 or more hours %	Total %	1-15 hours %	16-29 hours %	30 or more hours %	Total %
1-15 hours	87	16	8	16	76	12	6	13
16-29 hours	9	77	42	49	19	81	38	48
30 or more hours	4	7	50	34	5	7	56	39
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	110	408	965	1,485	136	489	908	1,533

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Total bases exclude cases where information on hours after work was missing.

Tables 5.11 to 5.13 look at whether mothers returned to work post-birth, and if they did return to work whether they worked part-time or full-time hours upon their return, by their pre-birth working hours and the availability of flexible working arrangements in their pre-birth job. Part-time working includes both shorter (1-15 hours per week) and longer part time (16-29 hours per week).

Table 5.11 looks at the availability of part-time work by mothers pre-birth and post-birth employment and working hours. In both 2006 and 2008, among mothers who worked full time before birth, the proportion reporting that part-time work was available to them was higher among those who returned to work full-time and part-time than those who did not return to work. For example in 2008 57 per cent of mothers who had previously worked full-time and had returned to work full-time reported that part-time work was available to them as did 79 per cent of mothers who returned to part-time work and 45 per cent of mothers did not return to work.

In 2006 mothers who had previously worked part-time hours and returned to full-time work post-birth were least likely (50 per cent) to report that part-time work was available to them in the job they had before going on the maternity leave, compared with 64 per cent of mothers who did not return to work and 77 per cent of those who returned to part-time work (Table 5.11). However, in 2008, it was mothers who had worked part-time before birth and not returned to work who were the least likely to report that part-time hours were not available to them (59 per cent) compared with those who returned full-time (66 per cent) and those that returned part-time (73 per cent).

Table 5.11 Availability of part-time work, by return to work and working hours

<i>Base: All mothers</i>		
Return to work and working hours	Percentage with part-time available pre-birth	
	Pre-birth working hours	
	Part-time (1-29 hours)	Full-time (30 or more hours)
2006		
Non-returners	64	48
Part-time (1-29 hours)	77	81
Full-time (30 or more hours)	50	65
2008		
Non-returners	59	45
Part-time (1-29 hours)	73	79
Full-time (30 or more hours)	66	57
<i>Unweighted bases</i>		
2006	687	1,189
2008	808	1,127

Looking at whether flexible working hours were available (Table 5.12), the same pattern is visible in both 2006 and 2008, with a higher proportion of returning mothers reporting the availability of flexible working hours pre-birth than those mothers who did not return to work post-birth. For example in 2008, 58 per cent of mothers who were previously working full-time hours and had returned to full-time hours reported the availability of flexible hours pre-birth, as did 54 per cent of mothers who had previously worked full-time but returned to part-time hours. Conversely, 37 per cent of mothers who had previously worked full-time hours and did not return to work after birth reported that flexible working arrangements were available to them in their pre-birth job.

Table 5.12 Availability of flexible working arrangements, by return to work and working hours

<i>Base: All mothers</i>		
Return to work and working hours	Percentage with flexible working hours available pre-birth	
	Pre-birth working hours	
	Part-time (1-29 hours)	Full-time (30 or more hours)
2006		
Non-returners	44	38
Part-time (1-29 hours)	61	59
Full-time (30 or more hours)	43	58
2008		
Non-returners	38	37
Part-time (1-29 hours)	58	54
Full-time (30 or more hours)	48	58
<i>Unweighted bases</i>		
2006	687	1,189
2008	808	1,127

A high proportion of non-returning mothers reported no flexible working arrangements were available in their pre-birth job (Table 5.13); this is reported more often amongst mothers who were working full-time before birth. For example, in 2008 two-fifths (40 per cent) of mothers who were working full-time before birth and did not return to work post-birth reported that there were no flexible working arrangements available in their pre-birth job, compared with one-fifth (21 per cent) of those mothers who returned to work full-time and one-tenth (11 per cent) of mothers who returned to part-time work.

Overall this may suggest that the availability of flexible working arrangements in the pre-birth job relates to whether or not mothers choose to return to work after birth; a higher proportion of mothers who had flexible working arrangements available returned to work post-birth than those who did not return to work. This may suggest that the availability of these policies in the workplace may help facilitate mothers' return to work post-birth, however, an alternative explanation is that, again those who had already decided for unrelated reasons that they did not want to return to work were less likely to have sought information on these topics.

Table 5.13 No flexible working arrangements available, by return to work and working hours

<i>Base: All mothers</i>		
Return to work and working hours	Percentage with no flexible working arrangements available pre-birth	
	Pre-birth working hours	
	Part-time (1-29 hours)	Full-time (30 or more hours)
2006		
Non-returners	22	35
Part-time (1-29 hours)	10	9
Full-time (30 or more hours)	25	15
2008		
Non-returners	26	40
Part-time (1-29 hours)	13	11
Full-time (30 or more hours)	20	21
<i>Unweighted bases</i>		
2006	687	1,189
2008	808	1,127

When looking at full-time/part-time working hours before and after birth by region, a significant interaction effect was found showing that the effect of pre-birth working hours on post-birth working hours varied by region. In both years, mothers who had previously worked full-time were more likely to return to full-time work after the birth in London (61 per cent in 2006 and 65 per cent in 2008) than in the rest of the UK (48 per cent in 2006 and 54 per cent in 2008), however, the regional difference seems to have reduced slightly between the two years.

Table 5.14 Weekly hours worked before and after birth, by region

Base: Mothers who returned to work

Region	Weekly working hours after birth	2006			2008		
		Weekly working hours before birth			Weekly working hours before birth		
		Part-time (1-29 hours) %	Full-time (30 hours) %	Total %	Part-time (1-29 hours) %	Full-time (30+ hours) %	Total %
London	Part-time (1-29 hours)	98	39	56	98	35	52
	Full-time (30+ hours)	2	61	44	2	65	48
Rest of UK	Part-time (1-29 hours)	94	52	67	94	46	63
	Full-time (30+ hours)	6	48	33	6	54	37
Total	Part-time (1-29 hours)	94	50	66	93	44	61
	Full-time (30+ hours)	6	50	34	7	56	39
<i>Unweighted bases</i>							
London	46	109	155	35	81	116	
Rest of UK	472	856	1,330	542	777	1,319	
Total	518	965	1,485	625	908	1,533	

Note: Total bases exclude cases where information on hours after work was missing.

In both years nearly all mothers who returned to work returned to the same employment status after the birth, 99 per cent of mothers who had been employees prior to the birth returned to work as employees following the birth (in both 2006 and 2008). Similarly, 98 per cent of those who had been self-employed before the birth in 2006, and 94 per cent who had been self-employed before the birth in 2008 returned to self-employment after the birth.

Table 5.15 Employment status before and after birth

Base: Mothers who returned to work

Employee or self-employed after birth	2006			2008		
	Employment status			Employment status		
	Employee %	Self-employed %	Total %	Employee %	Self-employed %	Total %
Employee	99	2	95	99	6	95
Self-employed	1	98	5	1	94	5
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,439	52	1,491	1,485	60	1,545

Note: Column percentages.

Because of the small number of self-employed mothers it was not possible to explore regional differences in the employment status before and after birth.

Previous research has suggested evidence of loss of supervisory or management responsibilities following childbirth (Brewer and Paull, 2006). Our results show that having supervisory responsibilities after the return from maternity leave was strongly linked with having had supervisory responsibilities prior to the birth. In both years, nine out of ten mothers who had supervisory responsibilities prior to the birth also had such responsibilities after the birth (90 per cent in 2006 and 89 per cent in 2008). While approximately one-tenth of mothers who had supervisory responsibilities prior to the birth no longer did so after the birth (ten per cent in 2006 and 11 per cent in 2008), a similar proportion of women who had not had supervisory responsibilities prior to the birth had taken on such responsibilities on their return from maternity leave (eight per cent in 2006 and 11 per cent in 2008).

Table 5.16 Supervisory responsibilities before and after birth

Base: Mothers who returned to work and were employees before and after birth

Supervisory responsibilities after birth	2006			2008		
	Supervisory responsibilities before birth			Supervisory responsibilities before birth		
	Yes %	No %	Total %	Yes %	No %	Total %
Yes	90	8	37	89	11	36
No	10	92	63	11	89	64
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	482	759	1,423	448	793	1,468

Note: Column percentages.

5.4 Childcare support

In this section we look at the kind of formal and informal childcare²⁵ that families used following the mother's return to work. We first examine the non-parental childcare mothers regularly used, and then the support with childcare provided by partners and non-resident fathers.

Predictably, the overwhelming majority of working mothers (83 per cent in 2006 and 86 per cent in 2008) were using some form of childcare for the baby. However, among the families where the mother returned to work after maternity leave, the type of childcare used differed significantly by family status.

The questions about childcare asked of mothers who had given birth in 2008 varied slightly. The majority of respondents (interviewed in 2009, wave 1) were asked about the childcare they had used for the baby in the week before they were interviewed. However, mothers interviewed in 2010 (wave 2) were asked about the childcare they used for the baby throughout December 2009²⁶. In the previous survey, respondents were asked about a whole month and separately for each child (including the baby).²⁷

In both years, use of formal childcare, on its own or in combination with informal childcare, varied significantly by the mother's hourly earnings and her occupation. Use of formal childcare increased with earnings with 77 per cent of mothers earning more than £20 per hour doing so in 2008 (71 per cent in 2006). This can be compared with 30 per cent of mothers in 2006 and 25 per cent of mothers in 2008 in the lowest earnings bracket (less than £5 per hour) using formal childcare.

Similarly, in both years use of formal childcare was highest among managers (60 per cent in 2006 and 70 per cent in 2008) and professionals (67 per cent in 2006 and 70 per cent in 2008) and lowest among mothers in skilled, process and elementary occupations (28 per cent in 2006 and 24 per cent in 2008).

²⁵ The analysis separated childcare into the categories of formal childcare and informal childcare. Formal childcare includes nursery, childminder, playgroup, babysitter, nanny or au pair and Special Educational Need (SEN) nursery. Informal childcare includes grandparents, older siblings, ex-partners, other relatives and friends or neighbours.

²⁶ The reference period for wave two mothers was the whole month of December 2008, rather than one week in December 2009, as it was felt that it would be difficult for mothers to recall childcare use in a specific week in the previous year, hence, the reference period was extended to aid recall.

²⁷ For mothers who gave birth in 2006, our analysis is restricted to the childcare used for the baby.

Table 5.17 Childcare use, by mother's pre-birth hourly earnings

Type of childcare used for the baby in past week/month	2006										2008							
	Hourly gross pay before birth					Hourly gross pay before birth					Hourly gross pay before birth							
	Less than £5 %	£5-£7.49 %	£7.50-£12.99 %	£13-£19.99 %	More than £20 %	Total %	Less than £5 %	£5-£7.49 %	£7.50-£12.99 %	£13-£19.99 %	More than £20 %	Total %	Less than £5 %	£5-£7.49 %	£7.50-£12.99 %	£13-£19.99 %	More than £20 %	Total %
Formal childcare only	19	21	21	42	46	27	12	18	23	29	44	25						
Informal childcare only	45	47	37	27	15	37	52	44	38	26	13	34						
Formal and informal childcare	11	12	25	21	25	19	13	14	27	39	33	26						
No regular childcare used	24	21	16	9	14	17	23	24	13	7	10	14						
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	173	401	518	282	111	1,490	73	389	511	335	177	1,538						

Note: Mothers who used only 'other childcare' have been excluded from this table.

Table 5.18 Childcare use, by occupational group

Type of childcare used for the baby in past week/month	2006					2008				
	Occupation					Occupation				
	Managers and senior officials %	Professionals %	Associate professional and technical %	Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services %	Skilled, process and elementary occupations %	Managers and senior officials %	Professionals %	Associate professional and technical %	Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services %	Skilled, process and elementary occupations %
Formal childcare only	31	46	30	23	14	35	33	26	20	19
Informal childcare only	28	28	32	41	45	21	22	27	44	49
Formal and informal childcare	29	21	24	16	14	35	37	37	18	5
No regular childcare used	12	6	14	19	28	9	8	10	18	26
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	146	197	291	719	134	196	238	318	638	144

Note: Mothers who used only 'other childcare' have been excluded from this table.

In 2008 couple families were more likely than lone parents to use formal childcare (either on its own or in combination with informal childcare). Among families with a child born in 2008, 52 per cent of couple families used formal childcare while 46 per cent of lone parents did so. In 2006, the figures were 47 per cent and 48 per cent for couple families and lone parents, respectively (Table 5.19). This finding may reflect that either the cost or the inflexibility (or both) of formal childcare acts as a barrier to take-up among lone mothers with very young children. The use of formal childcare did not vary significantly by region.

Table 5.19 Childcare use, by family structure and region

Base: Mothers who returned to work

Type of childcare used for the baby in past week/month	2006				2008			
	Family structure		Region		Family structure		Region	
	Partnered parent %	Lone parent %	London %	Rest of UK %	Partnered parent %	Lone parent %	London %	Rest of UK %
Formal childcare only	27	29	39	26	26	21	26	25
Informal childcare only	36	43	35	37	33	43	31	35
Formal and informal childcare	20	19	10	21	26	25	25	26
No regular childcare used	18	8	15	17	15	11	17	14
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,287	203	157	1,333	1,373	164	123	1,415

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Mothers who used only 'other childcare' have been excluded from this table.

Among couple families where the mother returned to work after maternity leave, the type of childcare used differed significantly by the employment status of the mother's partner and by their earnings (Table 5.20).

In both years the use of formal childcare was more common in families where both parents were working. Around half of families where the partner was working used formal childcare (47 per cent in 2006 and 54 per cent in 2008), compared with 24 per cent and 26 per cent (in 2006 and 2008, respectively) of families where the partner was not working.

In both years the use of formal childcare increased with increasing partner earnings, with 69 per cent of families where the father earned in excess of £700 per week using formal childcare in 2006 and 70 per cent doing so in 2008.

Table 5.20 Childcare use, by partner circumstances

Base: Mothers in couple families who returned to work

Type of childcare used for the baby in past week/month	Partner in work			Father's current gross weekly earnings				Total %
	Yes %	No %	Less than £200 %	£200-389 %	£390-579 %	£580-769 %	£770+ %	
2006								
Formal childcare only	27	16	22	17	24	30	43	27
Informal childcare only	36	30	30	49	42	33	17	36
Formal and informal childcare	20	8	20	15	19	22	26	20
No regular childcare used	17	46	27	19	15	16	13	18
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,229	58	66	316	350	197	252	1,287
2008								
Formal childcare only	26	22	13	20	24	27	39	26
Informal childcare only	33	36	32	43	37	28	20	33
Formal and informal childcare	28	4	24	18	27	37	31	26
No regular childcare used	13	39	31	18	13	8	9	15
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,275	96	64	291	358	259	256	1,373

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Mothers who used only 'other childcare' have been excluded from this table.

A more detailed breakdown of type of childcare showed that use of different types of childcare has not changed between the two years. Grandparents were the most common source of childcare support in both years. About half of families in both years received regular help from the child's grandparents after the mother returned to work (50 per cent in 2006 and 54 per cent in 2008). Formal providers were almost always either nurseries (33 per cent in 2006 and 35 per cent in 2008), or childminders (12 per cent in 2006 and 14 per cent in 2008).

Table 5.21 Type of childcare used

Base: Mothers who returned to work

Childcare type	2006 %	2008 %
Formal childcare		
Nursery	33	35
Childminder	12	14
Playgroup	1	2
Babysitter	1	2
Nanny/au pair	1	1
SEN nursery		0
Informal childcare		
Grandparents	50	54
Other relatives	10	11
Friend or neighbour	4	5
Ex-partner	2	2
Older siblings	1	1
No childcare used	17	14
Other childcare	0	1
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	<i>1,491</i>	<i>1,545</i>

Note: Multiple responses.

5.5 Conclusion

The findings in this chapter show that the timing of the return to work after the birth was strongly affected by financial considerations, although a number of influences indicating an attachment to work also played a part.

While the majority of mothers returned to their pre-birth job, mothers' employment circumstances changed considerably after maternity leave. Many mothers reduced their working hours, typically moving from a full-time to a part-time position, with many working long part-time hours, but a minority also moving to short part-time hours.

A drop in hourly earnings post-birth was also experienced by a minority of mothers, a proportion which had decreased significantly since 2006. Previous research has shown that childbirth can result in other negative employment outcomes in addition to a reduction in earnings, including a loss of supervisory responsibilities (Brewer and Paull, 2006). There is very little evidence from this survey to support other evidence from other surveys about the loss of supervisory responsibilities. However, this might be due to the fact that we have only explored short-term employment outcomes, and these negative trends might be more likely to emerge from an analysis of longer-term outcomes.

Our results confirm the major role played by informal carers, and grandparents in particular, in providing childcare support for working families. About a third of families were using informal care only.

The bivariate analysis presented in this chapter suggests that couple families were much more likely to use formal childcare (on its own or in combination with informal childcare) than lone parents. Among couple families the use of formal childcare was more common when the father also worked, and in families with higher earning fathers. However, other research has shown that when child's age, income, number of children, ethnicity, SEN, and area deprivation level are controlled for, children of working lone parents were **more likely** to use formal childcare than those from couple families where both parents worked (Smith *et al.*, 2010). With regards to informal childcare, our findings on childcare use by family type is in line with other research which has consistently shown that lone mothers are more likely than two-parent families to rely on informal childcare, a choice that could partly reflect the difficulties this group faces in paying for formal childcare (e.g. Smith *et al.*, 2010).

6 Mothers who did not return to work after maternity leave

Mothers' employment choices are shaped by a complex interplay of factors, and qualitative research has long provided in-depth accounts of how various combinations of influences lead to different employment choices and experiences (Bell *et al.*, 2005; La Valle *et al.*, 2002; Skinner, 2003; Himmelweit and Sigala, 2004). However, only in recent years have large scale quantitative surveys been able to provide the necessary data to disentangle the effects of different influences on mothers' employment decisions. This led to the development of a new set of questions for the Families and Children Study (FACS), which explores the link between the choices and constraints influencing mothers' employment choices (Collins *et al.*, 2006). The same set of questions has been used in the past two waves of the current survey to explore the factors that have influenced mothers' decision to stay at home after the birth.

The analysis presented in this chapter explores how attitudes towards parenting and parental care interact with different obstacles to work experienced by different 'types' of mothers, and how the same outcome, i.e. staying at home after the birth, might have been determined by different combinations of attitudes and constraints.

In this chapter, we first describe our findings from a typology of non-returners based on the factors influencing their decisions around work. We then examine whether different 'types' of mothers differed by demographic and socio-economic characteristics. Lastly, we look at the kind of working arrangements that would have facilitated mothers' return to work.

6.1 Typology of mothers who did not return to work

We constructed a typology of mothers who did not return to work following previous work developed for FACS (D'Souza *et al.*, 2007), and reported for the previous wave of the Maternity Rights Survey (La Valle *et al.*, 2008). The aim of this approach was to classify mothers into different groups according to the factors influencing their decisions around work. Respondents were given a set of 20 cards with potential reasons for not wanting or not being able to work at the time of the interview²⁸ (see Box 6.1). They were then asked to think about their current situation and to place each statement into three piles, depending on whether each statement was a big factor, smaller factor or not a factor in their decision to stay at home. The answers to this card-sort exercise were used to identify clusters of non-returners, with similar barriers and attitudes towards work and family responsibilities.

Box 6.1 shows the 20 statements that mothers who did not return to work sorted according to whether they felt the statement represented a big, a small or no influence on their decision-making regarding work.

²⁸ Mothers interviewed in 2010 were asked about their reasons for not returning to work by December 2009.

Box 6.1: Statements regarding decision not to return to work

- 1 My child/children wouldn't like me to work
- 2 My parent/parents wouldn't like it if I worked
- 3 I would have problems with transport to and from work
- 4 There are few suitable job opportunities in the local area
- 5 I have difficulties due to my health condition or disability
- 6 My confidence is low at the moment
- 7 I want to look after my child(ren) myself or at home
- 8 I care for someone who has a health condition, disability or behavioural difficulties
- 9 I am worried I will not have enough time with my child(ren)
- 10 I haven't got the qualifications or experience to get the kind of job I would want
- 11 My husband/partner/ex-partner would not like it if I worked
- 12 I am not sure I would be financially better off in work
- 13 There isn't enough suitable, affordable childcare around here
- 14 I would need a job where I could take time off at short notice to look after my child(ren)
- 15 Employers aren't very family-friendly
- 16 My family or close friends are not able, or live too far away, to provide childcare
- 17 I am not prepared to leave my child(ren) in the care of anyone other than my family or close friends while I work
- 18 I am concerned about leaving the security of benefits
- 19 I have personal or family troubles that need to be sorted out
- 20 I don't need to work because we have enough money

We classified non-returners using information for the 492 mothers who were not in work at the time of the interview and who completed the card-sort exercise. We analysed this data using Latent Class Analysis (LCA), a statistical approach used to categorise individuals into different classes according to their responses to a series of questions. After examining several models with different numbers of clusters, we decided that a model with five clusters was the 'best' fit to the data (a detailed explanation of the methodology can be found in Appendix C).

This solution offered both the best statistical fit to the data and made substantive sense as the mothers' responses within each cluster were relatively homogenous. However, this solution did result in a very small class size for the fifth cluster (29 respondents). The implications of this small cluster size mean that the findings for this cluster should be treated with caution, it is also possible that this has affected the representativeness of the cluster sizes and that a smaller proportion of non-returning mothers in the population may fall under this category.

Perhaps unsurprisingly since a solution with the same number of clusters was found as for the previous survey, the clusters are very similar to those found for the mothers with babies born in 2006. This is true for both the reasons given by mothers in each cluster and socio-demographic characteristics of mothers.

The five clusters were initially labelled and described based on the responses to the card sort exercise (see Appendix D). The size of the clusters are presented in Table 6.1, followed by a short description of each cluster.

Table 6.1 Typology of mothers who did not return to work, size of clusters

Base: Mothers who did not return to work and completed the card-sort exercise.

	2006		2008	
	Column per cent	Unweighted cluster size	Column per cent	Unweighted cluster size
1. Job and childcare obstacles	23	113	34	179
2. Family oriented, some obstacles	35	172	28	140
3. Carer by choice	21	105	17	75
4. Few obstacles	13	65	15	69
5. Multiple obstacles	7	33	6	29
Total		488		492

6.1.1 Cluster 1: Job and childcare obstacles

These mothers particularly expressed concerns about the affordability of a return to work and the suitability of local jobs and childcare. Wanting to care for their child(ren) themselves also played at least a small role in their decision. This was the largest cluster among mothers who gave birth in 2008, with 34 per cent of mothers belonging to this group. This is higher than in 2006 when slightly less than a quarter (23 per cent) of mothers were in this cluster.

6.1.2 Cluster 2: Family oriented, some obstacles

These mothers were very strongly family oriented, unanimously expressing a desire to care for their own children and not miss out on time with the children by working. These mothers also expressed some concern about the (formal) childcare locally and a preference for informal childcare. A feature of their decision was also the perception that any job they did take would need to fit around family responsibilities by allowing time off at short notice. The proportion of mothers belonging to this cluster has decreased from 35 per cent in 2006 to 28 per cent in 2008.

6.1.3 Cluster 3: Carer by choice

These mothers also had a strong preference for caring for their children themselves and did not seem to face financial constraints or any job obstacles. For this group of mothers the decision not to return to work seemed to result from an unconstrained personal choice.

6.1.4 Cluster 4: Few obstacles

For this group of mothers none of the factors stood out as defining their motivation to stay at home or as obstacles to returning to work. As with the mothers in the other clusters, the majority of these mothers did cite a desire to care for their child(ren) themselves as being a small or a big factor in their decision. However, the proportion reporting this was smaller than in the other clusters and for all other statements the majority of mothers in this cluster reported that the statement was not a factor influencing their decision.

6.1.5 Cluster 5: Multiple obstacles

Mothers in this cluster did express a preference for caring for their children themselves and not missing out on time with the children. However, these mothers also reported having caring responsibilities or health problems and reported the majority of the other statements as influencing their decision, including the statements regarding their partner and parents not approving of their working. These statements were rarely reported as influencing factors by mothers in the other clusters.

In order to facilitate the interpretation of the five clusters, the responses to the 20 statements were divided into three groups: responses regarding attitudes towards parental care and difficulties with childcare, responses regarding work-related issues and responses regarding other statements. We begin the description of the five clusters by looking at statements associated with parental care and difficulties in accessing childcare.

Table 6.2 presents the most important factor in mothers' decision for not working by cluster²⁹, which allows us to confirm our interpretation of the different clusters. Firstly, we observe that 31 per cent of all non-returners identified wanting to look after their children as the most important factor for not returning to work. Moreover, for most clusters (except for clusters 1 and 5) this was the most commonly cited most important factor. If we examine this figure by cluster, we notice clear differences, with cluster 3 having the largest (64 per cent) and cluster 1 the smallest (nine per cent) proportion choosing this statement as the most important factor.

Mothers in cluster 1 (**job and childcare obstacles**) predominantly identified financial concerns as most important: mothers in this cluster were particularly prone to identify not being financially better-off in work as most important (20 per cent), followed by lack of suitable and affordable childcare (13 per cent) and needing a job that fitted around family responsibilities (ten per cent).

Mothers in cluster 2 (**family oriented, some obstacles**) were more likely to report statements related with parental care (41 per cent) and lack of time with the children (15 per cent) as the most important factors. However, one in ten (11 per cent) considered that they would not be financially better-off in work as the most important factor.

The majority of mothers in cluster 3 (**carer by choice**) identified the same statement as the most important factor: wanting to look after my children myself (64 per cent). In addition, the results show that mothers in this group were not worried about childcare, work-related issues, or other family concerns. Thus, it seems clear that this group of women was not working because they chose to stay at home to take care of their children.

For mothers in cluster 4 (**few obstacles**), 25 per cent considered looking after their children as the most important factor, 19 per cent stated their lack of qualifications and 16 per cent stated a lack for suitable jobs was the main reason for not returning to work.

For mothers in cluster 5 (**multiple obstacles**), we observe substantial variation in the responses; 14 per cent of these mothers were not prepared to leave their child(ren) and 12 per cent wanted to stay at home to care for their child(ren), however, 11 per cent also reported health problems and ten per cent reported low confidence as the main factor.

²⁹ It is worth noting that when respondents had placed only one statement in the 'big factor' group, this statement was considered as the most important one. However, when respondents had put more than one card in the 'big factor' pile, they were asked to identify the most important one.

Table 6.2 The most important factor for not working, by cluster

Base: Mothers who did not return to work and completed the card-sort exercise

Which of the big factors for not working is the most important?	Typology of mother who did not return to work					Total %
	1. Job and childcare obstacles %	2. Family oriented, some obstacles %	3. Carer by choice %	4. Few obstacles %	5. Multiple obstacles %	
My child/children wouldn't like me to work			1			0
I would have problems with transport to and from work	3				[5]	1
There are few suitable job opportunities in the local area	6	2	1	16	[7]	5
I have difficulties due to my health condition or disability	3	1		4	[11]	2
My confidence is low at the moment	2	1			[10]	2
I want to look after my child/children myself or at home	9	41	64	25	[12]	31
I care for someone who has a health condition, disability or behavioural difficulties	2	2		9	[6]	3
I am worried I will not have enough time with my child/children	4	15	3	12	[5]	8
I haven't got the qualifications or experience to get the kind of job I would want	6			19		3
My husband/partner/ex-partner would not like it if I worked			2			0
I am not sure I would be financially better off in work	20	11	7		[5]	12
There isn't enough suitable, affordable childcare around here	13	4	1		[3]	6
I would need a job where I could take time off at short notice to look after my child/children	10	4	1	10	[6]	6
Employers aren't very family-friendly	1	1				0

Continued

Table 6.2 Continued

Base: Mothers who did not return to work and completed the card-sort exercise

Which of the big factors for not working is the most important?	Typology of mother who did not return to work					Total %
	1. Job and childcare obstacles %	2. Family oriented, some obstacles %	3. Carer by choice %	4. Few obstacles %	5. Multiple obstacles %	
My family or close friends are not able, or live too far away, to provide childcare	4	1	5		[8]	3
I am not prepared to leave my child/children in the care of anyone other than my family or close friends while I work	4	7	4		[14]	5
I am concerned about leaving the security of benefits	1	1				1
I have personal or family troubles that need to be sorted out	2					1
I don't need to work because we have enough money			1			0
No one factor is most important	3	4	5	2	[6]	4
Two or more factors are most important	7	7	4	4	[2]	6
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	<i>179</i>	<i>140</i>	<i>75</i>	<i>69</i>	<i>29</i>	<i>492</i>

Note: Column percentages.

Results in this section suggest that among non-returners there were different combinations of factors that influenced decisions about work. The decision to stay at home among mothers in clusters 2 and 5 was influenced by a strong disposition towards parental care, but also by a preference for and non-availability of informal childcare. For mothers in cluster 1, lack of formal or informal childcare seemed to have been a key factor preventing them from returning to work. Mothers in cluster 3 had a strong disposition towards parental care, which seemed to have mainly determined their decision to stay at home. The decision to stay at home among mothers in cluster 4 did not seem to have been influenced by lack of childcare nor by a strong disposition towards parental care.

6.2 Demographic and socio-economic characteristics by mothers' typology

In this section we present the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of non-returners in different clusters. Our aim is to identify possible differences between clusters according to key background characteristics. This descriptive analysis complements the findings from the previous section, allowing a better insight into the interpretation of clusters.

Before describing the relationships between background characteristics and cluster membership, it is worth recalling that the sample sizes are not large, especially for cluster 5 (29 cases). Thus, these associations should be treated with caution.

We begin by looking at how the mothers in the different clusters defined their activity status (Table 6.3). While the vast majority of mothers in all clusters reported their activity status as ‘Looking after the home or family’, being in education or training and job seeking varied significantly by cluster membership.

Mothers in clusters 1 and 4 were more likely to report being in education or training, with 15 per cent and 20 per cent of mothers in these clusters citing this activity status, respectively, compared with six per cent of mothers in both clusters 2 and 3 and no one in cluster 5.

Mothers in clusters 1 (28 per cent), 4 (23 per cent) and 5 (20 per cent) were more likely to be looking for work, compared with nine per cent and seven per cent of mothers in clusters 2 and 3, respectively.

Table 6.3 Activity status by cluster

Base: Mothers who did not return to work and completed the card-sort exercise

Activity status	Typology of mother who did not return to work					Total %
	1. Job and childcare obstacles %	2. Family oriented, some obstacles %	3. Carer by choice %	4. Few obstacles %	5. Multiple obstacles %	
Looking after the home or family	93	96	98	84	[92]	93
Looking for work	28	9	7	23	[20]	18
In education or training	15	6	6	20		11
Voluntary or unpaid work	6	2	2	5		4
Caring for a sick or disabled child	2	3		8	[6]	3
Caring for a sick, elderly or disabled person	0	5		3	[8]	2
Temporarily sick/disabled	2	3		2	[3]	2
Permanently sick/disabled	1	0		3	[13]	2
Waiting to take up/start a job						
Other		2	1	4	[6]	2
None	1					0
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	179	140	75	69	29	492

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Multiple responses.

Looking at the background characteristics of the mothers reveals that the clusters differed by the types of mothers that belonged to them. Characteristics that varied significantly by cluster membership included: family status, mother’s age and level of education, household income, household disability status (Table 6.4).

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- Overall, over a third of non-returners were lone mothers (35 per cent) but about half of mothers in clusters 1 and 5 were lone mothers (Figure 6.1 illustrates family structure across the five clusters).
- About half of non-returners (53 per cent) overall were aged under 30, however, the majority of mothers in clusters 1 and 5 fell into this age group (66 per cent and 69 per cent, respectively), while only just over a quarter of mothers in cluster 3 did (27 per cent).
- Thirty-seven per cent of non-returners held educational qualifications equivalent to a first degree or higher (NVQ4+), however, among mothers in cluster 3 over half of mothers (54 per cent) were educated to this level.
- Over half of non-returners lived in households with an income below £390 per week. However, only just over a quarter of mothers in cluster 3 did (27 per cent), while nearly three-quarters of mothers in cluster 5 (72 per cent) did so. (Figure 6.2 illustrates how gross weekly income varies across the five clusters.)
- The majority of mothers in all clusters lived in households with no disabled family members. However, only ten per cent of mothers in cluster 3 lived in a household with one or more disabled family member, while nearly two-fifths of mothers in cluster 5 did so (38 per cent).

Table 6.4 Demographic characteristics, by cluster

Base: Mothers who did not return to work and completed the card-sort exercise

Characteristics	Typology of mother who did not return to work					Total %
	1. Job and childcare obstacles %	2. Family oriented, some obstacles %	3. Carer by choice %	4. Few obstacles %	5. Multiple obstacles %	
Family status						
Partnered parent	53	69	91	61	[50]	65
Lone parent	47	31	9	39	[50]	35
Number of children aged 14 or under in household						
1	53	63	57	65	[64]	59
2	31	24	33	27	[34]	29
3 or more	16	12	10	8	[2]	12
Age profile of children in household						
Pre-school children only	85	87	89	87	[88]	86
Pre-school and school aged children	15	13	11	13	[12]	14
Age of mother						
Under 25	41	25	13	32	[22]	29
25-29	25	24	14	27	[47]	24
30-34	18	27	32	25	[16]	24
35-39	13	18	32	14	[9]	17
40 or above	3	7	8	2	[7]	5
Mother's highest educational level						
NVQ 4+	30	39	54	30	[34]	37
NVQ 3	26	24	14	24	[17]	22
NVQ 1-2	37	34	31	35	[43]	36
No qualifications	6	3	1	8		4
Unspecified level	1			2	[6]	1
Gross weekly household income						
Under £200	37	34	6	35	[41]	30
£200-£389	29	27	21	24	[31]	27
£390-£579	14	17	24	14	[21]	17
£580-£769	8	10	10	10		9
£770+	12	13	39	18	[6]	18
Whether someone in family has disability						
No	75	73	90	74	[62]	76
Yes	25	27	10	26	[38]	24
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	166	130	74	61	27	458

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Base sizes vary, smallest bases shown.

Figure 6.1 Family status, by cluster

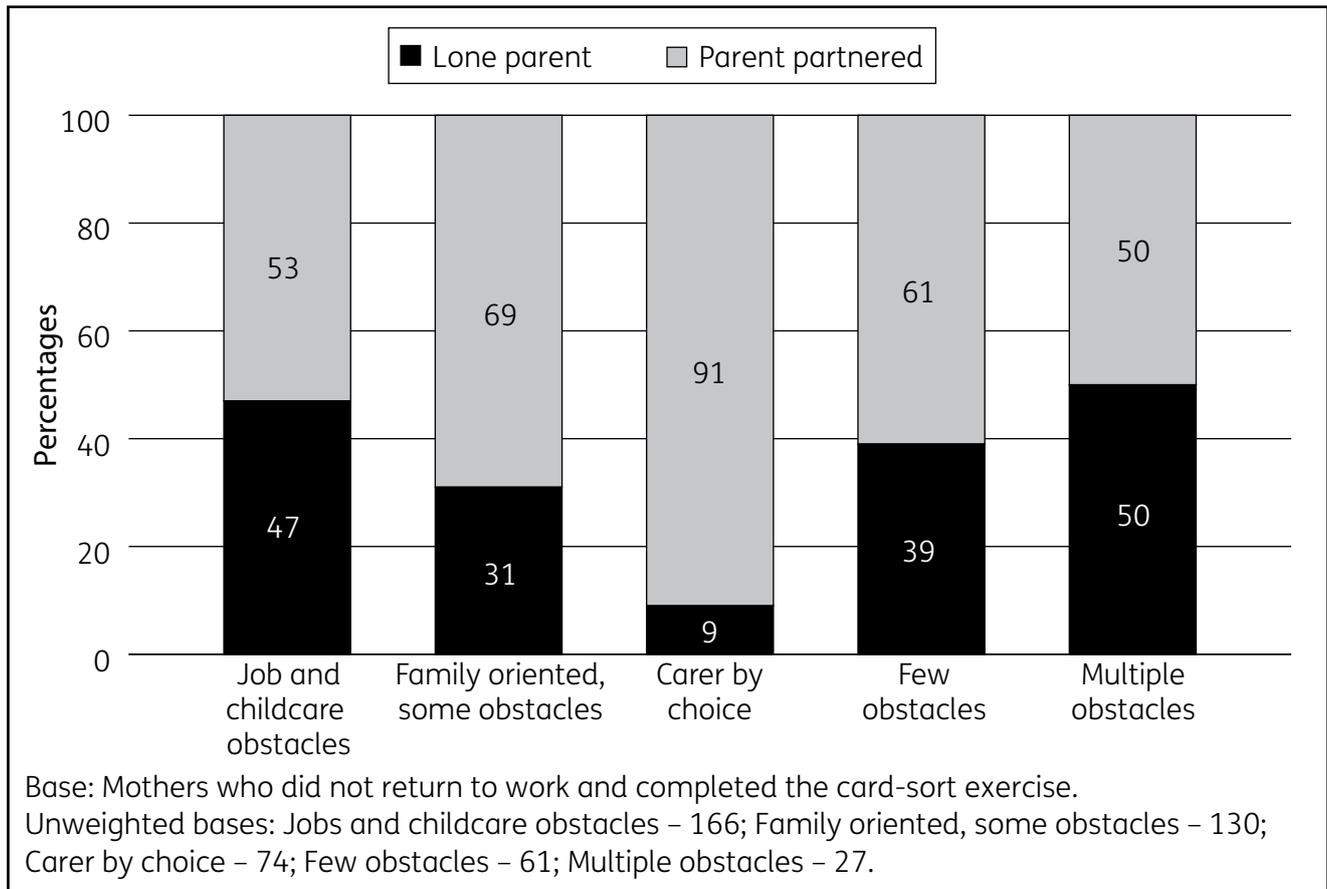
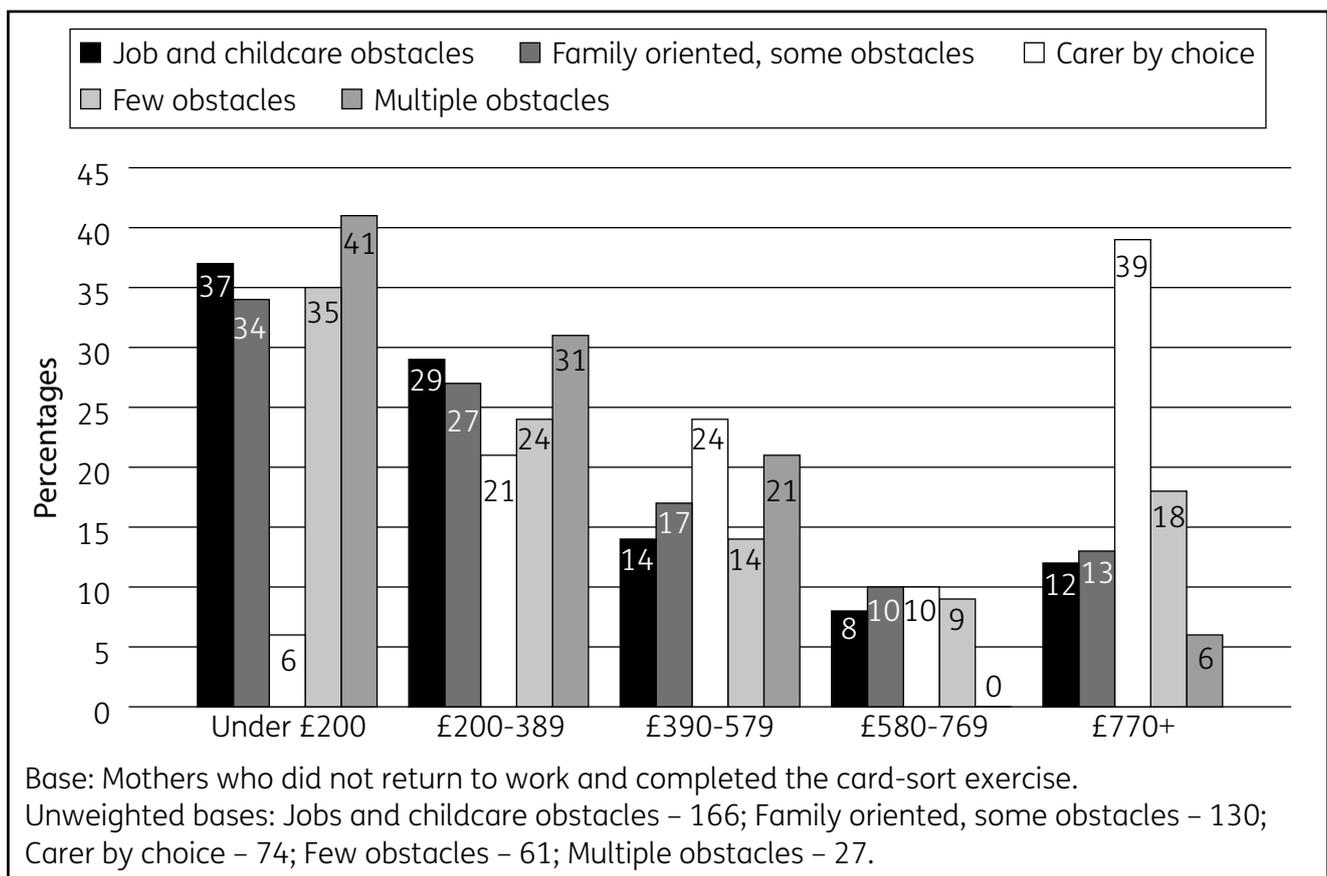


Figure 6.2 Gross weekly income, by cluster



Finally, we looked to examine what alterations in working arrangements might have made a return to work more likely for the mothers in each of the clusters. Unfortunately, not enough mothers in each of the clusters had answered this question to present these findings by cluster membership. Instead, we investigated these questions for all mothers who were employees before the birth and did not return to work after their maternity leave (Table 6.5). There were no significant changes over time when comparing the mothers who gave birth in 2006 with those who gave birth in 2008. Interestingly, over two-fifths of mothers who did not return to work in both years stated that no changes to working arrangements would have made a return to work more likely (46 per cent in 2006 and 43 per cent in 2008), despite only about one-fifth of non-returning mothers being allocated to the ‘carer by choice’ cluster in each of the years (22 per cent in 2006 and 17 per cent in 2008). This suggests that changes that employers can implement are often insufficient to overcome other internal and external constraints on combining employment and parenting responsibilities perceived by mothers of young children.

Table 6.5 Working arrangements that would have facilitated a return to work

Base: Mothers who were employees before birth and did not return to work.

	2006	2008
If flexible working hours was offered	20	21
If part-time work was offered	16	21
If working hours that suited needs was offered	25	24
If help with childcare was offered	28	22
If home-working some/all of the time was offered	19	15
If re-training was offered	3	5
Other	4	6
No changes would have made return more likely	46	43
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	173	159

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Multiple responses.

6.3 Summary of the five clusters

Characterising the clusters by the types of mothers who were most likely to belong to each cluster and their answers to the questions regarding the most important factor in their decision to return to work and their activity status, can aid our initial interpretation of the clusters. Therefore, we revisit our original outline description of the clusters to form a more in-depth interpretation of the typology of mothers who did not return to work after maternity leave.

6.3.1 Cluster 1: Job and childcare obstacles

Half of the mothers in this cluster were lone mothers. The mothers in this cluster were also particularly likely to be young mothers, with about two-fifths (41 per cent) being aged under 25. With fewer than one in ten of these mothers stating that their preference for caring for their children themselves was the most important factor and a fifth of these mothers stating that they were not sure they would be financially better off in work as well as a significant proportion of mothers reportedly being in education and/or looking for work (15 per cent and 20 per cent respectively), there are indications that for this group of mothers, staying at home was not through choice but

because of perceived external obstacles, mainly financial concerns. This cluster accounts for a third of non-returning mothers (34 per cent).

6.3.2 Cluster 2: Family oriented, some obstacles

While not the largest cluster of non-returners, the mothers in this cluster stood out as having a profile of background characteristics that, on average, was very similar to the profile of background characteristics of non-returning mothers overall. The mothers in this cluster were unlikely to be looking for work, with fewer than one-tenth of members of this cluster citing this as one of their activities, and they were, thus, best characterised simply by their strong orientation towards parental care. All of the mothers in this cluster stated that their desire to look after their children themselves and their worry about not having enough time with their children were big factors influencing their decision not to return to work, while half (49 per cent) stated that they were not prepared to leave their children in the care of anyone other than close family or friends. Over a fifth of non-returning mothers (28 per cent) belonged to this cluster.

6.3.3 Cluster 3: Carer by choice

The vast majority of mothers in this cluster had a partner and lived in households without any disabled family members (91 per cent and 90 per cent, respectively). These mothers were more likely to be aged over 30 (72 per cent) and to be highly educated, with over half (54 per cent) holding degree level or equivalent educational qualifications. A substantial proportion (39 per cent) of these mothers lived in households with a weekly income of £700 or more per week, which is reflected in the high proportion of mothers in this cluster who stated that having enough money not to need to work was a big (29 per cent) or a smaller (24 per cent) factor in their decision not to return to work. The absence of financial constraints combined with the low proportion of mothers in this cluster citing job seeking as one of their activities at the time of the interview (seven per cent) and the fact that mothers in this cluster were also particularly likely to cite their desire to look after their children as the main factor in their decision (64 per cent), supports the earlier assertion that mothers in this cluster were able to freely choose to become stay-at-home mothers. This cluster accounts for 17 per cent of all mothers who did not return to work following the birth.

6.3.4 Cluster 4: Few obstacles

The profile of background characteristics of mothers in this cluster was very similar to that of non-returning mothers overall. A fifth (20 per cent) of mothers cited education, while 23 per cent of mothers cited job seeking, as activities they engaged in at the time of the interview, in addition to looking after the home or family. However, overall, this cluster of mothers was most clearly distinguished from the others by the lack of identified factors influencing their work decision. Fifteen per cent of non-returners belong to this cluster.

6.3.5 Cluster 5: Multiple obstacles

Mothers in this cluster were more likely than others to live in a household where at least one family member had a disability (38 per cent). A similar proportion of mothers lived in households with an income in the lowest income bracket (41 per cent). Half of the mothers (50 per cent) in this cluster were lone mothers. A large majority of the mothers in this cluster were aged under 30 (69 per cent). A high proportion of mothers in this cluster stated that their partner's or ex-partner's (65 per cent) and parents' (59 per cent) disapproval of their working was either a big or a smaller factor influencing their decision. Mothers in this cluster were highly likely to be in favour of informal childcare; 64 per cent stating that not being prepared to leave their children in the care of anyone other than close family or friends was a big factor and 14 per cent stating that this was the most

important factor. They stated a number of job-related obstacles, including problems with transport to and from work, being a big factor for 57 per cent of mothers and needing a job that would allow time off at short notice being a big factor for 71 per cent. However, the defining feature of this cluster, in comparison with the others, is the large number of 'other' factors that play a role in their decision. The majority of mothers in this cluster cited the following as a big or smaller factor: their own health condition (78 per cent); personal or family trouble (75 per cent); concerns about leaving the security of benefits (72 per cent) and caring responsibilities (56 per cent). Six per cent of non-returning mothers belonged to this cluster and the small size of the cluster needs to be borne in mind (29).

6.4 Conclusion

This chapter has shown that the factors influencing mothers' decision to stay at home differ substantially among different 'types' of non-returners. We identified five distinct clusters with different attitudes towards parental care and childcare, and facing different constraints on their decision whether to return to work. We observed important variations between clusters according to their socio-demographic profile.

A third of mothers faced **job and childcare obstacles** (cluster 1) and the main factors associated with these mothers' decision to stay at home were work-related and childcare obstacles. These mothers reported a low orientation towards parental care. In terms of the socio-demographic profile, this group was younger than others and nearly half of the mothers were lone parents.

For mothers in cluster 2 (**family oriented, some obstacles**) the most important factor for not returning to work was a strong disposition towards parental care, followed by difficulties associated with childcare and fitting employment around family responsibilities. The socio-demographic profile of this group was close to the average of all non-returners.

For the great majority of mothers in cluster 3 (**carer by choice**) looking after their children was by far the most important factor for staying at home. These mothers were more likely than others to be living with a partner, be older, be highly qualified, and be in the top income category.

A minority of mothers belonged to clusters 4 (**few obstacles**) or 5 (multiple obstacles). Mothers in cluster 4 reported few factors as being obstacles to work. They showed a lower disposition towards parental care and reported few work-related difficulties. Mothers in this cluster were more likely than others (with the exception of cluster 1) to cite job seeking or education as one of their current activities. Conversely, mothers in cluster 5 faced multiple internal and external constraints on working, including lacking confidence and both job and childcare obstacles, and also showed a preference for parental care. This group of mothers was more likely than others (except cluster one) to be lone mothers, to have low educational qualifications and to have health problems.

7 Family-friendly arrangements

There are a number of government policies which support working parents and one of the aims of the current survey was to explore the accessibility and take-up of family-friendly arrangements among mothers who returned to work after birth. At the time of the survey, parents had a statutory right to some of the arrangements explored by the survey, including:

- parents with children under the age of six³⁰ or with a disabled child under the age of 18 had the right to request a flexible working pattern³¹, which could be requested by employees who had worked continuously for their employer for 26 weeks;
- the right to parental leave of 13 weeks (in total, not per year) for each child, up to their fifth birthday (or up to five years after the placement date of an adopted child) and 18 weeks for each disabled child, up to the child's 18th birthday for those employees who had worked for the same employer for a year;
- emergency time off for dependants which is available to all employees regardless of their length of service.

In addition to these statutory entitlements, the survey also investigated the accessibility and take-up of non-statutory arrangements, such as childcare support. While employers do not have an obligation to provide these, they are encouraged to do so, with incentives (in the form of National Insurance (NI) and tax exemptions) available to employers who provide childcare support such as workplace day nurseries and childcare vouchers.

The first part of the chapter provides an overview of mothers' access to, and take-up of, different family-friendly arrangements in their first post-birth job. The next section explores how the availability of these arrangements varied according to employer's characteristics, type of job and mothers' socio-demographic profile.

Throughout the chapter differences in the availability and take-up of family friendly arrangements between mothers who gave birth in 2006 and those who gave birth in 2008 are noted, where these differences are significant.

7.1 Overview of access and take-up of family-friendly arrangements

A very wide range of these arrangements were explored by the survey, in the analysis these have been grouped into three broad categories:

- **Flexible working arrangements** which include: part-time work, term-time work, job-share, flexible working hours, reduced hours for an agreed period, shifts to meet an employee's needs and home working.

³⁰ From 6 April 2010 the right to request flexible working was extended to parents with a child under the age of 17.

³¹ While employers do not have to agree to requests for flexible work patterns, they have a duty to give them serious consideration and can only reject them on set business grounds.

- **Childcare and other support** which comprises: childcare vouchers, workplace childcare, other childcare supported by the employer, help with finding childcare, access to a telephone for family reasons, career breaks for family reasons and retraining on return from maternity leave.
- **Family leave** which covers: paid and unpaid parental leave and paid and unpaid time off for family emergencies³².

The different types of arrangements available to and used by mothers in their first post-birth job are explored in turn in the rest of the section.

7.1.1 Flexible working arrangements

Looking at the number of flexible working arrangements available in mothers' first post-birth job, Table 7.1, we find that:

- 12 per cent said that none of the working arrangements discussed above were available in their workplace;
- 17 per cent of mothers had access to only one of these arrangements;
- 18 per cent had access to two arrangements;
- just over half (51 per cent) had access to three or more of the flexible working arrangements discussed above.

There was no statistically significant difference in the number of flexible working arrangements in 2008 compared with 2006.

As discussed in Chapter 5, the majority of mothers in our sample (87 per cent) had returned to their pre-birth job and therefore, had been with their employer long enough to be entitled to request flexible work patterns. Yet only around half of mothers said that a variety (i.e. three or more) of flexible working arrangements were available. This may reflect both a genuine lack of access and lack of awareness among mothers.

³² While the legislation mentions time off for dependants, in the survey mothers were asked about emergency leave which was defined as '*Leave available for a range of family emergencies*'.

Table 7.1 Number of available flexible working arrangements in first post-birth job

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

Number of flexible working arrangements available	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
None	10	12
One	17	17
Two	21	18
Three or more	53	51
Don't know ¹	0	1
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,423	1,468

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Excludes three cases that were employees in the first post-birth job, but were not routed to these questions due to inconsistencies in their answers.

¹ Mothers who gave 'Don't know' answers to questions about flexible working arrangements have been excluded from other flexible working tables in this chapter.

As found by previous research (e.g. Dex and Ward, 2007; Hooker, H. *et al.* 2006), Table 7.2 shows that part-time work was the most widely offered flexible working arrangement: in 2008, 72 per cent of mothers had access to part-time work and 58 per cent of those who said they had access to these arrangements had taken up the opportunity to work part-time after returning to work. Sixty per cent of mothers said flexible working hours were available in their first post-birth job, but only 38 per cent of mothers with access had made use of this arrangement. Other arrangements were considerably less common, for example:

- job-share and reduced hours for an agreed period were available to around one-third of mothers and only around one in ten of mothers who said that they had access to these forms of family-friendly working arrangements had made use of them;
- working shifts to suit an employee's needs, home-working part of the time and school-term work were available to between a fifth and quarter of mothers and used by few.

It is clear from Table 7.2 that the pattern of availability and use of flexible working arrangements has not changed between 2006 and 2008. For example, in both 2006 and 2008, the most commonly available and used types of flexible working were part-time work and flexible working hours.

Table 7.2 Availability and use of flexible working arrangements in first post-birth job

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job ('available' column)
Mothers who had access to any flexible arrangement in their first post-birth job ('used, mothers with access' column)
Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job ('used, all employed mothers' column)

Multiple response	2006			2008		
	Available %	Used, mothers with access %	Used, all employed mothers %	Available %	Used, mothers with access %	Used, all employed mothers %
Part-time work	75	61	54	72	58	50
Flexible working hours	61	39	35	60	38	33
Reduced hours for an agreed period	38	12	11	36	12	10
Job-share	35	8	7	32	9	8
Working shifts to meet an employee's needs	26	11	10	27	13	11
Working at home/from home sometimes	23	13	11	24	14	13
School-term work	21	4	3	20	5	5
Working at home/from home all the time	5	2	1	7	2	2
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,423	1,278	1,423	1,452	1,283	1,453

Note: Multiple responses.

Note: Excludes three cases who were employees in the first post-birth job, but were not routed to these questions due to inconsistencies in their answers.

7.1.2 Childcare and other support

Less than one-fifth of mothers (18 per cent) said they had no access to any of the childcare or other types of support discussed in Section 7.1, one-fifth (21 per cent) had access to one of these, a similar proportion (20 per cent) had access to two, while the largest group (40 per cent) had access to three or more types of childcare and other support (Table 7.3).

There was a significant increase in the number of childcare support arrangements available to mothers since 2006. In 2006, 29 per cent of mothers said that there were three or more childcare support arrangements available to them; this had increased to 40 per cent by 2008.

Table 7.3 Number of available childcare and other support arrangements in first post-birth job

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

Number of childcare and other support arrangements	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
None	22	18
One	26	21
Two	22	20
Three or more	29	40
Don't know ¹	1	1
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,423	1,468

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Excludes three cases who were employees in the first post-birth job, but were not routed to these questions due to inconsistencies in their answers.

¹ Mothers who gave 'Don't know' answers to questions about childcare and other support arrangements have been excluded from other childcare and other support tables in this chapter.

The results in Table 7.4 confirm the findings from other research (Smith *et al.*, 2010) and show that childcare vouchers were widely available in 2008: 54 per cent of mothers said they could request these and over a quarter of mothers with access to childcare and other support (30 per cent) were using childcare vouchers. Since 2006 there has been a significant increase in both the availability and the usage of childcare vouchers, with 40 per cent of mothers having access to childcare vouchers in 2006 and 19 per cent of mothers using them.

Other types of support with childcare were less common: only eight per cent of mothers said they had access to workplace childcare and four per cent of them used it; help from the employer to find childcare was only mentioned by four per cent of mothers and used by only one per cent of those who said they had access to childcare and other support.

Nearly half of mothers reported having access to the Keep In Touch (KIT) schemes during maternity leave with around a quarter of all mothers making use of KIT schemes. There has been a significant increase in the availability and use of these schemes since 2006: the availability of these schemes increased from 21 per cent to 46 per cent and the usage increased from nine per cent of mothers in 2006 to 23 per cent of mothers in 2008.

Table 7.4 Availability and use of childcare and other support arrangements in first post-birth job

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job ('available' column)

Mothers who had access to any childcare and other support arrangement in their first post-birth job ('used, mothers with access' column)

Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job ('used, all employed mothers' column)

Multiple response	2006			2008		
	Available %	Used, mothers with access %	Used, all employed mothers %	Available %	Used, mothers with access %	Used, all employed mothers %
Access to telephone for family reasons	57	51	40	54	40	36
Childcare vouchers or other help with paying for childcare	40	19	14	54	30	19
KIT scheme during maternity leave	21	9	7	46	23	13
Re-training on return from maternity leave	22	13	10	28	16	11
Career breaks for family reasons	22	2	1	21	2	2
Workplace childcare	11	4	3	8	4	3
Help in finding childcare	6	1	1	4	1	1
Other childcare supported by employer	2	1	0	2	0	0
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,423	1,096	1,423	1,455	1,177	1,454

Note: Multiple responses.

7.1.3 Family leave

While all mothers were entitled to (unpaid) emergency leave and most were entitled to (unpaid) parental leave, in 2008 20 per cent said neither of these were available in their workplace (Table 7.5) (it should be noted that this could also reflect lack of awareness on the part of some mothers). However, 34 per cent had access to one type of family leave arrangement, 26 per cent had access to two and 15 per cent had access to three or more of these arrangements. Just over half (53 per cent) of mothers who had access to some type of family leave said they had used this since coming back to work after the birth (Table not shown). This pattern of availability and usage did not change between 2006 and 2008.

Table 7.5 Number of available family leave arrangements in first post-birth job*Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job*

Number of family leave arrangements	Year baby was born	
	2006 %	2008 %
None	19	20
One	34	34
Two	29	26
Three or more	13	15
Don't know ¹	4	5
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,423	1,468

Note: Column percentages.

¹ Mothers who gave 'Don't know' answers to questions about family leave arrangements have been excluded from other family leave tables in this chapter.

When looking at the availability of different types of parental leave (Table 7.6), we find that a very similar proportion of mothers reported access to fully paid and unpaid time off for family emergencies (45 per cent and 41 per cent, respectively, in 2008). Predictably, take-up of paid emergency leave was considerably higher than use of unpaid emergency leave (28 per cent and 11 per cent, respectively, in 2008). There were no significant differences in availability of time off for family emergencies between 2006 and 2008, however, more mothers used fully paid time off in 2008 (28 per cent) than in 2006 (24 per cent).

Parental leave was more commonly available on an unpaid basis in 2008 (29 per cent), although a substantial minority of mothers (18 per cent) had access to fully paid parental leave. The level of take-up of unpaid and fully paid parental leave was similar but it was rather low, seven per cent and six per cent, respectively. There were no significant differences in the availability and use of parental leave between 2006 and 2008.

Table 7.6 Availability and use of family leave arrangements in first post-birth job

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job ('available' column)

Mothers who had access to any family leave arrangement in their first post-birth job ('used, mothers with access' column)

Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job ('used, all employed mothers')

Multiple response	2006			2008		
	Available %	Used, mothers with access %	Used, all employed mothers %	Available %	Used, mothers with access %	Used, all employed mothers %
Fully paid time off for family emergencies	41	24	18	45	28	22
Partly paid time off for family emergencies	9	2	2	9	2	1
Unpaid time off for family emergencies	37	11	8	41	11	9
Fully paid parental leave	17	6	5	18	7	5
Partly paid parental leave	7	1	1	7	1	1
Unpaid parental leave	31	6	5	29	6	5
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,423	1,083	1,423	1,377	1,091	1,378

Note: Multiple responses.

7.2 Number of mothers who returned to same job

Table 7.7 looks at whether mothers returned to the same job after giving birth or whether mothers returned to a different job, by the availability of family-friendly arrangements in their pre-birth job. There is a clear pattern visible in both 2006 and 2008: the more family-friendly arrangements available in the pre-birth job, the more likely the mother to return to the same job post-birth. For example, looking at 2008, 89 per cent of mothers who had five or more family friendly arrangements available in their pre-birth job returned to the same job post-birth, whereas only 60 per cent of mothers with no family-friendly arrangements returned to the same job, 76 per cent where there was one or two arrangements available and 82 per cent where there was three or four arrangements available.

Mothers who had five or more family-friendly arrangements available in their pre-birth job were less likely to return to the same job in 2008 (89 per cent) than in 2006 (93 per cent).

Table 7.7 Number of different family-friendly arrangements, by whether mother returned to same job

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

Number of family-friendly arrangements in pre-birth job	2006			2008		
	Return to work		Unweighted bases %	Return to work		Unweighted bases %
Returned to same job %	Returned to different job %	Returned to same job %		Returned to different job %		
None	63	37	63	60	40	74
1-2	76	24	223	76	24	219
3-4	85	15	282	82	18	252
5 or more	93	7	851	89	11	920
Total	87	13	1,423	84	16	1,471

Note: Row percentages.

7.3 Family-friendly arrangements and type of employer

We saw earlier that maternity benefits varied according to employers' characteristics, including size and sector and the presence of a trades union. Predictably, these factors are also associated with accessibility to family-friendly arrangements such as flexible working, childcare, leave policies and other support.

Table 7.8 examines the relationship between employer size and sector by the number of family arrangements available. Over three in five mothers (63 per cent) working for large private companies and over one in two mothers (56 per cent) who had public sector employers had access to three or more flexible arrangements, compared with 47 per cent of those employed by medium-sized companies and 35 per cent of those working for small employers. There was no significant difference in the number of flexible working arrangements available to mothers, by employers' size and sector, between 2006 and 2008.

Sixteen per cent of mothers working for small employers and 17 per cent of those in medium-sized organisations said no flexible arrangements were available in their workplace, compared with ten per cent of mothers in both large private companies and in public sector organisations. There has been an increase in the number of mothers working in large companies who said that they had no access to flexible working arrangements; from four per cent in 2006 to ten per cent in 2008. Therefore, although they had more access to these arrangements compared to those in other private companies, the accessibility to flexible working arrangements within large private companies has decreased.

With regards to childcare and other support, large differences were found according to employer size and sector. For example, 62 per cent of mothers in large private companies had access to three or more childcare and other types of support compared with 33 per cent in medium sized private companies and just 15 per cent in small private companies. Further 41 per cent of mothers in small organisations reported no access to employer-supported childcare and other types of support. The equivalent figure was 18 per cent in medium-sized organisations, eight per cent in large private employers and 13 per cent in the public sector. However, between 2006 and 2008 there has been a

large increase in the availability of three or more childcare-related working arrangements across all sizes and sectors; for example in large private companies the availability has increased from 43 per cent in 2006 to 62 per cent in 2008.

Some of the largest differences between employers were found in relation to childcare vouchers: these were available to only 15 per cent of mothers working for small employers, compared with 78 per cent of those in large private organisations, 60 per cent of mothers in the public sector and 53 per cent of those working in medium-sized companies. In all sectors there was a significant increase in the availability of childcare vouchers between 2006 and 2008.

Across all sectors there was also an increase in the availability of the KIT scheme during maternity leave (table not shown). In large private companies, for example, the availability of the scheme increased from 29 per cent in 2006, to 66 per cent in 2008, with the availability in the public sector increasing from 24 per cent to 49 per cent. However, the availability of the scheme was much lower in small private companies, with only 26 per cent of employees of these companies saying they had access to the scheme in 2008. Finally, workplace childcare was much more commonly available to mothers in the public sector (16 per cent compared with less than four per cent of mothers in the private sector).

Table 7.8 shows that 42 per cent of mothers in small companies and 24 per cent of those in medium sized organisations said neither emergency leave nor parental leave were available in their workplace, compared with 16 per cent of mothers in large private companies and 15 per cent of those in the public sector. Mothers working for large private companies and those working in the public sector were most likely to have access to three or more types of parental leave and emergency leave, as compared with those in the smaller private companies. For example, while 56 per cent of public sector workers and 49 per cent of those working in large private companies said they had access to fully paid time off for family emergencies, this was only available to 32 per cent of those working in medium sized companies and 26 per cent of those in small private companies (table not shown).

While there were considerable variations between mothers working for different types of employers in relation to the availability of a range of family-friendly arrangements, when these arrangements were available, smaller and less consistent differences were found in terms of take-up.

Table 7.8 Number of different types of family-friendly arrangements available³³, by employers' size and sector

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Employer size and sector				Total %
	Private 1-24 %	Private 25-499 %	Private 500+ %	Public %	
2006					
Flexible working arrangement					
None	17	12	4	8	10
One	22	23	12	13	17
Two	26	22	24	17	21
Three or more	35	43	60	61	53
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	252	270	233	662	1,419
Childcare and other support					
None	42	25	11	18	22
One	32	33	19	24	26
Two	17	19	28	23	22
Three or more	9	23	43	35	29
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	251	267	231	658	1,409
Family leave arrangement					
None	35	25	11	16	20
One	39	40	28	35	35
Two	22	25	41	31	30
Three or more	4	11	19	17	14
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	247	253	224	634	1,360

Continued

³³ Mothers who answered 'don't know' when asked about the number of family-friendly policies available have been excluded from the analysis presented in this table.

Table 7.8 Continued

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Employer size and sector				Total %
	Private 1-24 %	Private 25-499 %	Private 500+ %	Public %	
2008					
Flexible working arrangement					
None	16	17	10	10	12
One	26	18	14	14	17
Two	23	18	13	19	19
Three or more	35	47	63	56	52
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	257	283	231	674	1,452
Childcare and other support					
None	41	18	8	13	18
One	28	24	13	20	21
Two	16	26	17	21	20
Three or more	15	33	62	45	40
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	257	283	233	675	1,455
Family leave arrangement					
None	42	24	16	15	21
One	34	37	34	37	36
Two	19	28	28	30	28
Three or more	5	12	23	18	15
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	241	266	222	641	1,377

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Unweighted bases for types of family-friendly arrangements differ, because the number of missing values differs between the types.

Table 7.9 looks at the number of family-friendly arrangements available by workplace gender composition. There were no significant differences between workplace gender composition and the number of flexible working arrangements or family leave arrangements that mothers said were available to them. However, women who worked in mixed gender workforces were more likely to have access to three or more childcare-related working arrangements (48 per cent) than those working in predominantly female (35 per cent) or predominantly male (39 per cent) workplaces.

Table 7.9 Number of different family-friendly arrangements, by workplace gender composition³⁴

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Workplace gender composition			Total %
	All/mostly women %	Half women/half men %	All/mostly men %	
2006				
Flexible working arrangement				
None	11	7	13	10
One	19	12	20	17
Two	21	20	20	21
Three or more	48	60	47	53
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	648	570	199	1,419
Childcare and other support				
None	26	17	23	22
One	29	23	28	26
Two	21	22	23	22
Three or more	24	37	26	29
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	643	565	199	1,409
Family leave arrangement				
None	24	19	15	20
One	39	33	33	35
Two	24	35	36	30
Three or more	13	14	16	14
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	613	552	193	1,360

Continued

³⁴ Mothers who answered ‘don’t know’ when asked about the number of family-friendly policies available have been excluded from the analysis presented in this table.

Table 7.9 Continued

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Workplace gender composition			Total %
	All/mostly women %	Half women/half men %	All/mostly men %	
2008				
Flexible working arrangement				
None	12	12	15	12
One	17	15	22	17
Two	20	18	14	19
Three or more	51	55	49	52
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	709	553	183	1,452
Childcare and other support				
None	19	16	18	18
One	23	17	26	21
Two	22	19	17	20
Three or more	35	48	39	40
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	710	555	183	1,455
Family leave arrangement				
None	23	19	22	21
One	37	34	34	36
Two	27	28	29	28
Three or more	13	19	15	15
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	682	517	172	1,377

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Unweighted bases for types of family-friendly arrangements differ, because the number of missing values differs between the types.

As shown in Table 7.10, the presence of a trades union was strongly associated with access to a range of family-friendly arrangements. Few mothers working for an employer with a recognised trades union said they had no access to these arrangements, while a substantial proportion had access to a number of these arrangements. For example, where a trades union was present:

- 62 per cent had access to three or more flexible working arrangements compared with 41 per cent where there was no trades union presence;
- 54 per cent had access to three or more forms of childcare and other support compared with 25 per cent where there was no trades union presence;
- 22 per cent had access to three or more family leave arrangements compared with eight per cent where there was no trades union presence.

Workplaces with a trades union presence were more likely to have three or more childcare or other support arrangements in 2008 (54 per cent) than in 2006 (42 per cent). There was no statistical difference between 2006 and 2008 in relation to flexible working arrangements or family leave arrangements.

Table 7.10 Number of different family-friendly arrangements, by trades union presence in the workplace³⁵

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Trades union presence		Total %
	Trades union %	No trades union %	
2006			
Flexible working arrangement			
None	5	16	10
One	12	21	17
Two	17	24	21
Three or more	66	40	53
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	707	677	1,419
Childcare and other support			
None	12	33	22
One	22	30	26
Two	23	21	22
Three or more	42	16	29
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	701	675	1,409
Family leave arrangement			
None	10	30	20
One	35	36	35
Two	33	27	30
Three or more	22	7	14
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	670	658	1,360

Continued

³⁵ Mothers who answered 'don't know' when asked about the number of family-friendly policies available have been excluded from the analysis presented in this table.

Table 7.10 Continued

	Trades union presence		Total %
	Trades union %	No trades union %	
<i>Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job</i>			
2008			
Flexible working arrangement			
None	8	18	12
One	15	20	17
Two	16	21	19
Three or more	62	41	52
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	754	654	1,452
Childcare and other support			
None	9	28	18
One	17	26	21
Two	20	21	20
Three or more	54	25	40
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	755	657	1,455
Family leave arrangement			
None	13	31	21
One	33	38	36
Two	31	24	28
Three or more	22	8	15
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	715	623	1,377

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Unweighted bases for types of family-friendly arrangements differ, because the number of missing values differs between the types.

Table 7.11 suggests that trades union membership was not associated with increased access to family-friendly arrangements as those mothers who were not a member of a trades union were more likely to say that they had access to three or more flexible working arrangements (68 per cent) than those who were a trades union member (57 per cent). This may suggest a relationship between trades union membership and a lack of access to these family-friendly arrangements; where these arrangements are available in the workplace, mothers could be less motivated to join a trades union. However, it should be noted that it is the trades union presence workplace (Table 7.10) and not necessarily mothers' membership of it, that is important for increased availability of family-friendly arrangements.

There was no statistical difference in the availability of family leave arrangements by trades union membership, nor any statistical difference between 2006 and 2008.

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Table 7.11 Number of different family-friendly arrangements, by trades union membership³⁶

	Trades union membership		Total %
	Trades union member %	No trades union member %	
<i>Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job</i>			
2006			
Flexible working arrangement			
None	6	4	10
One	12	11	17
Two	18	16	21
Three or more	64	68	53
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	389	317	1,419
Childcare and other support			
None	12	11	22
One	22	23	26
Two	26	21	22
Three or more	40	45	29
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	387	313	1,409
Family leave arrangement			
None	9	12	20
One	38	30	35
Two	30	36	30
Three or more	22	21	14
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	378	291	1,360
			Continued

³⁶ Mothers who answered 'don't know' when asked about the number of family friendly policies available have been excluded from the analysis presented in this table.

Table 7.10 Continued

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Trades union membership		Total %
	Trades union member %	No trades union member %	
2008			
Flexible working arrangement			
None	9	6	12
One	18	10	17
Two	16	16	19
Three or more	57	68	52
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	409	344	1,452
Childcare and other support			
None	11	7	18
One	17	17	21
Two	22	19	20
Three or more	51	58	40
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	410	344	1,455
Family leave arrangement			
None	12	14	21
One	34	33	36
Two	32	31	28
Three or more	22	23	15
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	390	324	1,377

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Unweighted bases for types of family-friendly arrangements differ, because the number of missing values differs between the types.

7.4 Family-friendly arrangements and type of employment

When looking at different occupational groups (Table 7.12), we find that mothers in lower level jobs were least likely to say they had access to family-friendly arrangements in 2008. For example:

- a quarter (25 per cent) of those in elementary occupations reported no access to flexible working arrangements in their first post-birth job and just under half (44-45 per cent) said they had no access to childcare-related working arrangement support nor family leave;
- similarly, around a quarter (25-21 per cent) of mothers in administrative and secretarial jobs (which are female dominated) said they had neither access to family leave nor childcare and other support;
- mothers in elementary occupations were the least likely to report access to three or more flexible working arrangements, family leave arrangements and childcare and other types of support.

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There were less consistent trends in relation to other occupations; however, mothers in managerial and associate professional positions were considerably more likely than others to have access to three or more forms of all the family-friendly arrangements.

Despite the fact that mothers in elementary occupations are least likely to have access to family-friendly arrangements in 2008, their access to family-friendly arrangements has improved in some areas since 2006. For example, mothers in elementary jobs were more likely to have access to three or more flexible working arrangements in 2008 (33 per cent) than in 2006 (23 per cent). Further, there has been an increase across the board in access to childcare-related working arrangements between 2006 and 2008. There is no significant difference in the availability of family leave arrangements between 2006 and 2008.

Table 7.12 Number of different types of family-friendly arrangements, by occupational group³⁷

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Occupational group					Total %
	Managers %	Professionals %	Associate professionals %	Administrative and secretarial %	Other elementary ¹ %	
2006						
Flexible working arrangement						
None	8	5	5	11	23	10
One	10	14	11	18	30	17
Two	16	22	16	22	24	21
Three or more	66	59	67	49	23	53
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	120	186	271	714	126	1,419
Childcare and other support						
None	18	20	13	23	46	22
One	23	28	20	28	32	26
Two	18	30	24	21	15	22
Three or more	41	23	43	28	7	29
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	120	185	270	707	125	1,409
Family leave arrangement						
None	14	13	7	24	44	20
One	26	38	36	36	38	35
Two	38	33	36	28	17	30
Three or more	23	16	21	12	2	14
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	118	176	262	682	120	1,360

Continued

³⁷ Mothers who answered 'don't know' when asked about the number of family-friendly policies available have been excluded from the analysis presented in this table.

Table 7.12 Continued

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Occupational group					Total %
	Managers %	Professionals %	Associate professionals %	Administrative and secretarial %	Other elementary ¹ %	
2008						
Flexible working arrangement						
None	13	14	6	12	25	12
One	11	17	12	20	24	17
Two	12	22	19	19	18	19
Three or more	64	47	64	48	33	52
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	178	221	299	610	140	1,452
Childcare and other support						
None	12	14	9	21	44	18
One	20	23	14	23	29	21
Two	17	27	23	20	12	20
Three or more	51	37	55	37	15	40
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	178	221	303	609	140	1,455
Family leave arrangement						
None	15	17	11	25	45	21
One	31	41	34	37	34	36
Two	30	28	33	26	17	28
Three or more	24	14	22	12	4	15
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	173	206	291	578	125	1,377

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Unweighted bases for types of family-friendly arrangements differ, because the number of missing values differs between the types.

¹ 'Other elementary' consists of those employees who worked in the following occupational groups: skilled trades; process, plant and machine operatives; and other elementary occupations.

Mothers in temporary posts were considerably less likely than permanent employees to report the availability of family-friendly arrangements (Table 7.13):

- nearly a quarter of mothers with temporary jobs (23 per cent) said they had no access to flexible working patterns compared with 11 per cent of mothers with permanent jobs;
- 37 per cent of temporary employees said there was no childcare support available in their workplace, whereas 16 per cent of mothers with permanent jobs reported this;
- 44 per cent of mothers in temporary jobs reported no access to family leave with 20 per cent of mothers in permanent jobs reporting no family leave access.

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There were no statistically significant difference found between 2006 and 2008 in relation to the number of family-friendly arrangements among temporary and permanent employees.

Table 7.13 Number of different family-friendly arrangements³⁸, by employment status

	Employment status		
	Temporary %	Permanent %	Total %
<i>Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job</i>			
2006			
Flexible working arrangement			
None	17	9	10
One	26	16	17
Two	18	21	21
Three or more	39	54	53
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	97	1,322	1,419
Childcare and other support			
None	38	21	22
One	32	26	26
Two	17	22	22
Three or more	13	31	29
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	94	1,315	1,409
Family leave arrangement			
None	45	19	20
One	32	36	35
Two	17	31	30
Three or more	6	15	14
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	84	1,276	1,360

Continued

³⁸ Mothers who answered 'don't know' when asked about the number of family-friendly policies available have been excluded from the analysis presented in this table.

Table 7.13 Continued

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Employment status		
	Temporary %	Permanent %	Total %
2008			
Flexible working arrangement			
None	23	11	12
One	12	18	17
Two	22	18	19
Three or more	42	53	52
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	116	1,336	1,452
Childcare and other support			
None	37	16	18
One	23	21	21
Two	16	21	20
Three or more	24	42	40
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	113	1,342	1,455
Family leave arrangement			
None	44	20	21
One	31	36	36
Two	15	29	28
Three or more	11	16	15
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	103	1274	1377

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Unweighted bases for types of family-friendly arrangements differ, because the number of missing values differs between the types.

7.5 Family-friendly arrangements and socio-demographic profile

In this section we will look at the relationship between access to family-friendly working arrangements and socio-demographic characteristics. While the number and age of children were not associated with access to and take-up of family-friendly arrangements, variations were found between lone and partnered mothers, mothers' marital status and between those in different income groups.

As shown in Table 7.14, partnered mothers were more likely to say that they could access three or more flexible working arrangements than lone mothers (53 per cent compared with 46 per cent, respectively). However, the proportion of partnered mothers who reported no access to flexible working arrangements had increased from 2006 where it stood at nine per cent; therefore, although partnered mothers may be in a better position compared with lone parents, the proportion with access to no flexible working arrangements has increased slightly over time. Furthermore similar proportions of partnered and lone parents were in the position of having no access to flexible working arrangements.

There were various types of flexible working arrangements which were more likely to be available to partnered mothers than lone mothers (table not shown):

- 21 per cent reported access to school-time work compared with 11 per cent of lone mothers;
- 34 per cent said they had access to job-share, compared with 18 per cent of lone mothers;
- 25 per cent were able to work from home sometimes, and seven per cent work from home all the time (compared with 13 per cent and one per cent of lone parents respectively).

Further, partnered mothers were more likely to take up the offer to job-share (ten per cent) compared with lone mothers (four per cent); this may be due to the presence of an extra carer in partner households enabling the mother to be able to share both care and work responsibilities.

Differences between mothers were also present in relation to childcare and other arrangements, with over four in ten (42 per cent) partnered mothers saying they had access to three or more childcare and other support arrangements, compared with three in ten lone mothers (29 per cent). However, unlike with flexible working arrangements, partnered mothers were more likely to have access to three or more childcare-related and other arrangements in 2008 than in 2006 (30 per cent). There was no significant difference for lone mothers between 2006 and 2008. Partnered mothers were more likely to report access to childcare vouchers (55 per cent) than lone mothers (40 per cent) and they were more likely to use them if they had access (32 per cent compared with nine per cent).

There was no significant difference in the number of family leave arrangements available by whether a mother was partnered or not. However, partnered mothers were more likely to have access to fully paid time off for emergencies than lone parents (46 per cent compared with 33 per cent), whereas lone mothers were more likely to have access to unpaid emergency leave (45 per cent) than their partnered counterparts (40 per cent).

Table 7.14 Number of different family-friendly arrangements³⁹, by family structure

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Family structure		Total %
	Partnered %	Lone parent %	
2006			
Flexible working arrangement			
None	9	15	10
One	16	21	17
Two	21	21	21
Three or more	54	43	53
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,218	201	1,419
Childcare and other support			
None	21	29	22
One	27	25	26
Two	22	21	22
Three or more	30	25	29
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,208	201	1,409
Family leave arrangement			
None	18	32	20
One	35	40	35
Two	32	20	30
Three or more	15	8	14
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,167	193	1,360

Continued

³⁹ Mothers who answered 'don't know' when asked about the number of family friendly policies available have been excluded from the analysis presented in this table.

Table 7.14 Continued

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Partnered %	Family structure Lone parent %	Total %
2008			
Flexible working arrangement			
None	12	15	12
One	17	21	17
Two	19	19	19
Three or more	53	46	52
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,295	156	1,452
Childcare and other support			
None	18	22	18
One	20	30	21
Two	20	19	20
Three or more	42	29	40
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,298	156	1,455
Family leave arrangement			
None	21	26	21
One	36	34	36
Two	27	28	28
Three or more	16	11	15
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,241	135	1,377

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Unweighted bases for types of family-friendly arrangements differ, because the number of missing values differs between the types.

Table 7.15 examines the number of different family-friendly arrangements by the marital status of partnered mothers at the time of the interview. It is clear that married mothers were more likely to have access to three or more flexible working, childcare-related and family leave arrangements than cohabiting mothers. For example, in 2008, 55 per cent of married mothers had access to three or more flexible working arrangements compared with 45 per cent of cohabiting mothers.

Table 7.15 Number of different family-friendly arrangements⁴⁰, by marital status for partnered mothers

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Family structure		
	Married and living with partner %	Cohabiting %	Total %
2006			
Flexible working arrangement			
None	8	13	9
One	14	22	16
Two	20	22	21
Three or more	58	43	54
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	911	306	1,218
Childcare and other support			
None	19	28	21
One	26	27	27
Two	23	20	22
Three or more	32	25	30
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	903	304	1,208
Family leave arrangement			
None	17	24	18
One	35	33	35
Two	31	34	32
Three or more	17	9	15
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	874	293	1,167

Continued

⁴⁰ Mothers who answered 'don't know' when asked about the number of family-friendly policies available have been excluded from the analysis presented in this table.

Table 7.15 Continued

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Family structure		
	Partnered %	Lone parent %	Total %
2008			
Flexible working arrangement			
None	11	16	12
One	15	21	17
Two	19	18	19
Three or more	55	45	53
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	953	342	1,295
Childcare and other support			
None	15	24	18
One	19	23	20
Two	21	20	20
Three or more	45	33	42
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	957	341	1,298
Family leave arrangement			
None	18	28	21
One	36	37	36
Two	29	24	27
Three or more	17	12	16
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	915	326	1,241

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Unweighted bases for types of family-friendly arrangements differ, because the number of missing values differs between the types.

Predictably, given the occupational variations noted earlier in relation to the accessibility of family-friendly arrangements, mothers at the bottom of the household income distribution group were less likely to say that family-friendly arrangements were available in their first post-birth job, while the number reported seems to increase as income increases (Table 7.16).

Twenty-one per cent of mothers with the lowest household income said they had no access to flexible working arrangements, compared with 11 per cent of those in the top income group. Twenty-six per cent of mothers at the bottom of the income distribution group and 60 per cent of those with the highest household income said three or more flexible arrangements were available in their workplace. Further, those with higher incomes were more likely to report having access to most types of flexible work, for example, 63 per cent of mothers in the highest income band reported having access to flexible working hours, this was available to just 39 per cent of mothers in the lowest income band.

Forty per cent of mothers with the lowest household income said they had no access to childcare and other support and a fifth (21 per cent) mentioned three or more types of support. The corresponding figures for mothers with the highest income were nine per cent (no childcare support)

and 51 per cent (three or more types of support). Mothers with higher incomes were more likely to report having access to all types of childcare and other support than mothers in lower income households.

Similar differences can be seen in relation to family leave, with 42 per cent of mothers in the bottom income group reporting having no access to any parental leave or emergency time off, compared with only 14 per cent of mothers with the highest income. Conversely, eight per cent of mothers with the lowest income had access to three or more types of family leave; the equivalent figure for mothers in the top income bracket is 21 per cent.

When looking at take-up, smaller and non-statistically significant differences were found, indicating that when family-friendly arrangements were available in the workplace, mothers' ability and willingness to use them did not seem to be affected by their income.

There were no statistically significant differences between 2006 and 2008 in relation to income.

Table 7.16 Number of different types of family-friendly arrangements available⁴¹, by household weekly gross income

	Household weekly gross income					Total %
	Under £200 %	£200- £289 %	£390- £579 %	£580- £769 %	£770 or over %	
<i>Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job</i>						
2006						
Flexible working arrangement						
None	20	14	8	11	7	10
One	23	22	17	17	12	17
Two	30	27	23	19	16	21
Three or more	27	37	51	53	64	53
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	80	198	277	268	541	1,419
Childcare and other support						
None	43	34	22	20	16	22
One	30	28	28	26	24	26
Two	17	18	22	21	25	22
Three or more	10	20	28	32	36	29
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	80	198	275	264	537	1,409
Family leave arrangement						
None	48	37	18	16	13	20
One	37	36	42	37	30	35
Two	13	20	31	34	34	30
Three or more	1	7	9	13	22	14
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	75	188	262	256	526	1,360

Continued

⁴¹ Mothers who answered 'don't know' when asked about the number of family-friendly policies available have been excluded from the analysis presented in this table.

Table 7.16 Continued

Base: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

	Household weekly gross income					Total %
	Under £200 %	£200- £289 %	£390- £579 %	£580- £769 %	£770 or over %	
2008						
Flexible working arrangement						
None	21	16	14	8	11	12
One	24	24	19	17	14	17
Two	30	22	19	21	15	19
Three or more	26	38	48	54	60	52
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	60	190	284	262	601	1,452
Childcare and other support						
None	40	32	22	18	9	18
One	29	23	24	21	18	21
Two	11	20	22	18	22	20
Three or more	21	25	32	43	51	40
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	60	190	282	264	604	1,455
Family leave arrangement						
None	42	29	29	20	14	21
One	33	41	34	37	35	36
Two	16	24	28	26	30	28
Three or more	8	7	9	17	21	15
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	53	178	266	257	573	1,377

Note: Column percentages.

Note: Unweighted bases for types of family-friendly arrangements differ, because the number of missing values differs between the types.

7.6 Conclusion

The findings in this chapter have shown that while a range of family-friendly arrangements were available to mothers who returned to work after birth, these were by no means universal, even though for some years now (eligible) parents have had a legal entitlement to some of these arrangements (i.e. right to request to flexible work, parental and emergency leave) and most mothers in our sample were entitled to these. The fact that some mothers did not report some arrangements does not, of course, mean that they were not provided by their employer. The survey results might partly reflect a lack of awareness rather than unavailability, suggesting that there might be scope for the Government and employers to raise mothers' awareness and knowledge of their rights.

The influence legislation has had on the availability of family-friendly working arrangements is unclear: while flexible working arrangements were most likely to be available, availability of childcare and other support was higher than the availability of parental leave even though the former is discretionary, while the latter is statutory. However, within the different types of family-friendly arrangements there was a lot of variation in the availability of specific arrangements. For example, within flexible working arrangements in 2008, although 72 per cent of mothers reported the availability of part-time work only 20 per cent reported being able to work just during school term-time.

Similarly, levels of take-up show that flexible arrangements were most commonly used, partly reflecting the wide variety of arrangements explored by the survey. Interestingly, take-up of childcare and other types of support was considerably higher than take-up of parental leave.

Access to family-friendly arrangements varied considerably according to employer's characteristics, type of employment and mothers' socio-economic profile. Mothers working for small and medium size employers were considerably less likely than other mothers to say that they had access to a variety of arrangements, including arrangements such as parental and emergency leave, to which these mothers were entitled, though evidence suggests that flexible working arrangements are under-reported in small and medium employers, which are more likely to have informal arrangements. Predictably, differences were particularly large in relation to discretionary support, such as childcare. Mothers working for employers with no recognised trades union were also considerably less likely to have access to family-friendly arrangements than mothers who worked for employers who had a recognised trades union, a result which partly reflects the fact that small and medium employers were less likely than large ones to have a trades union.

Mothers in lower level occupations were less likely to say that family-friendly arrangements were available in their workplace; however, mothers in these occupations were more likely to have access to three or more flexible work arrangements in 2008 than in 2006. Mothers in temporary jobs, lone mothers and those in low income groups were also less likely to say family-friendly arrangements were available in their workplace. These findings are, of course, linked, as lone mothers and low income mothers were more likely to be found in low level occupations. There is a clear pattern visible in both 2006 and 2008; the more family-friendly arrangements available in the pre-birth job, the more likely the mother to return to the same job post-birth.

While considerable variations were found in the support available to mothers in the workplace, when family-friendly arrangements were available, levels of take-up were similar. This seems to indicate that when support is available at work, the factors we explored did not seem to affect mothers' willingness or ability to take up this support.

8 Fathers taking time off work and pay

This chapter looks at fathers' experiences of taking time off work before and after the birth of their baby and the level of pay they received during these periods. It investigates the take-up of paternity leave and other types of leave both before and after the birth of their baby, examines the reasons why fathers did not take up their full paternity leave entitlement and why some fathers took no paternity leave at all and no time off at all.

This chapter also examines fathers' level of pay during their paternity leave by looking at the length of paternity leave which was paid at full pay and the rate of pay for paternity leave days which was not paid at full pay. Paternity leave and pay is only available to employees, therefore, self-employed fathers are not included in analysis of take-up of paternity leave and pay. While some comparison is made with the results from the 2005 Paternity Rights Survey, these findings should be treated with caution, because any changes could partly reflect methodological changes to the 2009/10 survey.

8.1 Taking time off before the baby's birth

In this section we look at all fathers and whether they took any time off work before the birth of their baby. As current policy stands, before a father's baby is born, he is not entitled to any statutory paid time off by law. Where fathers do wish to take time off prior to the birth of their baby (i.e. to attend antenatal or other medical appointments with their partners) this time off is to be agreed between themselves and their employer. In 2004, the former Department of Trade and Industry issued a good practice guide for employers to encourage them to allow fathers to take time off for antenatal appointments⁴². This section also examines the number of days fathers took off work prior to the birth of their baby. We explore how the take up and duration of time off work before the birth of the baby might be linked to the characteristics of the father's employer, different job types and socio-economic characteristics. The time taken off before the birth of the baby includes all types of leave. We shall go on to look at the different types of leave taken (i.e. whether this was annual leave, other types of paid or unpaid leave) before the baby's birth in a later section.

The majority of fathers took some time off work before their baby was born. As shown in Table 8.1, approximately two-thirds of fathers (66 per cent) took some time off work before their baby was born.

Whether a father took time off before their baby's birth varied significantly by occupational group. Professionals were the most likely to take time off (76 per cent), followed by fathers in skilled trades (75 per cent). Fathers who worked in administrative, secretarial, sales and customer service jobs were least likely to take time off (53 per cent).

Table 8.1 shows the links between the number of days fathers took off work before the birth and a range of socio-economic and employer characteristics. The most common number of days taken off was one to two days (27 per cent), 20 per cent of fathers took between three and four days and 19 per cent took five or more days off work. The number of days taken off by fathers varied significantly by the number of family-friendly arrangements available, occupational group and hourly pay. It did not vary significantly by employer size and sector, employment status, age of father, disability or ethnicity.

⁴² Department of Trade and Industry (2004). *Fathers to be and antenatal appointments: a good practice guide*.

The number of days fathers took off varied significantly by the number of family-friendly arrangements available. Where five or more family-friendly arrangements were available, 30 per cent of fathers took no time off, 29 per cent took between one and two days off, 21 per cent took between three and four days and 20 per cent took five or more days off. The proportion of fathers taking five or more days off was lower among fathers who had access to one to three or three to four family-friendly arrangements (11 and 14 days, respectively). Instead, two-fifths in both groups (39 and 38 per cent) took no time off at all. The group of fathers who had no access to family-friendly arrangements were the most polarised in terms of taking time off, with 34 per cent of them taking no time off, while 31 per cent took five days or more.

The number of days taken off also varied significantly by occupational group. Fathers from the higher level occupational groups were more likely to take one to two days off, with 37 per cent of professionals and 29 per cent of managers and senior officials taking this number of days off. The fathers most likely to take five or more days off were in elementary occupations (23 per cent), however, the majority of fathers in these occupations took no time off at all (43 per cent).

A significant association was also found between hourly pay and the number of days fathers took off work. Fathers were most likely to take off five or more days if they were receiving the lowest rate of hourly pay (27 per cent) and fathers least likely to take five or more days were receiving the higher rates of hourly pay.

Although there was no significant difference by employment status, 67 per cent of employees took some time off before their baby's birth and 71 per cent of self-employed fathers took some time off. According to the 2005 survey, 44 per cent of employees took some time off during their partner's pregnancy and 50 per cent of self-employed fathers took some time off during this time although the methodological caveats mentioned above should be borne in mind in comparing these results.

We do not have directly comparable data from the 2005 survey regarding the different number of days fathers took off work following the birth of their baby, due to the breakdown of days being different in the two studies. However, in 2005, most employed fathers took two days off during their partner's pregnancy and most self-employed fathers took between four and five days off. For those fathers in 2008 who did take time off, most employees took between one and two days off and most self-employed fathers took five or more days off.

Table 8.1 Number of days taken off work before baby's birth

Base: All fathers

	Number of days taken				Unweighted bases
	None %	1 to 2 %	3 to 4 %	5+ %	
Employer size and sector					
Private 1-24	29	26	22	24	249
Private 25-499	33	30	20	17	322
Private 500+	34	28	21	17	331
Public	39	27	16	18	202
Number of family-friendly arrangements					
None	34	14	21	31	78
1-2	39	32	19	11	169
3-4	38	28	21	14	168
5+	30	29	21	20	616
Occupational group					
Managers and senior officials	34	29	19	18	248
Professionals	24	37	22	17	208
Associate professional and technical	39	25	20	17	181
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	46	18	16	19	104
Skilled trades	26	27	26	22	238
Process, plant and machine operatives	32	27	19	22	124
Elementary occupations	43	19	15	23	102
Hourly pay					
Less than £6	39	18	15	27	106
£6-£8.99	33	20	22	26	230
£9-£11.99	36	28	22	14	225
£12-£14.99	31	29	23	17	148
£15+	31	34	19	16	414
Employment status					
Employed	34	28	20	19	1,123
Self-employed	29	22	21	28	108
Age of father					
Under 29	31	20	23	27	188
30-34	29	28	22	21	361
35-39	36	31	18	15	388
40 or above	36	27	19	18	278
Disability					
Yes	34	24	21	20	136
No	33	27	20	19	1,094
Ethnicity					
White	33	28	20	18	1,112
Other groups	36	18	18	28	116
Total	33	27	20	19	1,253

Note: Row percentages.

8.2 Taking time off after the baby's birth

In this section we look at all fathers and whether they took any time off work after the birth of their baby. From April 2003, following the birth of a baby, fathers have been entitled to take up to two weeks off as paternity leave if they are an employee and have been with their employer for at least 26 weeks before the 15th week before their baby is born. Statutory paternity leave can be taken in a single block of either one week or two weeks and must be taken within 56 days of the birth or of the expected week of childbirth if the baby is born earlier. At the time of the baby's birth in 2008, fathers were entitled to two weeks of Statutory Paternity Pay (SPP) if they were on paternity leave. In 2008, this was paid at a rate of £117.18 per week. Employers may top up this rate to give fathers a higher rate of pay during their paternity leave. Some fathers will have received 90 per cent of their pay instead of the statutory pay rate if 90 per cent of their pay was less than the statutory rate.

This section looks at the number of days fathers took off work, however, this time off includes all types of leave, which we shall go on to look at in the next section.

Table 8.2 shows that the overwhelming majority of fathers took time off work following the birth of their baby. Ninety one per cent of fathers took some time off following the birth and nine per cent took no time off. Most fathers took off two weeks or more (37 per cent and 29 per cent respectively).⁴³ However, a minority of fathers took less time off: seven per cent took less than one week, 11 per cent exactly one week or seven per cent more than one week but less than two weeks.

Table 8.2 Number of weeks taken off after baby's birth

<i>Base: All fathers</i>	
	%
None	9
Less than one week	7
One week	11
More than one but less than two weeks	7
Two weeks	37
More than two weeks	29
Total	100
<i>Unweighted base</i>	1,253

Note: Column percentages.

In relation to employer size and sector (Table 8.3), fathers were most likely to take time off if they worked in medium-sized or large private organisations (94 per cent and 97 per cent respectively). Fathers were less likely to take time off if they worked in the public sector (88 per cent) or in small private sector organisations (89 per cent). Where there were no family-friendly arrangements available, the take-up of time off work following the birth was lowest (only 88 per cent of fathers took time off compared with 93 per cent taking time off where there were between one or two family-friendly arrangements available).

Eighteen per cent of fathers on the lowest rate of pay took no time off compared with three per cent of fathers earning between £12 and £14.99 per hour and seven per cent of fathers earning over

⁴³ One calendar week has been calculated as five working days.

£15 per hour. Employment status also made a significant difference to taking time off following the birth. Ninety three per cent of employed fathers compared to only 74 per cent of self-employed fathers took some time off following the birth of their baby.

Table 8.3 also shows the number of weeks fathers took off work following the birth of their baby, which varied significantly by the number of family-friendly arrangements available, employer size and sector, occupational group, hourly pay and employment status.

In terms of employer size and sector, fathers working in medium sized or large private firms were most likely to take two weeks off (both 49 per cent), followed by fathers working in the public sector (44 per cent) and finally fathers working in small private organisations (40 per cent). Fathers were most likely to take less than two weeks off if they worked in small private sector organisations (32 per cent) or medium sized private sector organisations (26 per cent). The fathers who were least likely to take any time off worked in small private organisations (11 per cent took no time off) or in public sector organisations (12 per cent took no time off).

The number of weeks taken off also varied significantly by the number of family-friendly arrangements available to the father. Overall, as the number of family-friendly arrangements increased, the likelihood of fathers taking two weeks off also increased.

There was a much more even distribution of self-employed fathers taking the different lengths of time off compared to fathers who worked as employees. Fathers who worked as employees were most likely to take two weeks off (39 per cent); followed by 30 per cent taking more than two weeks off; and 24 per cent taking less than two weeks off.

In terms of hourly pay, fathers earning less than £6 per hour were much more likely to take no time off (18 per cent) compared to fathers' in the top two earning brackets (seven per cent and three per cent). Occupational group also had a significant association with the length of time taken off following the birth of a baby. For example, professionals were most likely to take two weeks off (44 per cent), followed by managers and senior officials (41 per cent). In contrast, only 28 per cent of fathers in elementary occupations took two weeks off. This group also had the highest proportion of fathers who took no time off following the birth (17 per cent).

Table 8.3 Number of weeks taken off work after baby's birth

Base: All fathers

	Number of weeks taken				Unweighted bases
	None %	Less than two weeks %	Two weeks %	More than two weeks %	
Employer size and sector					
Private 1-24	11	32	32	25	254
Private 25-499	6	26	41	27	324
Private 500+	4	18	43	35	329
Public	12	15	39	34	201
Number of family-friendly arrangements					
None	12	47	22	19	79
1-2	7	23	40	30	167
3-4	8	29	36	27	168
5 or more	7	20	41	32	618
Occupational group					
Managers and senior officials	7	23	41	29	246
Professionals	10	23	44	24	211
Associate professional and technical	7	20	40	32	182
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	7	17	40	36	103
Skilled trades	9	33	33	25	239
Process, plant and machine operatives	10	31	27	32	125
Elementary occupations	17	28	24	31	105
Hourly pay					
Less than £6	18	33	27	22	109
£6-£8.99	7	27	30	35	232
£9-£11.99	12	18	37	34	222
£12-£14.99	3	25	43	29	149
£15+	7	23	44	25	416
Employment status					
Employed	8	24	39	30	1,128
Self-employed	26	38	16	20	109
Total	9	25	37	29	1,253

Note: One week equals five days.

Note: Row percentages.

8.2.1 Key determinants of taking time off work before and after baby's birth

Many of the characteristics that are analysed in this report are related to each other as well as to the outcome that is considered. This means that a statistically significant relationship between two variables could in fact be affected by a third variable. For example, it might be observed that younger fathers are more likely to report taking up longer paternity leave. However, if they are also more to take up a high number of family-friendly arrangements, then the relationship between age and likelihood of taking paternity leave may in fact be related to the take-up of family-friendly arrangements by younger fathers rather than age in itself.

These kinds of problems can be avoided if all variables that are likely to have an effect on an outcome are controlled for together. In the example above this would mean investigating whether young fathers who take up paternity leave are equally as likely to take up paternity leave as older fathers who take up paternity leave. This can be done by using statistical modelling techniques. In this report we use logistic regression models.

We ran a multivariate logistic regression model to tease out the effect of each of the variables when all the others are taken into account. Two complex sample logistic regressions were run to examine whether some of the factors discussed in the sections so far are related to each other. The first is to assess which factors independently predicted whether fathers took time off before the birth of their baby; the second to determine which factors independently predicted whether fathers took time off work after the birth. Tables B.6 and B.7 give details of the factors included in the regressions, odds ratios, and lower and upper 95 per cent confidence intervals.

Firstly, in terms of fathers taking time off before the birth of their baby, the results of this analysis showed that the odds of taking time off before the birth of the baby were significantly **higher** for:

- fathers who were professionals, compared to fathers who were managers or senior officials;
- fathers who worked in medium sized private sector organisations, compared with fathers working in small private organisations.

Number of family-friendly working arrangements available and fathers' hourly pay that were significant in the bivariate analysis were no longer significant in the multivariate.

In terms of what factors predict fathers taking time off work after the birth of their baby, the odds of taking time off after the birth of the baby were significantly **higher** for fathers in the medium size and large private organisations compared to fathers working in the public sector. None of the other factors was statistically significant.

8.3 Type of leave taken

In this section we look at those fathers who did take some time off work before and after their baby was born and the type of leave they used to take this time off. In 2008, when the babies in this survey were born, fathers were entitled to take up to two weeks of paternity leave following the birth of their baby, provided they were an employee and had worked for a certain length of time for their employer before their baby was born. They could take this paternity leave in a single block of either one week or two weeks and this had to be taken within 56 days of the birth or of the expected week of childbirth if the baby is born early. As discussed above, prior to the birth of the baby, if fathers wanted to take time off work for reasons to do with their partner's pregnancy this had to be taken as a different type of leave (i.e. not paternity leave).

As shown in Table 8.4, for leave taken before the baby was born, the overwhelming majority of fathers took this time off as paid leave (this could be annual leave, time off in lieu, additional paid time off which was not annual leave or paternity leave, sick leave or compassionate leave). Eighty-six per cent of fathers took their time off as this type of leave, followed by 12 per cent taking it as unpaid leave only.

Employer size and sector were significantly related to the type of leave fathers took before their baby was born. Fathers in large private organisations were most likely to use paid leave (94 per cent) compared to only 79 per cent of fathers working in small private organisations. Fathers working in small private organisations were also more likely to take time off as unpaid leave (20 per cent) compared to the fathers in the large private organisations (four per cent).

The number of family-friendly arrangements also made a significant difference to the type of leave taken prior to the birth of the baby. As the number of family-friendly arrangements increased, fathers were more likely to use paid leave (91 per cent of fathers working in organisations with five or more family-friendly arrangements took paid leave and 84 per cent of fathers with three to four family-friendly arrangements took paid leave). In comparison, the highest rates of taking unpaid leave were where there were no family-friendly arrangements available (26 per cent).

There was a relationship between fathers' occupational group and the type of leave taken. As the level of the occupation increased, the more likely fathers were to use paid leave before their baby was born. Similar association was observed for fathers' hourly pay, with the proportion of fathers using paid leave increasing with fathers' hourly pay. Seventy-two per cent of fathers earning less than £8.99 per hour used paid leave compared with 93 per cent of fathers earning over £15 per hour.

Table 8.4 Type of leave taken before baby's birth*Base: All fathers who took time off before birth*

	Type of leave taken			<i>Unweighted bases</i>
	Paid leave %	Unpaid leave only %	Other combinations of leave %	
Employer size and sector				
Private 1-24	79	20	2	172
Private 25-499	83	15	2	226
Private 500+	94	4	2	209
Public	90	6	3	120
Number of family-friendly arrangements				
None	[72]	[26]	[2]	43
1-2	80	19	1	95
3-4	84	14	2	105
5+	91	5	4	433
Occupational group				
Managers and senior officials	96	3	1	159
Professionals	93	3	3	138
Associate professional and technical	96	3	1	102
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	86	7	6	55
Skilled trades	76	22	2	135
Process, plant and machine operatives	65	32	3	74
Elementary occupations	70	27	4	56
Hourly pay				
Less than £8.99	73	22	5	192
£9-£11.99	88	11	1	126
£12-£14.99	89	10	1	100
£15+	94	4	2	262
Total	86	12	2	737

Note: For this table the hourly pay category has been collapsed to combine less than £6 and £6 to £8.

Note: Row percentages

In contrast, the types of leave fathers took after the birth of their baby were very different from the types of leave used before the birth as discussed above. Following the birth of the baby, fathers could take paternity leave on its own, or they could take a combination of paternity leave with other types of leave (such as annual leave or time off in lieu). After the birth of the baby, nearly half of the fathers (49 per cent) took paternity leave only, a quarter (25 per cent) took a combination of paternity leave and other paid leave, 18 per cent took other paid leave only, five per cent took unpaid leave only and two per cent took other combinations of leave (see Table 8.5). In 2005, among the employed fathers who took time off after the birth of their child, one-fifth did not use any of their paternity leave entitlement and instead used annual leave or other forms of leave. Nearly half the fathers used paternity leave exclusively and the remaining 30 per cent used a combination of paternity and other forms of leave. However, again, owing to methodological inconsistencies between the two studies, it is difficult to compare the results directly.

For those fathers who did take some time off, employer size and sector and hourly pay were significantly associated with the type of leave fathers took following the birth of their baby. In terms of employer size and sector, the fathers working in the public sector were most likely to take paternity leave only (56 per cent). Fathers working in medium-sized private sector organisations were least likely to take paternity leave only (43 per cent). Fathers who worked in large private organisations or public sector were most likely to take a combination of paternity leave and other paid leave (31 per cent and 26 per cent respectively). Those fathers who worked in small private organisations were most likely to take only unpaid leave (14 per cent) compared with only two per cent of those working in large private organisations and three per cent working in the public sector.

Hourly pay was also related to the type of leave taken following the birth of the baby. Fathers who worked in the two top earning hourly pay groups were most likely to take paternity leave only (both 51 per cent). Fathers from the lowest earning group were most likely to take unpaid leave only (19 per cent) and this take-up steadily declined as the hourly pay scale increased.

Table 8.5 Type of leave taken after baby's birth

Base: All fathers who took time off after baby's birth

	Type of leave taken					<i>Unweighted bases</i>
	Paternity leave only %	Other paid leave only %	Unpaid leave only %	Paternity leave and other paid leave %	Other combinations of leave %	
Employer size and sector						
Private 1-24	45	24	14	16	1	215
Private 25-499	43	25	6	25	1	306
Private 500+	51	14	2	31	3	318
Public	56	11	3	26	4	180
Number of family-friendly arrangements						
None	38	36	20	5	2	59
1-2	52	17	7	21	3	151
3-4	54	20	7	19	1	155
5+	46	16	4	32	2	580
Occupational group						
Managers and senior officials	45	21	3	30	2	221
Professionals	55	12	3	29	2	178
Associate professional and technical	55	17	3	24	1	161
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	50	18	4	24	3	97
Skilled trades	41	22	11	22	4	171
Process, plant and machine operatives	36	18	18	25	3	103
Elementary occupations	55	22	9	12	1	84
Hourly pay						
Less than £6	43	22	19	13	3	76
£6-£8.99	50	17	8	22	3	198
£9-£11.99	38	21	7	32	3	181
£12-£14.99	51	21	0	27	0	135
£15+	51	16	2	28	2	366
Total	49	18	5	25	2	1,053

Note: Row percentages.

8.4 Take up of paternity leave

In this section we look at those fathers who took paternity leave (either on its own or in combination with other types of leave). We examine the take-up of paternity leave and the number of weeks of paternity leave taken.

Whether a father took up paternity leave or not varied significantly by employer size and sector, number of family-friendly arrangements available, occupational group, hourly pay, partner's hourly pay and ethnicity.

In Table 8.6, overall, 73 per cent of fathers who took some time off used paternity leave. Take-up varied significantly by employer size and sector, with those fathers working in large private sector organisations and the public sector being most likely to take up paternity leave (83 per cent and 81 per cent, respectively, of those who took some time off). Fathers were least likely to take up paternity leave if they worked in small private sector organisations (44 per cent took no paternity leave).

Family-friendly arrangements were also related to the probability of taking up paternity leave, with those fathers who had no family-friendly arrangements available much less likely to take up paternity leave. Where no family-friendly arrangements were available, only 39 per cent of fathers taking some time off took paternity leave compared to 73 per cent of fathers who had one or two family-friendly arrangements available.

In terms of occupational group, the fathers belonging to the professional group and the associate professional and technical group were most likely to take paternity leave (79 per cent and 78 per cent respectively, of those who took some time off). The fathers in the elementary occupational group and the skilled trades group were least likely to take paternity leave (both 37 per cent did not take paternity leave).

Fathers' hourly pay was also related to their likelihood of taking up paternity leave, with fathers earning less than £6 per hour being much less likely to take up paternity leave. Only 52 per cent of fathers earning this amount and taking some time off took paternity leave compared to 79 per cent earning between £12 and £14.99.

Ethnicity of the father was also significant. White fathers who took some time off were much more likely than fathers from other ethnic groups to take up paternity leave. Seventy-four per cent of white fathers who took some time off compared to 57 per cent of fathers from other ethnic groups who took up paternity leave. Finally, the hourly gross pay of the baby's mother before the baby's birth also had a significant relationship with fathers' up-take of paternity leave. Fifty-eight per cent of fathers with a partner earning less than £6 took paternity leave, compared to 80 per cent of fathers whose partner earned over £15 per hour.

Table 8.6 Take-up of paternity leave

Base: All fathers who took time off work after baby's birth

	Took paternity leave		Unweighted bases
	Yes %	No %	
Employer size and sector			
Private 1-24	56	44	254
Private 25-499	70	30	324
Private 500+	83	17	333
Public	81	19	203
Number of family-friendly arrangements			
None	39	61	77
1-2	73	27	165
3-4	70	30	168
5+	78	22	621
Occupational group			
Managers and senior officials	74	26	236
Professionals	79	21	197
Associate professional and technical	78	22	174
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	76	24	104
Skilled trades	63	37	185
Process, plant and machine operatives	71	29	113
Elementary occupations	63	37	100
Father's hourly gross pay			
Less than £6	52	48	95
£6-£8.99	75	25	212
£9-£11.99	72	28	201
£12-£14.99	79	21	140
£15 or more	78	22	394
Number of children			
1	73	27	373
2	75	25	537
3+	64	36	224
Age of father			
Under 29	69	31	183
30-34	72	28	341
35-39	74	26	352
40 or above	74	26	241

Continued

Table 8.6 Continued

	Took paternity leave		Unweighted bases
	Yes %	No %	
<i>Base: All fathers who took time off work after baby's birth</i>			
Disability			
Yes	73	27	127
No	72	28	1,005
Ethnicity			
White	74	26	1026
Other groups	57	43	104
Mother's gross hourly pay before birth			
Not working	65	35	245
Less than £6	58	42	119
£6-£8	76	24	228
£9-£11	76	24	141
£12-£14	74	26	123
£15+	80	20	244
Total	73	27	1,134

Note: Row percentages.

As is evident in Table 8.7, fathers who took paternity leave were most likely to take the statutory two weeks (50 per cent), 34 per cent took less than two weeks (21 per cent took exactly one week, while six per cent took less than one week and seven per cent took between one and two weeks) and 16 per cent took more than two weeks of paternity leave. Those fathers who took more than two weeks of paternity leave were likely to be receiving occupational paternity leave, which is given by employers over and above the statutory allowance. In the 2005 survey, looking at all fathers, 21 per cent took no paternity leave, 34 per cent took less than two weeks, 34 per cent took two weeks and 11 per cent took more than two weeks.

Table 8.7 Number of weeks of paternity leave

	%
<i>Base: All fathers who took some paternity leave</i>	
Less than one week	6
One week	21
More than one but less than two weeks	7
Two weeks	50
More than two weeks	16
Total	100
<i>Unweighted base</i>	823

Note: Column percentages.

The number of weeks of paternity leave in 2008 was not associated with any of the socio-demographic or employer variables and there appears to be no differences in 2005, however, no significance testing was carried out in the 2005 survey, so it is difficult to compare these results.

Table 8.8 Number of weeks of paternity leave

Base: All fathers who took some paternity leave

	Number of weeks taken			Unweighted bases
	Less than two weeks %	Two weeks %	More than two weeks %	
Employer size and sector				
Private 1-24	39	44	17	143
Private 25-499	37	49	14	228
Private 500+	30	53	17	275
Public	31	53	15	165
Number of family-friendly arrangements available				
None	[46]	[42]	[11]	28
1-2	31	49	20	117
3-4	35	47	18	120
5+	35	52	13	485
Occupational group				
Managers and senior officials	34	56	10	177
Professionals	40	51	8	154
Associate professional and technical	34	50	16	133
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	27	52	22	80
Skilled trades	37	47	16	120
Process, plant and machine operatives	39	41	20	80
Elementary occupations	28	41	31	66
Hourly pay				
Less than £6	50	27	23	52
£6-£8.99	29	48	22	161
£9-£11.99	29	56	15	143
£12-£14.99	35	49	16	113
£15+	36	55	9	302
Number of children				
1	30	56	14	269
2	38	46	16	405
3+	38	42	20	149

Continued

Table 8.8 Continued

Base: All fathers who took some paternity leave

	Number of weeks taken			Unweighted bases
	Less than two weeks %	Two weeks %	More than two weeks %	
Age of father				
Under 29	35	44	21	127
30-34	34	52	14	251
35-39	33	51	15	264
40 or above	37	50	13	170
Disability				
Yes	28	49	22	93
No	35	50	15	730
Ethnicity				
White	35	50	15	760
Other groups	31	51	18	62
Mothers' hourly pay				
Less than £6	34	45	21	72
£6-£8	36	46	17	170
£9-£11	40	51	9	109
£12-£14	30	55	15	94
£15+	29	58	12	191
Total	34	50	16	823

Note: Row percentages.

8.4.1 Key determinants of taking paternity leave

Some of the factors discussed above are related to each other. We ran a multivariate logistic regression model to tease out the effect of each of the variables when all the others are taken into account. Table B.8 gives details of the factors included in the regressions, odds ratios, and lower and upper 95 per cent confidence intervals.

The odds of taking paternity leave were significantly **higher** for fathers working in the public sector compared with fathers working for small private organisations. Furthermore, the odds of taking paternity leave were significantly **higher** for fathers where family-friendly arrangements are available in the workplace compared to fathers who have no access to family-friendly arrangements. None of the other factors was statistically significant.

8.5 Non-take up of paternity leave

Some fathers did not take up their full paternity leave entitlement or took no paternity leave at all. This section will explore the reasons that fathers gave for these choices. The bases for reasons for not taking up full paternity leave entitlement and taking no paternity leave at all were too small to do further analysis with break variables related to employer and socio-demographic characteristics.

164 Fathers taking time off work and pay

Firstly, the most common reason for not taking full entitlement was not being able to afford to do so (see Table 8.9); two-thirds of fathers who took some paternity leave but not their full entitlement mentioned this reason. This was followed by 15 per cent saying they could not take their full paternity leave entitlement because they were too busy at work.

Table 8.9 Reasons for not taking up full paternity leave entitlement

Base: Fathers who took some paternity leave, but not the full entitlement

Reasons	Total %
Couldn't afford to	66
Was too busy at work	15
Didn't need to because work patterns fitted in with the birth	7
Partner didn't need me to be at home	7
Took annual leave instead	7
Took all that I needed to	5
Other	4
Didn't know what full entitlement was	1
No reason given	1
<i>Unweighted base</i>	167

Note: Multiple responses.

Fathers who took no paternity leave at all were asked the reasons for this. As shown in Table 8.10, the most common reason was that fathers could not afford to (40 per cent), followed by 27 per cent saying they did not take up paternity leave because they were not entitled to it and 12 per cent taking annual leave instead of paternity leave.

Table 8.10 Reasons for not taking up any paternity leave

Base: Fathers who did not take any paternity leave

Reasons	Total %
Couldn't afford to	40
Wasn't entitled to paternity leave	27
Took annual leave instead	12
Didn't know whether was entitled to paternity leave	7
Didn't need to because work patterns fitted in with the birth	6
Took all that I needed to	6
Other	6
Was too busy at work	5
Partner didn't need me to be at home	3
No reasons given	2
Didn't know about paternity leave	1
<i>Unweighted base</i>	222

Note: Multiple responses.

8.6 Fathers who took no time off

Fathers who did not take any time off work at all were asked the reasons why they did not take any time off work following the birth of their baby. The bases for reasons for not taking up any time off were too small to do further analysis with break variables related to employer and socio-demographic characteristics.

The most common reason for taking no time off following the birth of their baby was that fathers did not need to because work patterns fitted in with the birth (32 per cent) (Table 8.11). Twenty-six per cent took no time off because they could not afford to and 17 per cent were too busy at work to take any time off.

Table 8.11 Reasons for not taking any time off

<i>Base: Fathers who did not take any time off after baby's birth</i>	
Reasons	Total %
Didn't need to because work patterns fitted in with the birth	32
Couldn't afford to	26
Was too busy at work	17
Other	16
Partner didn't need me to be at home	11
Was not entitled to paternity leave	7
Didn't know whether I was entitled to paternity leave	3
Employer wouldn't let me take any time off	3
No annual leave left to take	2
No reasons given	2
Was on sick leave	1
<i>Unweighted base</i>	112

Note: Multiple responses.

8.7 Paternity pay

In 2008 at the time of the baby's birth fathers were entitled to two weeks of SPP paid at a rate of £117.18 per week. Employers may top up this rate to give fathers a higher rate of pay during their paternity leave. Some fathers will have received 90 per cent of their pay instead of the statutory pay rate if 90 per cent of their pay was less than the statutory rate. In this section, we will firstly examine the number of weeks of paternity leave fathers were paid at their full pay rate. We are looking at the time they took paternity leave only and thus, do not include time taken off as other paid leave, etc., which may also have been paid at a higher rate than the statutory minimum. Secondly, we examine the rate of pay for those days of paternity leave which were not paid at full pay.

As shown in Table 8.12, the number of weeks of paternity leave paid at full pay varied significantly by employer size and sector, occupational group, hourly pay and number of family-friendly arrangements available. Overall, 39 per cent of fathers received full pay for less than two weeks of their paternity leave, 33 per cent received full pay for two weeks of paternity leave and nine per cent received full pay for more than two weeks of paternity leave. Twenty per cent of fathers did not

receive any of their paternity leave at full pay (but were most likely to be receiving a different rate of pay). We do not have directly comparable data from the 2005 survey regarding the number of days of paternity leave paid at full pay owing to the way in which the 2005 survey reports these figures.

In terms of employer size and sector, in large private organisations and the public sector, fathers were more likely to receive full pay for longer when on paternity leave. Thirty-six per cent of fathers working in large private organisations received two weeks at full pay and 38 per cent of fathers in the public sector were also paid at full pay for this length of time. Fathers most likely to receive no weeks of full pay were in small private sector organisations (26 per cent) or medium size private sector organisations (31 per cent). In 2005, for one-fifth of fathers, none of their paternity pay was at full pay. One-quarter of fathers (27 per cent) received their entire paternity leave allowance of two weeks at full pay and one in ten fathers received full pay for longer than two weeks.

Fathers in higher level occupations who received paternity pay were also more likely to receive two weeks at full pay. Just under half (45 per cent) of managers and senior officials received full pay for two weeks, compared to only 13 per cent of those working in process, plant and machine operative professions. In 2005, fathers in higher level occupations were more likely to receive full pay for their entire paternity leave compared to fathers in lower level occupational groups, for example, 81 per cent of managers were paid their full pay rate for their entire paternity leave compared to only 48 per cent of fathers working in plant/elementary occupations.

Fathers in households with the highest level of income were also more likely to receive two weeks at full pay or up to two weeks at full pay. Forty-two per cent of fathers living in households with an income of over £770 per week received less than two weeks of paternity leave at full pay and 37 per cent received two weeks of paternity leave at full pay. Only 13 per cent of these fathers received none of their paternity leave at full pay, compared to one-third (33 per cent) of fathers in the lowest household income bracket. In 2005, fathers in the highest income bracket were most likely to receive all their paternity leave at full pay (82 per cent), compared to fathers in the lowest income bracket who were most likely to receive none of their paternity leave at full pay (46 per cent). Again, it is important to note that in 2005 no significance testing was completed and the breakdown of variables is different compared with 2009/10, therefore, results cannot be directly compared.

Table 8.12 Number of weeks of paternity leave at full pay

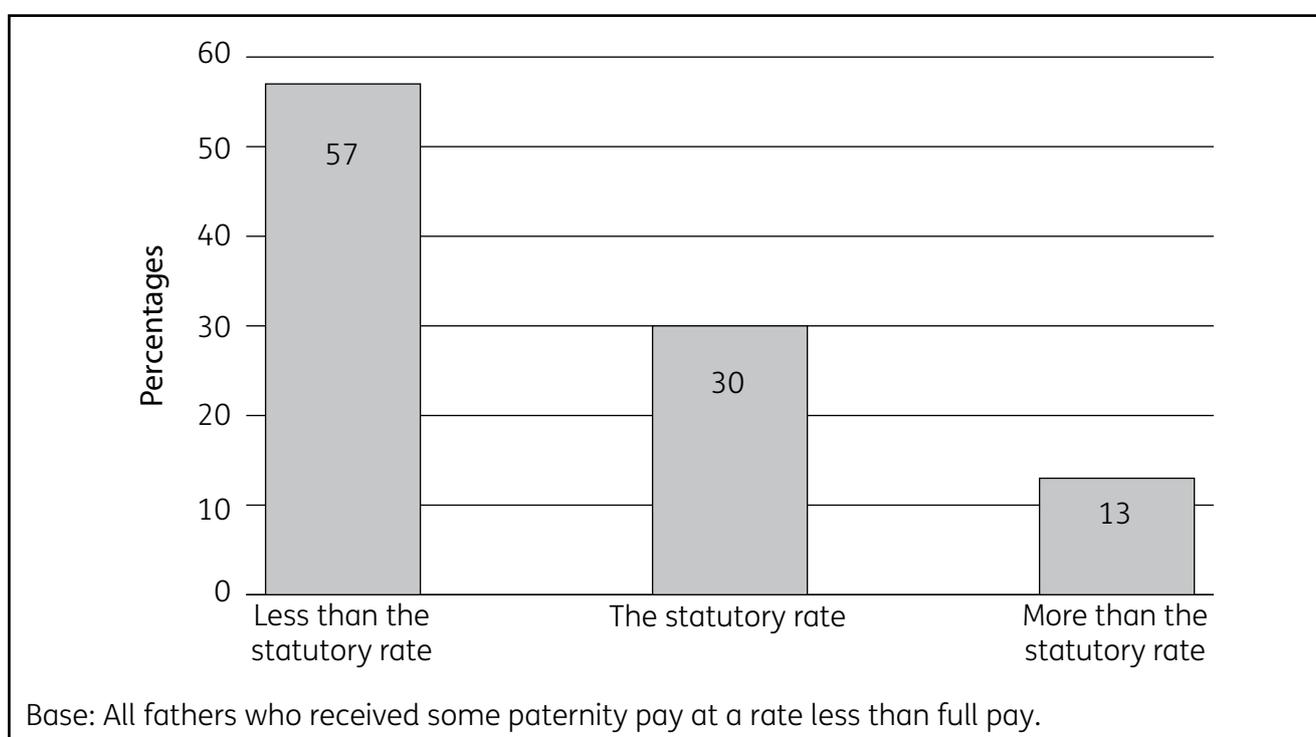
Base: Fathers taking paternity leave

	Number of weeks at full pay				Unweighted bases
	None %	Less than two weeks %	Two weeks %	More than two weeks %	
Employer size and sector					
Private 1-24	26	33	32	9	141
Private 25-499	31	38	24	8	222
Private 500+	12	42	36	10	271
Public	14	39	38	9	165
Number of family-friendly arrangements					
None	43	27	19	11	28
1-2	25	34	27	14	115
3-4	17	44	28	11	119
5+	16	40	37	8	478
Occupational group					
Managers and senior officials	14	35	45	6	174
Professionals	15	45	34	6	152
Associate professional and technical	16	39	34	10	131
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	18	32	36	14	79
Skilled trades	24	43	25	9	117
Process, plant and machine operatives	40	42	13	5	79
Elementary occupations	30	30	22	19	65
Hourly pay					
Less than £6	34	45	10	10	50
£6-£8.99	29	32	27	11	160
£9-£11.99	23	37	30	10	141
£12-£14.99	19	44	31	6	112
£15+	11	40	43	6	300
Gross weekly household income					
1 Under £389	33	33	23	11	55
2 £390-£579	22	34	36	9	118
3 £580-£769	26	40	28	6	122
4 £770+	13	42	37	8	329
Total	20	39	33	9	810

Note: Row percentages.

Those fathers who received none of their paternity leave at their full pay rate but received some or all of their paternity leave at a rate which was less than full pay, were asked what their weekly pay rate was. Fifty-seven per cent of fathers received less than the statutory rate as their weekly pay rate (Figure 8.1). However, the majority of the fathers paid at less than the statutory rate were paid at a rate very close to the statutory rate as it was in 2008. Furthermore, some fathers will have received 90 per cent of their pay instead of the statutory pay rate if 90 per cent of their pay was less than the statutory rate. It is also worth noting that the high percentage of fathers reporting being paid at less than the statutory rate may be related to inconsistencies with reporting tax or National Insurance (NI) contributions. Thirty per cent received the statutory pay rate per week and 13 per cent were paid at more than the statutory rate (but still less than their full pay). The rate of pay did not vary significantly by any socio-economic or employer characteristics.

Figure 8.1 Rate of pay per week not paid at full pay



8.8 Conclusion

This chapter has examined how fathers take time off before and after the birth of their baby, what type of leave they use to take this time off and the level at which they are paid whilst on paternity leave. We found that the vast majority of fathers did take some time off before and after the birth of their baby. Fathers who took no time off following the birth were most likely to be working in small private organisations or the public sector. However, this may be explained by many of the fathers working in the public sector working in education (as lecturers, teachers, etc.) and due to the time period all babies were born, this incorporated summer holidays where such fathers may not need to have taken time off. Fathers were also more likely to take no leave if they worked in an organisation where there were no family-friendly arrangements available, or if they were self-employed or if they earned the lowest rate of hourly pay.

For those fathers who did take time off following the birth, they were most likely to use paternity leave to take this time off, or use paternity leave in combination with other paid leave. The most common length of paternity leave was two calendar weeks (when calculated as ten working days), the same as the statutory allowance. The fathers more likely to take paternity leave were those in a more favourable employment situation, i.e. working in large private or public sector organisations, in organisations where family-friendly arrangements were available, and receiving higher rates of pay.

This chapter has also examined the number of weeks fathers were paid at full pay when on paternity leave. We found that a large proportion of fathers are paid at full pay for between one and two weeks of paternity leave and a small proportion are paid full pay for more than two weeks. This means that many employers must be topping up the statutory rate of paternity pay and paying fathers Occupational Paternity Pay.

9 Fathers' working patterns and family-friendly working arrangements

One of our research aims was to explore the accessibility and take-up of family-friendly arrangements among fathers and changes to working patterns following the birth of their baby.

This chapter provides an insight into the provision and take up of different types of family-friendly arrangements in the workplace and also the number of family-friendly arrangements available and used by fathers. We look at arrangements for flexible working, childcare support and family leave in turn. We look firstly at the different types of flexible working, childcare support and family leave arrangements available and used by some selected socio-demographic and employer characteristics. We also look at the number of family-friendly arrangements available and levels of take-up by a range of socio-demographic and employer characteristics. The final part of this chapter examines the number of changes fathers made to their work patterns following the birth of their baby and the different types of changes they have made. Again, where possible these are analysed by various socio-demographic and employer characteristics.

9.1 Provision and take up of different family-friendly arrangements

We examined the level of availability and take-up of a range of policies designed to support working parents in this survey. Parents have a range of family-friendly arrangements available to them including the right to request flexible working. In 2008 parents had the right to request flexible working patterns if they had a child under six years of age or had a disabled child under 18 years of age. They also had the right to unpaid parental leave for 13 weeks for each child in total up to their fifth birthday (or up to five years after the placement of an adopted child); the right to unpaid parental leave for 18 weeks if parents have a disabled child for each disabled child up to the child's 18th birthday for those employees who have worked for the same employer for a year. Parents can also have a reasonable amount of time off to deal with an emergency involving someone who relies on them for care (i.e. children and other dependants they may have). In addition to these statutory entitlements, the survey also explored the availability and take-up of some non-statutory arrangements, such as childcare support. Provision of childcare support arrangements is not obligatory for employers, but they are encouraged to provide these.

The chapter examines which family-friendly arrangements were available to fathers from their employers at the time of the survey⁴⁴ and also the number of arrangements available and used. There are various different types of family-friendly arrangements available to fathers – flexible working arrangements, childcare support arrangements and family leave arrangements and each is examined here in turn.

⁴⁴ In December 2009 for fathers who were interviewed in 2010.

9.1.1 Provision and take-up of different types of flexible working arrangements

As seen in Table 9.1 the most common types of flexible working arrangements employed fathers said were available to them at the time of interview were flexible working (54 per cent), part-time work (45 per cent), reduced hours for an agreed period (38 per cent) and working at home sometimes (30 per cent). As was the case with mothers, these figures are likely to be a combination of actual unavailability and of some fathers being unaware of what is available to them.

In 2005, the most widely available arrangements among fathers was flexi-time (54 per cent), followed by part-time working (47 per cent) and temporarily reduced hours (44 per cent). In 2005, 39 per cent of fathers were offered working at, or from, home occasionally by their employers. However, the methodological caveats described earlier should be borne in mind in considering these results.

All four of these types of arrangements varied significantly by employer size and sector. Part-time work was most commonly available to fathers in the public sector (56 per cent) compared to only 24 per cent of fathers in small private organisations. Flexible working hours were most commonly available for fathers working in large private organisations (59 per cent) and in the public sector (57 per cent). Working at home sometimes and working reduced hours were also much more common amongst fathers working in large private organisations and in the public sector compared with fathers working in small or medium sized private organisations. Half of fathers working in small private organisations said they had no flexible working arrangements available to them at all. A substantial proportion of fathers working in medium sized private organisations also reported no access to any flexible working arrangements (34 per cent). Fathers working in the public sector were the least likely to have no flexible working arrangements available to them (22 per cent).

The availability of the four most common arrangements also varied significantly by gross weekly household income. Fathers in households with higher rates of gross weekly household income were more likely to report having part-time working, flexible working, reduced hours and working from home arrangements sometimes available to them than fathers in the two lowest rates of gross weekly household income.

Table 9.1 Provision of different flexible working arrangements

Base: All fathers working as employees at time of survey (December 2009 if interviewed in 2010)

	Type of flexible working arrangement available							None %	Unweighted bases	
	Part-time work %	Working during school terms only %	Job-share %	Flexible working hours %	Reduced hours for an agreed period %	Working shifts %	Working at home sometimes %			Working at home all the time %
Employer size and sector										
Private 1 to 24	24	7	8	39	25	13	16	4	50	230
Private 25 to 499	36	8	15	45	27	24	26	4	34	281
Private 500+	47	10	28	59	39	28	35	10	24	310
Public	56	34	39	57	41	27	23	4	22	190
Gross weekly household income										
Under £389	30	20	16	47	28	30	13	7	39	64
£390-£579	29	13	12	37	26	18	9	3	50	149
£580-£769	40	12	19	51	32	25	22	1	33	162
£770+	43	14	28	57	37	22	37	8	25	406
Mother's employment status (pre-birth)										
Employed	38	13	22	50	33	22	25	5	33	768
Self-employed	[63]	[24]	[38]	[70]	[36]	[24]	[52]	[18]	[21]	31
Total	45	15	26	54	38	25	30	7	28	1,034

Note: Multiple responses.

Note: Row percentages.

Note: Total bases exclude cases where information on flexible working arrangements was missing.

For those fathers who reported access to at least one flexible working arrangement, Table 9.2 shows that the most common arrangements which fathers used were flexible working hours and working at home sometimes (however, it is important to note that 39 per cent of fathers took up none of the different flexible working arrangements available to them). The take-up of working at home sometimes varied significantly by employer size and sector, and household gross weekly income. In 2005, the most common arrangements which fathers said was available to them were flexible working hours (54 per cent) and working at, or from, home occasionally (39 per cent). For those fathers who had access to either of these arrangements, 31 per cent used flexible working hours and 29 per cent used the arrangement to work at, or from, home occasionally.

The proportion of fathers making use of the opportunity to work at home sometimes was highest in large private organisations (31 per cent). On the other hand fathers working in the public sector were the ones least likely to make use of working at home sometimes (15 per cent). Fathers who had the highest weekly rate of household income were more likely to take up working at home sometimes (33 per cent), compared to only six per cent of fathers with the lowest weekly household income.

There was also significant variation by employer size and sector for the take-up of flexible working hours. More than half (55 per cent) of fathers working in small private organisations made use of flexible working hours. Fathers working in medium sized private organisations and in the public sector were less likely to take up this arrangement (26 per cent and 32 per cent, respectively).

Table 9.2 Take up of different flexible working arrangements

Base: Fathers who had access to flexible any working arrangement

	Type of flexible working arrangement available								None %	Unweighted bases
	Part-time work %	Working during school terms only %	Job-share %	Flexible working hours %	Reduced hours for an agreed period %	Working shifts %	Working at home sometimes %	Working at home all the time %		
Employer size and sector										
Private 1 to 24	10	1	1	55	16	9	21	3	31	128
Private 25 to 499	6	1		26	3	14	25	2	42	195
Private 500+	3		0	42	4	8	31	3	36	246
Public	4	10	0	32	3	11	15	0	44	154
Gross weekly household income										
Under £579	5	2	1	33	7	21	6	1	49	64
£580-£769	4	2		41	2	16	18	1	37	149
£770+	2	3	0	40	6	4	33	3	38	162
Mother's employment status (pre-birth)										
Employed	3	3	0	39	5	10	23	2	41	546
Self-employed	[10]			[35]	[15]	[13]	[50]	[4]	[32]	[26]
Total	5	3	0	38	6	10	26	2	39	740

Note: Multiple responses.

Note: Row percentages.

9.1.2 Number and take-up of flexible working arrangements

This section examines the number of flexible working arrangements available and used by fathers as opposed to examining the nature or type of flexible arrangement as discussed in the previous section.

Table 9.3 shows the number of flexible working arrangements available to employed fathers. Overall, 28 per cent said they had access to none, 17 per cent had access to one, 12 per cent had access to two and 43 per cent had access to three or more flexible working arrangements in their workplace. The number of arrangements was analysed by several socio-demographic and employer characteristics, however, no significant associations were found.

Table 9.3 Number of flexible working arrangements available

Base: All fathers working as employees at time of survey (December 2009 if interviewed in 2010)

	Number of flexible working arrangements				Unweighted bases
	None %	1 %	2 %	3+ %	
Employer size and sector					
Private 1-24	50	14	17	19	230
Private 25-499	34	23	12	32	281
Private 500+	24	18	12	46	310
Public	22	14	6	58	190
Workforce composition					
All or mostly men	41	19	13	27	578
Half women and half men	24	16	12	49	336
Mostly women	16	16	7	61	106
Occupational group					
Managers and senior officials	32	16	8	44	218
Professionals	16	17	20	47	185
Associate professional and technical	28	17	8	47	165
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	26	16	15	43	93
Skilled trades	48	19	13	20	175
Process, plant and machine operatives	52	22	4	22	100
Elementary occupations	32	23	18	27	75
Trades union presence					
Yes	20	18	10	52	414
No	40	18	13	29	588
Trades union membership					
Yes	22	18	11	49	226
No	19	18	8	56	187

Continued

Table 9.3 Continued

Base: All fathers working as employees at time of survey (December 2009 if interviewed in 2010)

	Number of flexible working arrangements				Unweighted bases
	None %	1 %	2 %	3+ %	
Family status					
Married	30	18	13	40	816
Cohabiting or single	41	20	10	30	218
Gross weekly household income					
Under £579	46	16	8	29	213
£580-£769	33	19	9	38	162
£770+	25	20	12	43	406
Total	28	17	12	43	1,034

Note: Row percentages.

As shown in Table 9.4, the take-up of flexible working arrangements among fathers who had access to at least one arrangement varied from 39 per cent taking up no flexible working arrangements, 39 per cent taking up one, 17 per cent taking two and five per cent taking three or more.

Table 9.4 Take-up of flexible working arrangements available

Base: Fathers who had access to flexible working arrangements

	Number of flexible working arrangements used				Unweighted bases
	None %	1 %	2 %	3+ %	
Employer size and sector					
Private 1-24	31	41	17	11	128
Private 25-499	42	41	13	3	195
Private 500+	36	41	20	3	246
Public	44	38	14	3	154
Workforce composition					
All or mostly men	37	42	16	5	365
Half women and half men	39	38	19	4	274
Mostly women	44	38	13	5	91
Occupational group					
Managers and senior officials	41	35	18	6	168
Professionals	33	36	25	6	158
Associate professional and technical	44	38	13	5	126
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	38	52	9		69
Skilled trades	32	51	13	4	97
Process, plant and machine operatives	44	41	5	10	53
Elementary occupations	50	33	18		50
Trades union presence					
Yes	41	40	15	3	340
No	37	40	18	6	378
Trades union membership					
Yes	50	38	11	2	179
No	32	42	21	5	160
Family status					
Married	38	40	17	5	606
Cohabiting or single	41	39	17	4	134
Gross weekly household income					
Under £579	49	35	10	5	123
£580-£769	37	47	13	3	114
£770+	38	37	21	4	323
Total	39	39	17	5	740

Note: Row percentages.

9.1.3 Provision and take-up of different types of childcare support arrangements

Employed fathers were also asked about a range of childcare support arrangements to find out which were available to them through their employer and which of these arrangements they had actually used. The most common types of childcare support arrangements available (Table 9.5) were using the telephone for family reasons (65 per cent), childcare vouchers (46 per cent) and career breaks for family reasons (32 per cent).

These three types of arrangements had a significant association with fathers' employer size and sector. Using the telephone for family reasons was available to 71 per cent of fathers working in large private organisations and 65 per cent of fathers working in the public sector. This compares to only 46 per cent of fathers working in small private organisations saying they had access to this type of arrangement.

The availability of childcare vouchers was also much more common for fathers working in large private organisations (68 per cent) and in the public sector (55 per cent) compared to fathers working in small private organisations (only 13 per cent). This was also the case for access to career breaks for family reasons. This was available to around two in five fathers working in the public sector and in large private sector organisations (42 per cent and 38 per cent, respectively), but to only one in five fathers working in both small and medium sized private organisations (18 per cent).

Table 9.5 Provision of different childcare support arrangements

Base: All fathers working as employees at time of survey (December 2009 if interviewed in 2010)

Employer size and sector	Type of childcare support arrangement							Unweighted base
	Childcare vouchers %	Work-place childcare %	Other childcare supported by the employer %	Help with finding childcare away from the workplace %	Using the telephone for family reasons %	Career breaks for family reasons %	None %	
Private 1-24	13		0	2	46	18	49	232
Private 25-499	43	3	2	4	58	18	27	286
Private 500+	68	5	5	10	71	38	13	311
Public	55	17	7	7	65	42	15	192
Total	46	6	3	6	65	32	23	1,044

Note: Multiple responses.

Note: Row percentages

Note: Total bases exclude cases where information on childcare and other support was missing.

As can be seen in Table 9.6 the most likely childcare support arrangement to be taken up by fathers who had access to childcare support arrangements was using the telephone for family reasons (59 per cent), followed by 25 per cent of fathers making use of childcare vouchers available from their employer (where they had access to using the telephone or access to childcare vouchers).

Take-up of both childcare vouchers and using the telephone for family reasons had significant associations with fathers' employer size and sector. For take-up of childcare vouchers, nearly one-third (32 per cent) of fathers working in the public sector and in large private organisations made use of this arrangement. In contrast, only around one in ten (11 per cent) of fathers working in small private organisations took up childcare vouchers available to them. The use of the telephone for family reasons was the most common type of childcare support arrangement taken up by fathers working in small private organisations (72 per cent) compared to only 47 per cent of fathers working in the public sector taking up this arrangement available.

In the 2005 survey, 34 per cent of the fathers' employers provided career breaks for family reasons and 65 per cent allowed fathers to use the telephone for family purposes.

Table 9.6 Take-up of different childcare support arrangements

Base: Fathers who had access to any childcare support arrangement

Employer size and sector	Type of childcare support arrangement used							Unweighted base
	Childcare vouchers %	Work-place childcare %	Other childcare supported by the employer %	Help with finding childcare away from the workplace %	Using the telephone for family reasons %	Career breaks for family reasons %	None %	
Private 1-24	11		1		72	4	26	132
Private 25-499	23	1			57	2	36	219
Private 500+	32	1	2	1	54	2	33	273
Public	32	3	1	2	47	3	34	167
Total	25	1	0	1	59	2	32	808

Note: Multiple responses.

Note: Row percentages.

9.1.4 Number and take-up of childcare support arrangements

Table 9.7 shows the number of childcare support arrangements available to employed fathers. Overall, there was a fairly even distribution of the number of such arrangements. Twenty-three per cent reported no access to childcare support arrangements, 29 per cent had access to one, 25 per cent had access to two and 24 per cent had access to three or more childcare support arrangements.

The number of childcare support arrangements varied significantly by employer size and sector, household income, ethnicity, family status and trades union membership. For employer size and sector, fathers who worked in small private sector organisations were most likely to say they had no access to any childcare support arrangements (49 per cent). This is in comparison to fathers working in large private organisations and in the public sector where, respectively, only 13 per cent and 15 per cent of fathers reported no support being available. Fathers were most likely to have access to three or more childcare support arrangements if they worked in the public sector (36 per cent) in comparison to only five per cent of fathers working in small private organisations having access to this number of support arrangements.

The proportion of fathers reporting no access to childcare support arrangements was the highest (40 per cent) among fathers with lowest household income. This compares to only 17 per cent of fathers in the top household income band saying they had no access to childcare support arrangements in their workplace. Fathers were most likely to have access to two or three or more childcare support arrangements if they were in the highest household income band (29 per cent and 30 per cent, respectively).

Availability of childcare support arrangements also varied significantly by ethnicity as other groups were almost twice as likely than white groups to report no access to any arrangements available. In terms of family status, 36 per cent of fathers who were single or cohabiting reported no childcare support arrangements available compared to only 23 per cent of married fathers. Married fathers were also more likely to have two or three or more childcare support arrangements available compared to cohabiting and single fathers.

Trades union membership had a significant association with the number of arrangements available, with 16 per cent of fathers who were members of a union saying they had access to no childcare support arrangements compared to only ten per cent of fathers who did not have union membership. In contrast, almost one-third (32 per cent) of fathers who were union members had access to one support arrangement compared to around one-fifth (19 per cent) of fathers who were non-members.

Table 9.7 Number of childcare support arrangements available

Base: All fathers working as employees at time of survey (December 2009 if interviewed in 2010)

	Number of childcare support arrangements				Unweighted bases
	None %	1 %	2 %	3+ %	
Employer size and sector					
Private 1-24	49	27	18	5	232
Private 25-499	27	35	23	15	286
Private 500+	13	22	32	33	311
Public	15	26	22	36	192
Disability					
Yes	28	32	25	15	116
No	26	28	24	22	927
Occupational group					
Managers and senior officials	25	24	27	25	218
Professionals	8	27	33	32	189
Associate professional and technical	16	27	28	29	166
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	23	26	27	24	94
Skilled trades	45	32	15	9	176
Process, plant and machine operatives	46	30	14	10	102
Elementary occupations	34	39	17	10	76
Trades union presence					
Yes	13	26	27	34	416
No	35	29	22	14	593
Trades union membership					
Yes	16	32	23	30	227
No	10	19	32	39	188

Continued

Table 9.7 Continued

Base: All fathers working as employees at time of survey (December 2009 if interviewed in 2010)

	Number of flexible working arrangements				Unweighted bases
	None %	1 %	2 %	3+ %	
Gross weekly household income					
Under £579	40	29	17	13	214
£580-£769	21	34	24	20	162
£770+	17	24	29	30	410
Family status					
Married	23	28	26	23	820
Cohabiting or single	36	31	19	15	224
Age of father					
Under 29	33	36	21	11	160
30-34	25	26	24	25	312
35-39	24	26	26	25	335
40 or above	23	30	25	22	223
Ethnicity					
White	24	29	24	22	944
Other groups	44	19	21	16	97
Total	23	29	25	24	1,044

Note: Row percentages.

Note: Total bases exclude cases where information on childcare and other support was missing.

In Table 9.8 the take-up of childcare support arrangements is shown. Just under one-third (31 per cent) did not take up any arrangements available, just over half (51 per cent) who had access to childcare support arrangements took up one arrangement, 17 per cent took up two and only one per cent took up three or more childcare support arrangements.

As with the provision of childcare support arrangements, the take up of arrangements also varied by employer size and sector. Fathers working in small private organisations were most likely to use one childcare support arrangement (61 per cent of fathers who had access to at least one arrangement). Fathers were least likely to take up one childcare support arrangement if they worked in large private sector organisations (45 per cent). Fathers were most likely not to take up any childcare support arrangements if they worked in medium size private sector organisations (33 per cent), this is in comparison to fathers in small private organisations (where 26 per cent did not take up any of the childcare support arrangements available to them).

Table 9.8 Take-up of childcare support arrangements

Base: Fathers who had access to childcare support arrangements

	Number of childcare support arrangements used				Unweighted bases
	None %	1 %	2 %	3+ %	
Employer size and sector					
Private 1-24	26	61	13	1	132
Private 25-499	35	48	16	1	219
Private 500+	33	45	22	1	273
Public	34	49	13	4	167
Disability					
Yes	36	48	16		88
No	32	49	17	2	719
Occupational group					
Managers and senior officials	30	46	22	2	177
Professionals	29	47	22	2	172
Associate professional and technical	33	44	22	1	140
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	33	58	7	3	75
Skilled trades	28	61	11		110
Process, plant and machine operatives	48	45	5	2	63
Elementary occupations	47	48	5		52
Trades union presence					
Yes	38	45	15	2	366
No	29	52	18	1	416
Gross weekly household income					
Under £579	38	55	7		139
£580-769	46	42	10	2	133
£770+	26	47	25	2	347
Family status					
Married	31	48	20	2	654
Cohabiting or single	38	56	6	0	154
Age of father					
Under 29	37	55	8	1	111
30-34	34	45	19	2	246
35-39	30	51	17	2	267
40 or above	31	50	19	0	176
Ethnicity					
White	32	49	17	2	746
Other groups	37	47	15		59
Total	31	51	17	1	808

Note: Row percentages.

9.1.5 Provision and take-up of different types of family leave arrangements

As seen in Table 9.9, the most common types of family leave arrangements that employed fathers reported being available to them were fully paid time off for family emergencies (55 per cent), unpaid time off for family emergencies (54 per cent) and unpaid parental leave (41 per cent). The availability of all family leave arrangements in Table 9.9 was found to vary significantly by employer size and sector. In 2005, 81 per cent of fathers reported access to time off for family emergencies, but this was not broken down to paid or unpaid time off in the 2005 survey, therefore, again, owing to methodological inconsistencies between the two studies, these results should not be compared.

In the private sector organisations, as the size of the organisation increased, the more likely fathers were to say they had access to each of the different family leave arrangements. For example, fully paid time off for family emergencies increased from 40 per cent of fathers having access to this in the small private sector organisations up to 45 per cent of fathers in medium sized private organisations, to 56 per cent of fathers having access to this in large private sector organisations. In public sector organisations the availability of some arrangements was higher than in large private organisations while other arrangements were less common. For example, fully paid time off for family emergencies was most common for fathers in the public sector (70 per cent) while partly paid time off for family emergencies, unpaid time off for family emergencies and unpaid parental leave were more accessible in large private sector organisations.

Table 9.9 Provision of different family leave arrangements

Base: All fathers working as employees at time of survey (December 2009 if interviewed in 2010)

Employer size and sector	Type of family leave arrangement							Unweighted base
	Fully paid time off for family emergencies %	Partly paid time off for family emergencies %	Unpaid time off for family emergencies %	Fully paid parental leave %	Partly paid parental leave %	Unpaid parental leave %	None %	
Private 1-24	40	16	39	24	12	28	26	226
Private 25-499	45	19	53	24	16	40	23	277
Private 500+	56	28	57	30	16	47	11	308
Public	70	22	47	43	22	30	11	188
Total	55	24	54	30	17	41	15	1,021

Note: Multiple responses.

Note: Row percentages.

Table 9.10 Take up of different family leave arrangements

Base: Fathers who had access to any family leave arrangement

Employer size and sector	Type of family leave arrangement used							Unweighted base
	Fully paid time off for family emergencies %	Partly paid time off for family emergencies %	Unpaid time off for family emergencies %	Fully paid parental leave %	Partly paid parental leave %	Unpaid parental leave %	None %	
Private 1-24	22	2	9	17	4	9	55	172
Private 25-499	18	1	5	13	2	6	63	225
Private 500+	19	4	9	18	4	8	55	280
Public	31	1	8	22	6	3	47	170
Total	23	2	7	17	4	7	55	864

Note: Multiple responses.

Note: Row percentages.

Table 9.10 reveals that the most likely family leave arrangement to be taken up by fathers who had access to at least one type of arrangement was fully paid time off for family emergencies (23 per cent), followed by fully paid parental leave (17 per cent). However, it is important to note that 55 per cent of fathers did not take up any of these arrangements.

9.1.6 Number and take up of family leave arrangements

Table 9.11 shows the number of family leave arrangements available to employed fathers. Overall, 18 per cent said they had access to none, 23 per cent had access to one, 28 per cent had access to two and 31 per cent had access to three or more family leave arrangements in their workplace. Fathers' access to family leave arrangements varies by several socio-demographic and employer characteristics:

- Fathers working for small and medium size employers were more likely to report no access to family leave arrangements (26 and 23 per cent, respectively) than fathers who worked for large private or public employers (both 11 per cent).
- Fathers who were working as process, plant and machine operators are the least likely to say that they have no family leave arrangements available at their workplace (33 per cent). This compares to ten per cent among associate professionals and 12 per cent among fathers who work in administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service occupations.
- Fathers who worked in a workplace that had no recognised trades union were more likely to report having no access to family leave arrangements (22 per cent), compared with ten per cent of fathers working in an organisation with a trades union. The latter group was also more likely to have access to three or more family leave arrangements.
- Slightly more than a quarter of fathers who had a disability said they had no access to family leave arrangements. The same figure was 17 per cent for fathers who did not have a disability.
- Fathers who belonged to a white ethnic group were more likely to report access to family leave arrangements (16 per cent with no access), compared with fathers in other ethnic groups (32 per cent).

Table 9.11 Provision of family leave arrangements

Base: All fathers working as employees at time of survey (December 2009 if interviewed in 2010)

	Number of family leave arrangements				Unweighted bases
	None %	1 %	2 %	3+ %	
Employer size and sector					
Private 1-24	26	28	25	20	226
Private 25-499	23	21	26	30	277
Private 500+	11	23	29	37	308
Public	11	21	35	33	188
Disability					
Yes	26	20	28	25	115
No	17	24	28	31	905
Occupational group					
Managers and senior officials	20	22	24	34	215
Professionals	14	22	30	34	181
Associate professional and technical	10	26	29	35	161
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	12	26	27	35	92
Skilled trades	24	25	29	22	174
Process, plant and machine operatives	33	14	28	25	100
Elementary occupations	17	26	33	24	75
Trades union presence					
Yes	10	22	30	38	410
No	22	25	27	26	578
Gross weekly household income					
Under £579	20	24	30	25	212
£580-£769	21	23	20	36	155
£770+	13	25	30	33	399
Family status					
Married	18	23	29	30	804
Cohabiting or single	19	23	26	32	217
Age of father					
Under 29	18	25	27	31	159
30-34	19	20	31	30	309
35-39	17	27	24	32	320
40 or above	16	22	30	32	219
Ethnicity					
White	16	24	29	31	923
Other groups	32	19	19	30	95
Total	18	23	28	31	1,021

Note: Row percentages.

Note: Total bases exclude cases where information on family leave arrangements was missing.

Table 9.12 shows the take-up of family leave arrangements by fathers who had access to at least one arrangement. Over half (55 per cent) of fathers did not take up any of the family leave arrangements that were available to them. One-third (33 per cent) used one family leave arrangement, one-tenth (ten per cent) used two and two per cent used three or more family leave arrangements. The take up of family leave arrangements varied significantly by employer size and sector and family status.

Fathers working for medium sized private employers were less likely than fathers working for other employers to make use of family leave arrangements that they had access to. Nearly two-thirds (63 per cent) of fathers in this group did not use any family leave arrangements compared to 54 per cent of father in small private organisations and 55 per cent in large private organisations. The proportion of fathers not making use of any family leave arrangements was even lower among father working for public sector employers (47 per cent).

Fathers who were cohabiting or single were most likely not to take up any family leave arrangements (63 per cent), whereas this figure was only 53 per cent for married fathers. Fathers who were cohabiting or single were also much less likely than married fathers to take up one or two family leave arrangements, but were very slightly more likely to take up three or more arrangements available.

Table 9.12 Take-up of family leave arrangements

Base: Fathers who had access family leave arrangements

	Number of family leave arrangements used				Unweighted bases
	None %	1 %	2 %	3+ %	
Employer size and sector					
Private 1-24	55	32	10	3	172
Private 25-499	63	28	9		225
Private 500+	54	36	7	3	280
Public	47	36	14	2	170
Disability					
Yes	52	34	11	3	90
No	56	33	10	2	773
Occupational group					
Managers and senior officials	60	31	8	0	183
Professionals	58	30	11	1	160
Associate professional and technical	46	40	12	3	146
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	56	31	10	3	82
Skilled trades	55	32	9	4	136
Process, plant and machine operatives	51	37	9	3	75
Elementary occupations	62	28	9	1	61
Trades union presence					
Yes	53	35	10	2	375
No	57	31	9	2	466
Gross weekly household income					
Under £579	61	24	13	2	172
£580-£769	54	36	7	2	129
£770+	55	35	8	2	355
Family status					
Married	53	35	9	2	684
Cohabiting or single	63	24	12	0	180
Age of father					
Under 29	53	30	11	6	134
30-34	58	30	11	1	261
35-39	54	37	8	1	272
40 or above	54	34	10	1	188
Ethnicity					
White	55	33	10	2	791
Other groups	58	28	8	6	70
Total	55	33	10	2	864

Note: Row percentages.

Note: Total bases exclude cases where information on family leave arrangements was missing.

9.1.7 Availability of family-friendly working arrangements to both parents

Table 9.13 compares the availability of family-friendly working arrangements reported by mothers (in their first post-birth job) and fathers (working as an employee at the time of the survey). The analysis in this table is focused on the results from the 2009/10 surveys only. It is notable that a higher proportion of fathers reported that there were no flexible working arrangements in their workplace compared with mothers. While 12 per cent of mothers reported no flexible working arrangements, this was reported by 32 per cent of fathers. This is also seen with regards to childcare support arrangements, with 26 per cent of fathers reporting no availability compared with 18 per cent of mothers. There were no differences between parents in reported access to family leave arrangements, with 17 per cent of fathers and 20 per cent of mothers saying they had no access.

Mothers were more likely to have access to three or more flexible working arrangements and childcare and other arrangements. Conversely, fathers were more likely to have access to three or more family leave arrangements, with nearly a third of fathers (30 per cent) reported that three or more family leave arrangements were available, compared with around a sixth of mothers (15 per cent).

Table 9.13 Number of available family-friendly arrangements available in first post-birth job

Base mothers: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job

Base fathers: All fathers working as employees at time of survey (December 2009 if interviewed in 2010)

	Parent	
	Mothers %	Fathers ¹ %
Number of flexible working arrangements used		
None	12	32
One	17	17
Two	18	12
Three or more	51	37
Don't know	1	2
Number of childcare support arrangements available		
None	18	26
One	21	28
Two	20	24
Three or more	40	22
Don't know	1	1
Number of family leave arrangements available		
None	20	17
One	34	23
Two	26	28
Three or more	15	30
Don't know	5	3
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,468	1,028

Note: Column percentages.

¹ The figures presented in this table vary from those presented earlier in the chapter as this analysis has included those fathers who answered 'don't know'.

Table 9.14 shows that fathers who had access to flexible working arrangements were more likely to make use of these than mothers (39 per cent of fathers and 13 per cent of mothers did not use flexible working arrangements that were available to them). While there were no differences in the proportion of fathers and mothers who use one type of arrangement, mothers were more likely than fathers to use either two or three or more arrangements.

Mothers were also more likely to make use of childcare arrangements, with 26 per cent of mothers with access not using these arrangements compared to 31 per cent of fathers. In particular, mothers were more likely to use three or more arrangements than fathers (nine per cent and one per cent respectively).

Mothers and fathers did not differ in their probability to make use at least one of the family leave arrangements they had access to. Interestingly, mothers were more likely than fathers to use only one arrangement, while fathers were more likely to use two.

Table 9.14 Number of available family friendly arrangements used in first post-birth job

Base mothers: Mothers who were employees in their first post-birth job and had access to family-friendly arrangements

Base fathers: All fathers working as employees at time of survey (December 2009 if interviewed in 2010) and had access to family friendly arrangements

	Parent	
	Mothers %	Fathers ¹ %
Number of flexible working arrangements used		
None	13	39
One	44	39
Two	28	17
Three or more	15	5
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,283	740
Number of childcare support arrangements available		
None	26	31
One	43	51
Two	22	17
Three or more	9	1
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,178	808
Number of family leave arrangements available		
None	53	55
One	41	33
Two	5	10
Three or more	1	2
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,092	864

Note: Column percentages.

¹ The figures presented in this table vary from those presented earlier in the chapter as this analysis has included those fathers who answered 'don't know'.

9.2 Changes to work patterns

Employed fathers were also asked about how they may have changed their working patterns following the birth of their baby, which may have taken place if fathers wanted to work more flexibly, reduce hours or work at home in order to spend more time looking after the baby or inversely, they may have increased their working hours if their partner was not working following the birth of the baby.

Just over a half of fathers had made no changes to their work patterns following the birth of their baby (see Figure 9.1). Just under one-third (29 per cent) of fathers made one change to working patterns. Twelve per cent made two changes and just three per cent made three or more changes to working patterns following the birth of the baby.

Figure 9.1 Number of changes to work patterns

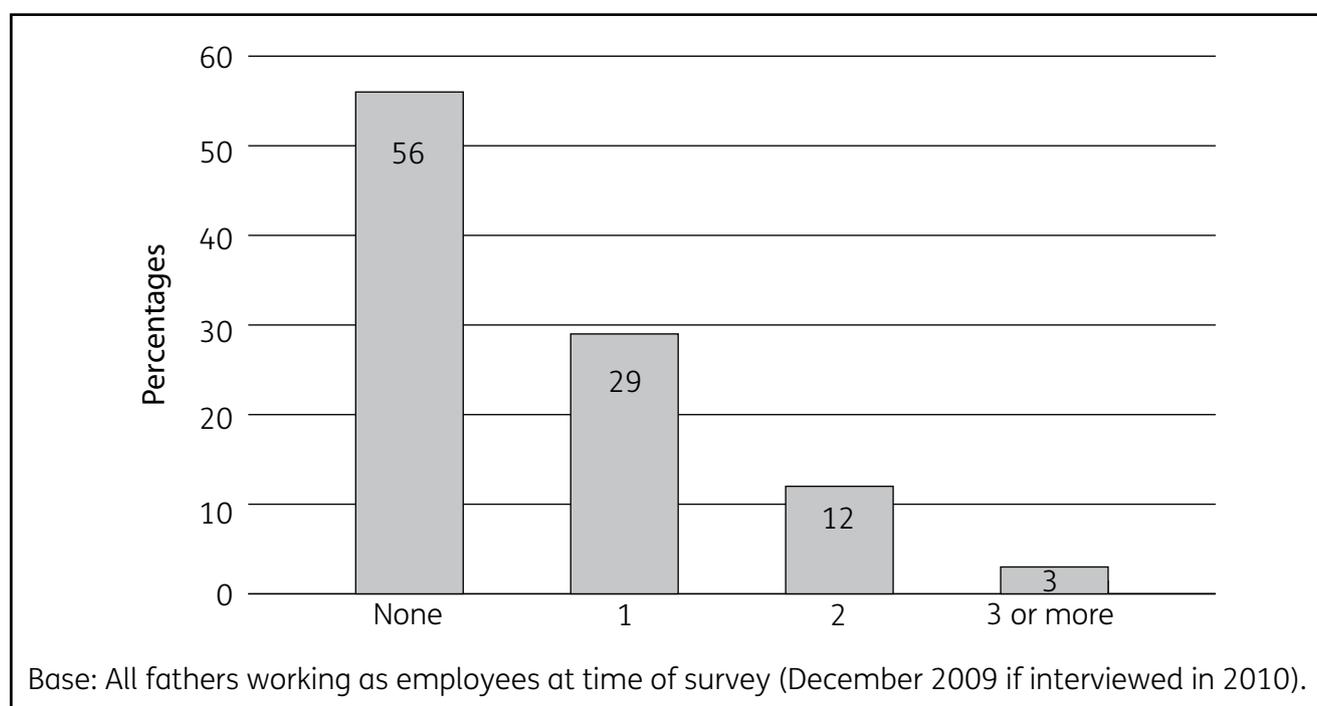


Table 9.15 shows which changes were made by fathers to their work patterns following their baby's birth. Twenty-six per cent of fathers said they now worked shorter hours and this was the same for the number of fathers saying they now worked more flexible hours. Twelve per cent of fathers said they now did more work at home following the birth of their baby and a large proportion (57 per cent) said they had made no changes at all.

The number of fathers who said they worked more flexible hours since the birth of their baby varied significantly by employer size and sector and household income. Fathers working in large private organisations were more likely than fathers in the public sector and smaller private organisations to use more flexible hours. The fathers who were least likely to work more flexible hours worked in medium size private organisations (18 per cent) and the public sector (23 per cent).

In relation to household income, as household income increased, fathers were more likely to have used more flexible working hours following the birth of their baby. Fathers in households with income of over £770 per week were just over twice more likely than fathers in households with income of under £579 to have used more flexible working hours following the birth of their baby.

Table 9.15 Types of changes to work patterns

Base: All fathers working as employees at time of survey

	Changes to work patterns							Unweighted base
	Now work shorter hours %	Work longer hours %	Work more flexible hours %	Do more work at home %	Have changed jobs or place of work %	None %	Work closer to home more %	
Employer size and sector								
Private 1-24	12	5	25	8	3	63	1	245
Private 25-499	7	7	18	10	5	65	2	302
Private 500+	6	6	29	13	5	54	1	323
Public	9	6	23	10	6	59	0	200
Trades union presence								
Yes	7	7	25	10	4	60	0	433
No	10	5	23	11	6	60	1	623
Occupational group								
Managers and senior officials	11	5	33	21	6	51	1	239
Professionals	13	3	35	22	3	47	1	212
Associate professional and technical	5	4	27	9	6	59	0	181
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service	8	3	20	1	8	69	0	98
Skilled trades	13	12	23	5	3	58	1	231
Process, plant and machine operatives	11	11	6	1	1	74	1	115
Elementary occupations	10	4	21	1	4	64	5	90
Age of father								
Under 29	7	9	18	3	8	63	2	178
30-34	10	6	24	7	4	62	0	350
35-39	10	6	30	17	4	52	1	379
40 or above	15	5	28	14	4	53	1	267

Continued

Table 9.15 Continued

Base: All fathers working as employees at time of survey

	Changes to work patterns							Unweighted base	
	Now work shorter hours %	Work longer hours %	Work more flexible hours %	Do more work at home %	Have changed jobs or place of work %	None %	Work closer to home more %		Other %
Family status									
Married	11	6	27	12	4	56	1	1	926
Cohabiting or single	8	8	21	6	6	62	1	0	264
Disability									
Yes	11	8	26	9	5	60		1	127
No	10	6	25	11	5	58	0	1	1062
Ethnicity									
White	10	6	26	11	5	58	0	1	1073
Other groups	16	7	24	6	2	58		1	114
Gross weekly household income									
Under £579	9	12	14	4	5	64	1	1	247
£580-769	9	6	27	7	7	58	0	1	187
£770+	11	4	34	17	4	50	0	1	459
Total	26	6	26	12	5	57	0	1	1,190

Note: Row percentages.

Note: Multiple response.

9.3 Conclusion

This chapter has examined the different types of family-friendly arrangements available to fathers. Fathers were most likely to say they had access to:

- flexible working arrangements such as flexible working, part-time work, reduced hours for an agreed period and working at home sometimes;
- childcare support arrangements such as using the telephone for family reasons, childcare vouchers and career breaks for family reasons;
- family leave arrangements such as fully paid time off for family emergencies, unpaid time off for family emergencies and unpaid parental leave.

Compared to mothers, fathers were less likely to report access to flexible working and childcare support arrangements, while they were more likely to have access to family leave.

The number and take-up of flexible working arrangements and the number of family leave arrangements did not vary significantly by our selected break variables. However, there were significant differences in terms of the number and take up of childcare support arrangements and the take up of family leave arrangements. Just over half of fathers did not make any changes to their work patterns following the birth of their baby, but for those that did, the most common choices were to work shorter hours and to work more flexibly, both of which point to the most common changes being more family-friendly.

10 Conclusion

In this final chapter we summarise the main survey findings by concentrating on four key issues explored by the survey, that is:

- how has maternity experience changed in recent years, focusing on the changes introduced through the Work and Families Act (2006);
- how mothers' experiences around childbirth are affected by the availability of maternity rights and what factors are associated with variations in the take-up of these rights;
- what are the key factors associated with the decision to return to work or stay at home after childbirth;
- how fathers make use of the paternity rights that they are entitled to.

10.1 Maternity rights

Before April 2007 most employed mothers were entitled to 26 weeks of Ordinary Maternity Leave (OML) and another 26 weeks of Additional Maternity Leave (AML). A minority of mothers who had not worked for their employer long enough were entitled to OML only. From April 2007, the qualifying criteria for AML were removed meaning that all employed mothers were eligible for 52 weeks of maternity leave. The Work and Families Act 2006 lengthened the period of Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) and Maternity Allowance (MA) from 26 weeks to 39 weeks.

One of the aims of these policy changes was to give mothers an opportunity to spend more time with their baby during its first year of life (Business Innovation and Skills (BIS), 2010). The results of our survey show that this has indeed happened. In the space of two years between 2006 and 2008, the mean length of maternity leave that mothers take has increased by almost two months from 32 weeks to 39 weeks. The latter figure matches the length of the SMP entitlement and is substantially lower than the Statutory Maternity Leave entitlement itself. Just under half (45 per cent) of the mothers made use of the final unpaid weeks of the maternity leave (weeks 40-52).

The policy changes resulted in more mothers taking longer leave on average, with the increase in the maternity leave taken being just over half the increase in SMP entitlement. However, it is also worth noting that the proportion of mothers who returned to work before their SMP or MA entitlement ended increased. This is probably explained by the fact that the additional period of SMP that mothers are entitled to from 2007 is paid at a relatively low flat rate.

Some groups of mothers benefited more from the policy changes than others. In particular, mothers who were either themselves or whose partner were low paid, were more likely to take a longer leave in 2008 compared to 2006, showing that longer leave has become more affordable to these mothers. The change between the two years was also larger for mothers who worked for small and medium private employers and who were working in skilled, process or elementary occupations as well as mothers working in administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service occupations.

The results of the previous survey showed that in 2006 mothers' decision to return to work was largely motivated by economic considerations. Our analysis shows that this was still true in 2008. In addition to a strong link between the duration of maternity pay and the length of maternity leave that we have already discussed, we also found that the duration of maternity leave was considerably shorter among mothers in an economically disadvantaged position. Those likely to take the shortest maternity leave included: part-time workers, mothers with low earnings, in low

level occupations and self-employed mothers. Furthermore, lone mothers, those with a large family (i.e. three or more children) and with low income partners were among those taking the shortest maternity leave. Conversely, mothers who took the longest periods of maternity leave were in a more advantageous economic position; this group included mothers in full-time employment, in the top income groups and higher level occupations.

The results on the variations in the maternity pay package mothers received also show a strong association between maternity leave decisions and financial considerations. The groups of mothers who took the shortest periods of leave were also those least likely to be financially well supported when they took time off work for childbearing. These mothers were most likely to report that they had received no maternity pay or that they had received the least generous maternity pay package i.e. MA. Predictably, mothers who had taken the longest periods of maternity leave were those who had received the most generous maternity pay package, i.e. SMP combined with additional maternity pay from the employer.

10.2 Employment decisions after birth

One of the motivations of enabling mothers to stay home for longer was to give them more freedom in deciding when they are ready to return to work. It was expected that this would lead to more mothers returning to work and preferably to their previous employer (BIS, 2010), as mothers would not have to resign if they wished to stay at home for longer than the statutory pay period.

A large proportion of mothers (slightly more than three-quarters) returned to work after the birth. However, this proportion has remained unchanged since 2006. Further, the proportion of mothers returning to the same employer was also unchanged. However, in the context of an economic downturn one may expect fewer mothers to return to work, so the policy changes may have had a positive effect by keeping the return to work rate constant.

Mothers' employment decisions after the birth were clearly influenced by both opportunities and constraints. On one hand, mothers who had access to family-friendly arrangements, and who had received maternity pay were more likely to go back to work after childbirth. On the other, lone mothers, younger mothers and those with no qualifications were more likely to stay at home. This could partly reflect the greater difficulties these mothers faced, because of their weak labour market position.

The post-birth work decisions of mothers in more advantageous socio-economic circumstances seemed far less likely to be constrained by the kind of obstacles faced by mothers in disadvantaged groups. Many of the former (including highly qualified mothers, living with a partner, in better paid jobs with access to a number of family-friendly working arrangements) had higher rates of return to work than other mothers. However, in a minority of cases, it also seems that a more advantageous economic situation (i.e. a high earning partner) meant that mothers could afford to stay at home to look after their children.

This pattern of differences in return to work rates did not change between 2006 and 2008, showing that the changes to legislation have not narrowed the gap between better off and less well off mothers.

Another measure introduced by the Work and Families Act 2006 were Keeping In Touch (KIT) days which gave mothers an opportunity to undergo some training and work while on maternity leave. The aim of KIT days was to ensure that mothers maintained their skills, but also that contact with their employer would encourage them to return to work.

The results of this survey showed that most mothers were aware of KIT days, but only a small minority had used them. Mothers who had used KIT days were more likely to return to work than others, however, it is not clear whether these mothers would have returned to work anyway as the overall return to work rate did not change.

Predictably, among returners, employment circumstances changed considerably after the birth. Many mothers reduced their working hours, typically moving from a full-time to a part-time position. Some mothers were less likely to opt for part-time working after work. Notably, mothers in London were more likely to return to work full time. A drop in earnings also characterised mothers' post-birth employment experiences, although the share of mothers affected by this was lower than in 2006.

It should be noted that we have only looked at employment outcomes 12-18 months after the baby was born. It is possible that while the policy changes have had little effect on the immediate outcomes, there is some effect on longer-term outcomes such as remaining in employment and advancing in career.

10.3 Non-returners

Mothers' employment decisions are influenced by a complex interplay of factors, reflecting attitudes towards parenting and views on non-parental care, as well as a range of work and childcare obstacles mothers might encounter. It is, therefore, important to understand to what extent mothers do not return to work because they want to look after the children themselves, or whether lack of childcare and family-friendly arrangements, and low employability might represent the main obstacles to paid employment.

We explored the factors underpinning mothers' decision to stay at home, and have identified different 'types' of non-returners depending on their attitudes towards parenting, and the obstacles to work they were likely to face. These types were broadly similar to the types that were found in the 2007 survey.

Amongst non-returners there were two types of mothers who appeared to be willing to use formal childcare:

- A group, including an above average number of young mothers, who, in principle, seemed happy to leave their children in the care of others in order to go out to work, but reported many childcare and work obstacles (e.g. lack of affordable childcare and family-friendly arrangements) as important reasons for staying at home.
- A group, with an average socio-demographic composition, who, again, seemed happy, in principle, to use non-parental childcare and who did not have many obstacles to returning to work. These mothers were more likely to report being in education or to be looking for work.

Two groups of mothers stood out as being very family oriented:

- A group, with an average socio-economic profile, who had a strong preference for parental care and who also faced some employment and childcare obstacles.
- A group of better off mothers with a strong preference for parental care who had chosen to spend more time with their child and did not face any constraints to employment.

Finally, a small group of mothers stood out as facing a multitude of constraints, including concerns about childcare, job availability, their confidence, health and views of others. These mothers also had a preference for parental care, however, it was not as strong as in the case of the two previous types.

In line with other research on childcare, this survey has found that most mothers were relying on childcare support provided by families and friends, and lone parents were particularly likely to use informal care. As noted elsewhere, this could partly reflect the difficulties lone parents face in paying for formal provision (Bryson *et al.*, 2006; Butt *et al.*, 2007). Informal care seems to be playing an important role in supporting working parents, however, this might not always be available.

The results on family-friendly working arrangements show that there had been a substantial increase in the availability and use of childcare and other support between 2006 and 2008. This was mainly due to more employers offering mothers childcare vouchers and opportunity to remain in contact by using KIT days. There were no changes in the availability and use of flexible working and family leave arrangements. However, it should be noted that the increase in the availability of childcare and other support has not resulted in a higher proportion of mothers returning to work.

While most family-friendly working arrangements were widely available, they were considerably less likely to be reported by lone mothers and more generally those in a weaker labour market position (e.g. mothers in low level occupations and low income groups).

10.4 Paternity rights

The benefits that fathers are entitled to when their partner gives birth are much more limited compared with mothers. In 2008, fathers were entitled to no time off from work before the baby was born and to two weeks of paternity leave after birth. During the paternity leave fathers were entitled to Statutory Paternity Pay (SPP) at a flat rate.

Our results showed that despite the lack of a legal entitlement most fathers took some time off before the birth of their baby, e.g. to attend antenatal appointments with their partner. A vast majority (nine in ten) fathers took some time off after their baby was born. The majority of fathers who took some time off took off the statutory two weeks or more.

Fathers who were more likely to take more time off were employed, with medium earnings, working in large private or public organisations and with access to a larger number of family-friendly arrangements. It is notable that both fathers at the lower end of the occupational and pay scale as well as those in the top end were less likely to take long leave.

The majority of fathers who took time off did so using paternity leave, either on its own or in combination with other types of leave. The take-up of paternity leave was highest among fathers working in large private and public organisations and with access to more family-friendly arrangements.

Although the SPP is paid at a flat rate, the majority of fathers who took paternity leave received their full pay for at least a part of their leave. This indicates that many employers are topping up the statutory pay and paying their employees Occupational Paternity Pay. Fathers more likely to receive Occupational Paternity Pay were more likely to be in a more favourable employment situation, i.e. belong to higher occupational groups, be better paid and have access to a larger number of family-friendly arrangements.

A majority of fathers who did not take any paternity leave or who did not take their full entitlement cited being unable to afford this as the main reason. Paternity leave at the statutory flat rate is likely to represent a considerable drop in income for many fathers. It would seem that in order to avoid this some fathers with no access to Occupational Paternity Pay used other paid leave, such as annual leave, to be with their partner and baby after the birth.

Compared to mothers fathers reported lower availability of the main types of family-friendly working arrangements. Differences were larger in the case of flexible working arrangements and childcare and other support and smaller for family leave arrangements. This could reflect differences between the types of organisations men and women work in, but also greater awareness among women.

Almost half of fathers changed their working arrangements following the birth of their baby.

Appendix A

Technical overview

This appendix gives a detailed overview of the methodology of the Maternity and Paternity Rights Survey 2009/10. We will describe sampling and weighting design, sample problems in wave 1 of the survey and measures taken to overcome these.

A.1 Sample design

The Maternity and Paternity Rights Survey 2009/10 incorporated a sample of mothers and a sample of fathers drawn from Child Benefit records. The sampling and fieldwork were conducted in two waves owing to errors in the original sample. The second wave of sampling was required to rectify problems with the original sample and to ensure cases that had been excluded erroneously were covered. The second wave has restored the sample representativeness and the combined sample now matches that of the population. We are confident it has produced results that are robust and non-biased.

A.1.1 The sample of mothers

The Maternity and Paternity Rights Survey 2009/10 required an achieved sample of 2,000 working mothers in Great Britain. The survey included strict eligibility criteria: only natural mothers of children born between 29 May 2008 and 29 September 2008 (inclusive) who had worked (i.e. had been either employees or self-employed) in the 12 months prior to the birth were eligible. Eligible mothers could not be identified on the sampling frame and were instead identified by interviewers using a short doorstep screening questionnaire.

The sample was drawn from the Child Benefit records held by the Department for Work and Pensions (DWP), on behalf of HM Revenue & Customs (HMRC). Child Benefit is a universal benefit with a high rate of take-up (around 98 per cent). This makes the Child Benefit records a highly comprehensive sampling frame for children. The sample was selected from Child Benefit recipients whose babies were born over a four-month period, from 29 May 2008 to 29 September 2008 (inclusive), and who were resident in a selected area in January 2009. The sample was drawn in two stages:

1. 120 Primary Sampling Units (PSUs) were drawn with equal probability. PSUs comprised postcode sectors or groups of postcode sectors; groups of postcode sectors were treated as a single area;
2. all claimants in the selected PSUs with children in the eligible birth range were selected for the sample.

The design gave a sample that was geographically clustered within the 120 selected areas. This increases fieldwork efficiency and reduces costs.

The first stage of sampling was carried out by NatCen. DWP supplied NatCen with a file of postcode sectors with the number of eligible recipients matched to each postcode sector. In total there were 246,730 in the cohort. Small postcode sectors were merged with their nearest neighbours to create PSUs. Sectors were merged together until each PSU contained on average 36 eligible claimants. Once the clustering had been carried out 120 PSUs were sampled with equal probability. Within each selected area DWP extracted all recipients claiming Child Benefit for children born in the period 29 May 2008 to 29 September 2008 (including the start and end dates). This generated a sample

of 4,139 claimants. This original sample has been termed the ‘wave 1’ sample. During fieldwork it was discovered that there were problems with this sample and that eligible cases had been systematically excluded prior to sample selection.

Fieldwork for wave 1 took place between September and December 2009.

Wave 1 sample issues

Investigations revealed errors had been made in the compilation of the Child Benefit data before sampling by DWP. Sampled recipients had either a Child Benefit record prior to November 2007 (i.e. had had a child before November 2007) or had claimed a DWP benefit since 2002 (when the DWP benefit feeds started to get merged together). The result was that the population surveyed excluded first time mothers who had not had prior contact with DWP through other benefits as well as non-first time mothers who had no recent contact with DWP. This had obvious implications for both headline results and sub-group analysis.

Wave 2 sample

To rectify this problem a second wave of data collection was administered. The wave 2 sample was selected from eligible families that had been excluded by the administrative error at wave 1. The wave 2 sample was selected from the same 120 PSUs as the initial wave 1 sample. The combined sample was carefully checked against the correctly supplied population figures to ensure the wave 2 sample had restored sample representativeness.

For cost reasons, not every excluded eligible case was included in the wave 2 sample. There were 3,430 cases in total that had been incorrectly excluded from wave 1 and were eligible for wave 2. A sample of 1,925 cases was selected.

Wave 2 fieldwork took place from October to December 2010.

Distribution of the sample

Table A.1 shows the distribution of the issued samples compared to population data taken from Child Benefit records. It shows the distribution of the wave 1 sample, as it was initially issued and after incorrect addresses were removed, plus the distributions of the wave 2 and combined samples. The excluded eligible cases were sub-sampled at wave 2 and were slightly under-represented in the combined sample. Selection weights were generated to put the combined sample into its correct proportions. Table A.1 shows the distribution of the combined issued sample weighted by the selection weights; this distribution is very close to that of the population.

Table A.1 Distribution of sample and population

Base: All mothers

Number of children aged 0-16 years in household	Population			Issued sample		
	GB total %	Wave 1 (initial sample) %	Wave 1 (incorrect addresses removed) %	Wave 2 %	Combined (unweighted) %	Combined (selection weights) %
1	47	27	26	70	41	46
2	34	46	46	21	38	34
3	13	20	20	6	16	14
4+	6	8	8	3	6	6
Age of benefit recipient						
<20	5	6	5	5	5	5
20-24	18	19	19	20	19	19
25-29	26	24	24	27	25	25
30-34	28	27	27	28	27	27
35-39	18	19	19	16	18	18
40+	6	6	6	4	6	5
Title of benefit recipient						
Dr	1	0	0	0	0	0
Miss	42	45	45	42	44	44
Mr	9	6	6	9	7	8
Mrs	44	45	45	45	45	45
Ms	4	3	3	4	4	4
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	242,970	4,139	3,868	1,925	5,793	5,793

Note: Column percentages.

Exclusions

There were a small number of exclusions made by DWP to this sampling frame before the sample could be drawn. Benefit recipients with a 'claim in action', where special arrangements had been made by the benefits office, were excluded, as were any recipients who had already been selected for a survey in the previous three years. The exclusions made up five per cent of all recipients. This is a small proportion and their omission from the sample does not introduce any major biases.

A.1.2 The sample of fathers

The fathers' survey was run in addition to the mothers' survey and was conducted by phone. The sample of fathers was a subset of the sample selected for the mothers' survey and was designed to achieve interviews with 1,000 fathers in Great Britain. Fathers were eligible for the survey if they were working at the time of the baby's birth. Non-resident fathers were not eligible for the survey. However, fathers who were resident in December 2009 but no longer resident at the time of the wave 2 survey were included in the sample to ensure comparability with the wave 1 sample.

Of the 4,589 contacted households, 3,787 (2,701 in wave 1 and 1,086 in wave 2) completed the doorstep screener that allowed two-parent households to be identified. Interviewers collected phone numbers and contact details for the resident fathers from these households. 1,811 fathers were identified and issued to NatCen's Telephone Unit where they were contacted, screened and interviewed. All 1,288 fathers identified at wave 1 were followed up and 523 of the 581 fathers identified at wave 2. The wave 2 fathers were sub-sampled because response rates at wave 2 were higher than expected.

Wave 1 fieldwork for fathers took place from November 2009 to January 2010, wave 2 fieldwork from November 2010 to January 2011.

A.2 Design of 2010 questionnaire

The aim of the wave 2 survey was to collect the data that was missing from the wave 1 data. This meant that the data had to be collected, not about the respondents' situation at the time of the interview in 2010 but in autumn/winter 2009. To achieve this, the 2009 questionnaire was carefully adapted by including a reference to December 2009⁴⁵ in all questions that inquired about the current situation. The only question that could not be fully adapted was the question about childcare that in 2009 had used a specific reference week. It would not have been possible to collect such detailed information a year later, so instead the childcare question referred to December 2009.

Before launching the main operation for wave 2, a pilot survey was carried out for both the mothers' and fathers' questionnaires. The overall aim of the pilots was to test whether the approach that had been chosen for the wave 2 survey was producing valid and reliable data. There were two potential threats to robustness: 1) respondents would forget to think of December 2009 and answer about their 2010 situation instead and 2) respondents would struggle to remember the situation in December 2009 and at the time the baby was born.

The sample for the pilots was drawn among the mothers and fathers who in the wave 2 survey had agreed to be recontacted. This allowed comparison of the responses given in wave 2 to the answers that respondents had given to the same questions a year earlier. The wave 1 answers were assumed to be more reliable, meaning that any large differences between the years would be an indication of problems in the wave 2 questionnaire. In addition to the survey questions for the mainstage, the pilot questionnaires included a few respondent feedback questions that aimed at collecting further information about any difficulties they encountered.

Overall, 21 mothers and 35 fathers were reinterviewed for the pilot. Interviewers reported that respondents did not have any major problems with recall and understood the requirement to think about the situation in 2009 and not at the time of the interview. Pilot results for both mothers and fathers were compared with the answers they gave in the mainstage survey. Some differences were found, but these tended to be random and small in magnitude. It was, thus, concluded that the wave 2 questionnaire was a robust instrument for collecting information about 2009.

A.3 Data cleaning

Both surveys collected detailed information about payment and leave periods, pay amounts and percentages. Respondents can make mistakes when reporting this information and interviewers may make data entry errors. As these variables were used to derive some of the key estimates from

⁴⁵ December 2009 was chosen as a reference period, because the holiday season was expected to serve as a salient reference point to respondents.

the survey, it was important that the potential error was kept to a minimum. To do this NatCen researchers devised checks to verify the data. These were mainly range checks for improbable amounts and consistency checks between pay type, length and pay amount. The cases that failed the checks were examined and rules were devised to resolve the check (this included changing values for one or more variables or leaving the case as it was). As a general principle, if there was nothing in the contextual information to suggest which pieces of contradictory information were incorrect or if the situation was unlikely, but possible, then no changes were made.

A.4 Weighting

Selection weights were required to adjust for lower selection probabilities of households selected at the second wave of sampling. A set of non-response weights was also generated for both samples that adjusted for non-response at different stages of the survey process. The weighting strategy ensured that the combined sample was representative of the intended population and would produce robust and unbiased results.

A.4.1 Mothers' weights

Selection weights

Not all cases eligible for wave 2 were selected for the sample due to the costs this would have involved. Hence, the wave 2 sample had lower selection probabilities than those sampled in 2009 and were slightly under-represented in the combined sample. Selection weights were generated to put the combined sample into its correct proportions.

Non-response weights for the mothers' sample

The survey included strict eligibility criteria, meaning that only natural mothers who had worked at some point in the 12 months before the birth were eligible. Eligible mothers could not be identified on the sampling frame and were instead identified by interviewers using a short doorstep screening questionnaire. This feature of the sample design had implications for the weighting strategy, as it rendered population-based weighting schemes, such as calibration weighting, unsuitable since there were no robust population estimates available for this specific population. Instead model-based methods have been used to generate non-response weights. A model-based approach also means more information could be incorporated into the weights, as calibration weighting usually incorporates only a small number of measures. Additionally, the models themselves also demonstrate where the biases lie and how they are being addressed.

The non-response weights were built up over a number of stages. We were unable to model the response behaviour of eligible mothers directly, as we could not identify which of the non-respondents on the sampling frame were eligible.⁴⁶ Instead, logistic regression modelling was used to model the propensity of a household or individual to take part at different stages of the survey process. The models were used to generate predicted probabilities that the household/individual would respond to that particular stage. The non-response weights at each stage are the inverse of these predicted probabilities. The final weights were the product of the non-response weights from different stages and account for non-response bias at all steps. The two waves of fieldwork were modelled separately; the difference in fieldwork dates could have affected response behaviour, modelling the two groups separately would account for this.

⁴⁶ In order to model the response behaviour of eligible mothers we would need to run a model where the outcome variable was 1 = responding eligible mother, 0 = non-responding eligible mother. We are unable to do this as we cannot identify the latter group, which would require the sampling frame to hold information on employment history.

There were three stages for the mother's non-response weights, these were:

1. household was contacted at the selected address;
2. contacted household completed the screener questionnaire; and
3. eligible mother completed the survey.

The first stage was to model whether or not contact was made with the selected address. The response to wave 2 was higher than expected. As a result, fieldwork closed earlier than planned and some cases in wave 2 were not fully worked; fewer calls were made to these addresses and contact rates were lower. Contact was modelled separately to account for any differences in the sample caused by this. 5,793 cases were issued in total (3,868⁴⁷ in wave 1 and 1,925 in wave 2). Contact was made with 4,589 households; 3,234 (84 per cent) in wave 1 and 1,355 (70 per cent) in wave 2. The remaining 1,204 cases were made up of refusals, non-contacts and opt-outs.

The full contact models can be seen in Table A.4. Wave 1 cases who were contacted were more likely to live in: streets that the interviewer recorded as in good condition relative to the surrounding area; the North East; urban areas (contact was lowest in rural areas, possibly due to adverse weather conditions during the fieldwork period); households with more than one child; households where the claimant's title was 'Miss'; and where the claimant was older. Wave 2 cases were also more likely to be contacted if they: lived in areas in good condition; lived in Scotland; were older; lived in areas where there was a higher proportion of detached housing and in areas with a lower proportion of non-manual workers, both proxies of local affluence.

The second stage was to model mothers' response to the doorstep screen. Of the 4,589 mothers who were contacted 3,923 completed the doorstep screen (2,793 in wave 1 and 1,130 in wave 2). Response to the screener varied slightly by wave: 86 per cent of contacted cases in wave 1 responded to the screener compared with 84 per cent in wave 2. The screener allowed the eligibility of these mothers to be established.

The full models for response to the screen can be seen in Table A.5. Wave 1 cases who completed the screener were more likely to be younger, have fewer children, have the title 'Miss' and live in areas with a lower proportion of non-manual workers. Wave 2 cases who responded to the screen were also younger and more likely to have the title 'Miss'. They were more likely to live in a good area, have two children and live in an area with a higher proportion of flats (more urban areas).

The third and final stage was to model response behaviour of mothers who had been screened in. Mothers who did not meet the survey eligibility criteria, or whose eligibility could not be established, were excluded from the response analysis. For the purposes of modelling response behaviour, any Child Benefit recipients who were screened in but refused to participate before the interview were deemed eligible. This left 2,471 mothers. We modelled the non-response behaviour of these mothers; comparing the 1,304 mothers in wave 1 who completed the interview with the 289 who refused, could not be re-contacted, broke appointments or were ill. The corresponding figures for wave 2 are 727 and 152. Under this definition, response rates were slightly higher for wave 2 respondents: 83 per cent compared with 82 per cent in wave 1.

In wave 1, response of eligible mothers to the survey was higher for older mothers (older claimants were more reluctant to complete the screener, however, those who did and were screened in were more likely to go on and complete the full survey), mothers living in the North East and mothers living in good areas. Wave 2 responding mothers were more likely to live at addresses with no barriers to entry (barriers are common in flats and urban areas), in areas of good condition, have the

⁴⁷ There were 3,868 cases issued correctly in wave 1, see Section A.1 for more details.

title ‘Mrs’ or ‘Ms’, did not live in the least deprived area but lived in areas with a lower proportion of terraced housing. The full models can be seen in Table A.6.

Final weights

The final weights are the product of the non-response weights from each stage and the selection weights from wave 2, they account for selection bias and non-response bias at the different stages.

Table A.2 Weighted sample distribution

Base: All mothers

	Population		Combined sample		
	GB total %	Issued (selection weights) %	Contacted (non-response weights) %	Screened (non-response weights) %	Responded (non-response weights) %
Number of children aged 0-16					
1	47	46	46	46	56
2	34	34	35	35	33
3	13	14	14	14	9
4+	6	6	6	6	3
Age of recipient					
<20	5	5	5	5	4
20-24	18	19	20	19	16
25-29	26	25	25	25	25
30-34	28	27	27	27	30
35-39	18	18	18	18	20
40+	6	5	5	5	5
Title					
Dr	1	0	0	0	1
Miss	42	44	43	43	39
Mr	9	8	8	8	6
Mrs	44	45	46	46	51
Ms	4	4	4	4	4
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	242,970	5,793	4,589	3,923	2,031

Table A.2 shows the distribution of weighted sample. It shows that the combined issued sample, weighted by the selection weight, is very close to both the population and the 2007 sample. It also shows how the weighted compositions of the contacted and screened sample are very close to that of the overall population. We must assume that any differences between the screener respondents and the survey respondents are due to sample composition and not non-response, however, there are no population figures available to check this assumption.

A.4.2 Fathers' weights

The approach used to generate the weights for the fathers' sample was the same as that used for the mothers: selection weights were required to adjust for different selection probabilities in wave 2 and non-response weights were generated by modelling non-response behaviour at different stages in the interviewing process in both waves. The combined sample selection weights generated for the mothers' sample were used again. Logistic regression modelling was used to model the propensity of a household or individual to respond to different stages of the survey. Some stages are different for the fathers' and mothers' survey because of the differences in the way the two samples were contacted. The stages for the fathers' sample non-response weights were:

1. household was contacted at the selected address;
2. contacted household confirmed whether or not the natural father was resident; and
3. father's response to a telephone interview.

Stage 1 is analogous to stage 1 of the mothers' weights, hence the same weights, and therefore, the same models, were used.

At each stage a logistic regression model was run to identify which variables, from a set of potential predictor variables, best explained the non-response behaviour at that stage. The models were used to generate predicted probabilities that the household or individual would respond to that stage. The non-response weights are the inverse of these predicted probabilities. As before, the two waves were modelled separately and the weights combined.

This method was utilised because there is no robust population information for the specific populations targeted by this survey. By adjusting the sample for non-response at each stage we have attempted to remove any biases that creep in at the points at which respondents are likely to drop out.

Stage 2 of the weighting was to model whether or not the contacted household would confirm whether the father was present at the address. Of the 4,589 contacted households, 3,787 (2,701 in wave 1 and 1,086 in wave 2) gave out this information, the remaining 802 would not confirm either way. Households in wave 1 were more likely to have provided this information if the claimant was younger and they lived in Scotland. They were less likely to provide information if they lived in London or the South (East or West). Households in wave 2 that contained younger claimants, were in areas in good condition, in areas where a higher proportion of housing stock was flats and in areas where a higher proportion of homes were owner-occupied were more likely to provide information. Information was also more likely to be gained if the father was the claimant. The full models are given in Table A.7.

Stage 3 was to model the response behaviour of fathers to the telephone interview. Fathers who did not meet the survey eligibility criteria, whose eligibility could not be established, or whose details were not provided, were excluded from the response analysis. 1,811 fathers were issued to NatCen's Telephone Unit; this is all 1,288 fathers identified at wave 1 and 523 of the 581 fathers identified at wave 2. The wave 2 fathers were sub-sampled because response rates at wave 2 were higher than expected. An adjustment was made for the difference in selection probabilities before modelling for non-response at this stage. The non-response behaviour of these fathers was then modelled; the 871 fathers in wave 1 who completed the interview were compared to the 417 who refused, could not be re-contacted or broke appointments. The corresponding figures for wave 2 were 382 and 141. Response rates were higher for wave 2 respondents: 73 per cent compared to 68 per cent.

Fathers in wave 1 were more likely to respond to the telephone interview if the claimant was older, had fewer children, if they lived in a detached house, lived in a rural area and lived in an area in relatively good condition. Fathers in wave 2 were more likely to respond if the claimant was older, there were fewer children, the claimant title was ‘Mrs’ (were part of a married couple) lived in the suburbs and had no barriers to the address entrance. The full models are given in Table A.8.

The final weights account for selection bias and non-response bias at the different stages and are generated as the product of the non-response weights from each stage plus the selection weights. We do not have population figures available for fathers, hence, no comparisons can be made between the weighted sample and population of interest.

Distributions of the final non-response weights for both samples are given in Table A.3. The fathers’ weights have a wider range. This is due to the larger differences in the levels of non-response of different sub-groups of fathers within the sample, as reflected in the non-response models.

Table A.3 Range of the final weights

Final non-response weights	Unweighted sample	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mothers	2,031	0.53	2.49	1.00	0.43
Fathers	1,253	0.48	4.13	1.00	0.50

A.5 Conclusion

The error in sampling for the 2009 survey meant that a substantial and non-random part of mothers’ and fathers’ data was missing from the sample. The best way to rectify this problem was to collect the missing data from mothers and fathers who had been missed out originally. The specific purpose of the additional surveys of mothers and fathers was, to recreate what would have happened if the fieldwork was conducted as intended between October and December 2009.

Three main measures were taken to ensure that the 2010 data collection operation would produce robust data that could be included in the 2009 dataset:

1. Sample selection from the cases that were missed originally. The problems with the original sample selection were thoroughly investigated and the missing cases were identified. The compilation of the new sample frame was independently checked within DWP. The sample selection was double checked within NatCen.
2. Thorough questionnaire design. The 2009 questionnaire was carefully adapted for 2010 operation and field tested before the mainstage. The results of the field pilots confirmed that parents were able to recall the 2009 situation and the events at the time of the baby’s birth.
3. Robust weighting strategy. The weighting scheme takes account of all the complexities of the sample design. The weights have been double checked and quality assured within NatCen.

As a result, the data collected in 2010 fills ‘the gap’ in the 2009 data, meaning that the combined data is robust and reliable.

Table A.4 Logistic regression model of contact

	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Wave 1			
Condition of the area (interviewer observation)			
Mainly good	1.00		
Mainly fair	0.74	0.54	0.94
Mainly bad	0.56	0.19	0.93
Government Office Region			
A North East	1.00		
B North West	0.72	0.19	1.25
D Yorkshire and Humberside	0.93	0.35	1.51
E East Midlands	0.79	0.19	1.39
F West Midlands	0.78	0.23	1.33
G East of England	0.86	0.28	1.44
H London	0.56	0.00	1.12
J South East	0.40	-0.14	0.94
K South West	0.68	0.09	1.27
W Wales	0.95	0.28	1.62
X Scotland	1.06	0.42	1.70
	0.96	-0.15	2.07
DEFRA area classification			
1 Major Urban	1.00		
2 Large Urban	0.82	0.42	1.22
3 Other Urban	1.07	0.70	1.44
4 Significant Rural	0.52	0.17	0.87
5 Rural – 50	0.99	0.65	1.33
6 Rural – 80	1.26	0.81	1.71
Number of children			
1	1.00		
2	1.36	1.14	1.58
3	1.47	1.19	1.75
4+	1.35	0.98	1.72
Proportion of households in local area private renting	0.98	0.97	0.99
Claimant's title			
Miss	1.00		
Mr	0.73	0.37	1.09
Mrs	1.17	0.95	1.39
Ms	0.75	0.28	1.22

Continued

Table A.4 Continued

	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Claimant's age			
<25	1.00		
25-29	1.09	0.83	1.35
30-34	1.42	1.13	1.71
35-39	1.52	1.20	1.84
40+	1.15	0.73	1.57
Constant	7.42	6.89	7.95
Wave2			
Condition of the area (interviewer observation)			
Mainly good	1.00		
Mainly fair	0.66	0.44	0.88
Mainly bad	0.86	0.22	1.50
Government Office Region			
A North East	1.00		
B North West	0.86	0.30	1.42
D Yorkshire and Humberside	0.84	0.25	1.43
E East Midlands	0.90	0.29	1.51
F West Midlands	1.04	0.47	1.61
G East of England	1.38	0.80	1.96
H London	1.26	0.66	1.86
J South East	1.05	0.50	1.60
K South West	1.07	0.47	1.67
W Wales	1.16	0.47	1.85
X Scotland	3.29	2.56	4.02
Claimant's age			
<25	1.00		
25-29	1.31	1.04	1.58
30-34	1.62	1.33	1.91
35-39	1.53	1.20	1.86
40+	1.99	1.43	2.55
Proportion of houses in local area detached housing	1.01	1.00	1.02
Proportion of individuals in local area in non-manual occupations	0.98	0.97	0.99
Constant	3.30	2.68	3.92

Response is: 1 = contact made at address, 0 = no contact made.

Rows with blank confidence intervals signify the reference categories.

Figures in **bold** vary significantly from the baseline.

Table A.5 Logistic regression model of response of contacted households to the doorstep screen

	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Wave 1			
Claimant's age			
<25	1.00		
25-29	0.55	0.16	0.94
30-34	0.39	0.00	0.78
35-39	0.41	-0.01	0.83
40+	0.38	-0.14	0.90
Claimant's title			
Miss	1.00		
Mr	0.91	0.46	1.36
Mrs	0.69	0.43	0.95
Ms	0.60	0.05	1.15
Number of children			
1	1.00		
2	0.98	0.69	1.27
3	1.46	1.11	1.81
4+	1.35	0.90	1.80
Proportion of individuals in local area in non-manual occupations			
	0.99	0.98	1.00
Constant	21.95	21.55	22.35
Wave 2			
Claimant's age			
<25	1.00		
25-29	0.56	0.08	1.04
30-34	0.41	-0.08	0.90
35-39	0.37	-0.17	0.91
40+	0.31	-0.45	1.07
Claimant's title			
Miss	1.00		
Mr	1.15	0.54	1.76
Mrs	0.59	0.25	0.93
Ms	2.06	0.98	3.14

Continued

Table A.5 Continued

	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Number of children			
1	1.00		
2	1.69	1.30	2.08
3	1.29	0.69	1.89
4+	0.95	0.17	1.73
Condition of the local area (interviewer observation)			
Good	1.00		
Fair/bad	0.64	0.33	0.95
Proportion of houses in local area that are flats			
Constant	11.54	11.05	12.03

Response is: 1 = responded to screener, 0 = not respond to screener.

Rows with blank confidence intervals signify the reference categories.

Figures in bold vary significantly from the baseline.

Table A.6 Logistic regression model of non-response of screened in respondents to the survey

	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Wave 1			
Condition of the local area (interviewer observation)			
Good	1.00		
Fair/bad	0.76	0.49	1.03
Condition of the address (interviewer observation)			
Good	1.00		
Fair/bad	0.60	0.21	0.99
Government Office Region			
A North East	1.00		
B North West	0.72	-0.01	1.45
D Yorkshire and Humberside	1.87	0.97	2.77
E East Midlands	0.58	-0.21	1.37
F West Midlands	0.52	-0.21	1.25
G East of England	0.48	-0.27	1.23
H London	0.38	-0.35	1.11
J South East	0.63	-0.10	1.36
K South West	0.84	0.05	1.63
W Wales	0.67	-0.20	1.54
X Scotland	1.20	0.38	2.02

Continued

Table A.6 Continued

	95% Confidence Level		
	Odds Ratio	Lower	Upper
Claimant's age			
<25	1.00		
25-29	0.89	0.50	1.28
30-34	0.97	0.59	1.35
35-39	1.60	1.17	2.03
40+	1.78	1.12	2.44
Constant	19.45	18.37	20.53
Wave 2			
Barriers to the address			
No	1.00		
Yes	0.48	-0.20	1.16
Conditon of the local area (interviewer observation)			
Good	1.00		
Fair/bad	0.56	0.17	0.95
Claimant's title			
Miss	1.00		
Mr	1.47	0.69	2.25
Mrs/Ms	2.00	1.62	2.38
Index of Multiple Deprivation of local area (quintiles)			
1: Least deprived	1.00		
2	1.61	1.05	2.17
3	1.28	0.77	1.79
4	2.85	2.23	3.47
5: Most deprived	2.44	1.77	3.11
Proportion of houses in local area that are terraced	0.98	0.97	0.99
Constant	4.80	4.28	5.32

Response is: 1 = screened in respondent participated, 0 = screened in respondent refused.

Rows with blank confidence intervals signify the reference categories.

Figures in **bold** vary significantly from the baseline.

Table A.7 Logistic regression model of information about fathers provided by contacted households

	95% Confidence Level		
	Odds Ratio	Lower	Upper
Wave 1			
Claimant's age			
<25	1.00		
25-29	0.68	0.38	0.98
30-34	0.55	0.27	0.83
35-39	0.57	0.27	0.87
40+	0.57	0.15	0.99
Government Office Region			
A North East	0.80	0.21	1.39
B North West	1.05	0.58	1.52
D Yorkshire and Humberside	0.81	0.30	1.32
E East Midlands	0.78	0.26	1.30
F West Midlands	0.82	0.34	1.30
G East of England	0.47	0.00	0.94
H London	0.57	0.11	1.03
J South East	0.61	0.16	1.06
K South West	0.59	0.10	1.08
W Wales	0.61	0.07	1.15
X Scotland	1.00		
Constant	10.92	10.50	11.34
Wave 2			
Claimant's age			
<25	1.00		
25-29	0.57	0.15	0.99
30-34	0.47	0.03	0.91
35-39	0.40	-0.09	0.89
40+	0.33	-0.38	1.04
Claimant's title			
Mrs	1.00		
Miss	1.18	0.87	1.49
Mr	2.45	1.86	3.04
Ms	2.26	1.38	3.14
Condition of the area (interviewer observation)			
Mainly good	1.00		
Mainly fair	0.64	0.34	0.94
Mainly bad	1.01	0.03	1.99
Proportion of houses in local area that are flats	1.02	1.01	1.03
Proportion of houses in local area that are owner occupied	1.01	1.00	1.02
Constant	2.50	1.50	3.50

Response is: 1 = info provided about father's presence in household, 0 = no information provided.

Rows with blank confidence intervals signify the reference categories.

Figures in **bold** vary significantly from the baseline.

Table A.8 Logistic regression model of response of fathers to telephone questionnaire

	95% Confidence Level		
	Odds Ratio	Lower	Upper
Wave 1			
Claimant's age			
<25	1.00		
25-29	1.28	0.88	1.68
30-34	2.14	1.74	2.54
35-39	3.29	2.84	3.74
40+	3.27	2.64	3.90
Number of children			
1	1.00		
2	1.18	0.84	1.52
3	0.87	0.47	1.27
4+	0.33	-0.21	0.87
Dwelling type			
Detached house	1.00		
Semi-detached house	0.93	0.54	1.32
Terraced house (including end)	0.73	0.33	1.13
Flat or maisonette	0.57	0.04	1.10
DEFRA area classification			
1 Major Urban	1.00		
2 Large Urban	1.04	0.59	1.49
3 Other Urban	1.06	0.72	1.40
4 Significant Rural	1.47	1.05	1.89
5 Rural – 50	1.78	1.37	2.19
6 Rural – 80	1.54	1.06	2.02
Condition of the area (interviewer observation)			
Mainly good	1.00		
Mainly fair	0.75	0.48	1.02
Mainly bad	0.59	-0.02	1.20
Constant	1.33	0.76	1.90

Continued

Table A.8 Continued

	95% Confidence Level		
	Odds Ratio	Lower	Upper
Wave 2			
Claimant's age (in years)	1.04	1.00	1.08
Number of children			
1	1.00		
2	0.63	0.13	1.13
3	0.41	-0.36	1.18
4+	0.79	-0.86	2.44
Claimant's title			
Mrs	1.00		
Miss	0.54	0.06	1.02
Mr	0.88	0.17	1.59
Ms	0.32	-0.64	1.28
Barriers to the address			
No	1.00		
Yes	0.34	-0.57	1.25
ONS ward-level area classification			
1 Industrial Hinterlands	1.00		
2 Traditional Manufacturing	0.57	-0.14	1.28
3 Built up areas and prospering met	0.81	-0.37	1.99
5 Student Communities	1.37	0.21	2.53
6 Multicultural Metropolitan	1.29	0.12	2.46
7 Suburbs and Small Towns	1.87	1.32	2.42
8 Coastal and Countryside	1.10	0.42	1.78
9 Accessible Countryside	1.04	0.20	1.88
Constant	1.12	-0.17	2.41

Response is: 1 = responded to telephone questionnaire, 0 = not responded.

Rows with blank confidence intervals signify the reference categories.

Figures in **bold** vary significantly from the baseline.

Appendix B

Logistic regression results

Table B.1 Factors predicting mothers' receipt of no maternity pay

Mother received no maternity pay	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower	Upper
Employer size and sector – before birth			
Private 1-24	1.000		
Private 25-499	.440	.260	.746
Private 500+	.382	.160	.910
Public	.442	.235	.831
Self employed	1.320	.448	3.883
Whether trades union in workplace – before birth			
Yes	1.000		
No	1.556	.858	2.819
Self employed	1.556	.858	2.819
Number of family friendly arrangements			
None	1.000		
1 to 2	.989	.515	1.898
3 to 4	.786	.387	1.597
5 or more	.510	.260	1.000
Self-employed	.510	.260	1.000
Occupational group			
Managers and senior officials	1.000		
Professionals	1.975	.560	6.966
Associate professional and technical occupations	1.391	.396	4.886
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service occupations	1.982	.629	6.246
Skilled trades, process, plant and machinery operatives, and elementary occupations	2.667	.808	8.808
Hourly gross pay – before birth (bands)			
£1 to £4.99	1.000		
£5 to £7.49	.632	.329	1.213
£7.50 to £9.99	.433	.185	1.016
£10 to £12.49	1.133	.467	2.748
£12.50 to £14.99	1.128	.398	3.198
£15 to £20	.604	.217	1.683
More than £20	.779	.254	2.382

Continued

Table B.1 Continued

Mother received no maternity pay	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower	Upper
Weekly working hours – before birth			
1-15 hours	1.000		
16-29 hours	.268	.161	.446
30 or more hours	.278	.155	.498
Years in last pre-birth job			
Less than 1 year	1.000		
1-2 years	.312	.153	.636
More than 2, up to 5 years	.106	.061	.183
More than 5, up to 10 years	.079	.042	.150
More than 10 years	.068	.024	.187
No. of children aged 14 and under			
1 child	1.000		
2 children	1.824	1.087	3.060
3 or more children	3.636	2.126	6.217
Family status			
Partnered parent	1.000		
Lone parent	2.294	1.362	3.863
Age of mother			
Under 26	1.000		
25-29	.571	.336	.971
30-34	.440	.250	.775
35-39	.622	.309	1.251
40 or above	.468	.153	1.429

Rows with blank confidence intervals signify the reference categories.

Grey highlighting depicts the significant factors, and bold text signifies the categories within factors that are significantly different to the reference category.

Table B.2 Factors predicting mothers' receipt of Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) and Occupational Maternity Pay (OMP)

Mother received no maternity pay	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower	Upper
Employer size and sector – before birth			
Private 1-24	1.000		
Private 25-499	.935	.592	1.476
Private 500+	2.483	1.479	4.166
Public	1.995	1.216	3.273
Self-employed	.050	.007	.367
Whether trades union in work place – before birth			
Yes	1.000		
No	.502	.356	.708
Self employed	.502	.356	.708
Number of family-friendly arrangements			
None	1.000		
1 to 2	3.137	1.063	9.255
3 to 4	3.516	1.267	9.755
5 or more	4.746	1.715	13.138
Self-employed	4.746	1.715	13.138
Occupational group			
Managers and senior officials	1.174	.723	1.906
Professionals	1.175	.750	1.843
Associate professional and technical occupations	.839	.517	1.363
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer service occupations	.426	.192	.943
Skilled trades, process, plant and machinery operatives, and elementary occupations	2.667	.808	8.808
Hourly gross pay – before birth (bands)			
£1 to £4.99	1.000		
£5 to £7.49	1.796	.743	4.343
£7.50 to £9.99	2.584	.949	7.039
£10 to £12.49	2.253	.859	5.911
£12.50 to £14.99	2.896	1.134	7.399
£15 to £20	3.694	1.333	10.231
More than £20	5.844	2.261	15.108

Continued

Table B.2 Continued

Mother received no maternity pay	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower	Upper
Weekly working hours – before birth			
1-15 hours	1.000		
16-29 hours	2.059	1.150	3.686
30 or more hours	3.113	1.771	5.471
Years in last pre-birth job			
Less than 1 year	1.000		
1-2 years	4.798	1.237	18.609
More than 2, up to 5 years	11.427	2.883	45.286
More than 5, up to 10 years	13.119	3.415	50.396
More than 10 years	13.301	3.293	53.722
No. of children aged 14 and under			
1 child	1.000		
2 children	.695	.506	.956
3 or more children	.447	.264	.758
Family status			
Partnered parent	1.000		
Lone parent	.787	.455	1.363
Age of mother			
Under 26	1.000		
25-29	2.741	1.320	5.691
30-34	2.449	1.072	5.597
35-39	2.598	1.075	6.279
40 or above	2.528	1.007	6.345

Rows with blank confidence intervals signify the reference categories.

Grey highlighting depicts the significant factors, and bold text signifies the categories within factors that are significantly different to the reference category.

Table B.3 Factors predicting mothers’ return to work, model 1 – all mothers

	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Employer size and sector – before birth			
Public	1		
Private 1-24	.470	.314	.703
Private 25-499	.621	.431	.894
Private 500+	.397	.255	.618
Workforce gender composition – before birth			
All/mostly women	1		
Half women and half men	1.213	.854	1.723
Mostly men	1.334	.845	2.108
Number of family-friendly arrangements at work before birth- grouped			
5 or more	1		
None	.615	.364	1.039
1 to 2	.865	.600	1.247
3 to 4	.769	.518	1.143
Occupational group – before birth			
Managers and senior officials	1		
Professionals	.652	.353	1.203
Associate professional and technical	1.104	.549	2.221
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services	.643	.364	1.134
Skilled trades	.661	.340	1.285
Age of mother			
40 or above	1		
Under 25	1.356	.652	2.821
25-29	1.622	.793	3.318
30-34	1.193	.644	2.208
35-39	.801	.406	1.580
Hourly gross pay			
More than £15	1		
Less than £5	.484	.266	.879
£5-£9.99	.785	.459	1.342
£10-£14.99	.826	.462	1.477
Weekly working hours – before birth			
30 or more hours	1		
1-15 hours	1.121	.638	1.971
16-29 hours	.955	.649	1.405
Employment status – before birth			
Permanent	1		
Temporary	1.268	.795	2.022

Continued

Table B.3 Continued

	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Years in last pre-birth job			
More than 10 years	1		
Less than 1 year	.132	.061	.288
1 to 2 years	.134	.072	.249
More than 2, up to 5 years	.715	.404	1.266
More than 5, up to 10 years	.890	.520	1.525
Type of maternity pay received			
Statutory Maternity Pay only	1		
Maternity Allowance only	.537	.340	.847
Statutory Maternity Pay and Occupational Maternity Pay	1.282	.843	1.951
Maternity Allowance and Occupational Maternity Pay	2.540	.212	30.438
Occupational Maternity Pay only	1.572	.637	3.878
None	.404	.252	.647
Family structure			
Partnered	1		
Lone parent	.567	.388	.829
Number of children aged 14 and under			
1 child	1		
2 children	1.282	.906	1.816
3 or more children	1.828	1.051	3.182
Whether any school aged children			
Pre-school children only	1		
Pre-school and school aged children	.936	.589	1.487
Mother's ethnicity			
White	1		
None-white	1.523	.823	2.819
Mother's highest educational level			
NVQ 4+	1		
NVQ 3	1.065	.695	1.631
NVQ 1-2	.641	.437	.941
No qualifications	.839	.344	2.050
Whether someone in family has disability			
No	1		
Yes	.858	.606	1.214
Whether mother cares for relative or friend			
Yes	1		
No	1.573	.717	3.452

Continued

Table B.3 Continued

	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Location respondent lives in			
London	1		
Yorkshire and Humberside	2.037	.932	4.453
South East	1.376	.697	2.718
North East	1.714	.796	3.690
East England	.812	.367	1.796
East Midlands	3.248	1.385	7.615
West Midlands	2.339	1.100	4.972
South West	1.731	.660	4.542
North West	1.795	.832	3.876
Wales	1.514	.675	3.395
Scotland	1.991	.755	5.247

Rows with blank confidence intervals signify the reference categories.

Grey highlighting depicts the significant factors, and bold text signifies the categories within factors that are significantly different to the reference category.

Table B.4 Factors predicting mothers’ return to work, model 2 – partnered mothers

	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Employer size and sector – before birth			
Public	1		
Private 1-24	.569	.343	.943
Private 25-499	.692	.400	1.197
Private 500+	.428	.269	.681
Workforce gender composition – before birth (p=0.220)			
All/mostly women	1		
Half women and half men	1.189	.806	1.754
Mostly men	1.651	.911	2.992
No of family friendly arrangements at work before birth-grouped (p=0.150)			
5 or more	1		
None	.453	.230	.892
1 to 2	.916	.538	1.561
3 to 4	.886	.541	1.453

Continued

Table B.4 Continued

	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Occupational group – before birth			
Managers and senior officials	1		
Professionals	.436	.218	.872
Associate professional and technical	.723	.304	1.720
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services	.311	.168	.575
Skilled trades	.431	.203	.917
Age of mother			
40 or above	1		
Under 25	1.802	.739	4.399
25-29	1.613	.649	4.011
30-34	1.044	.483	2.255
35-39	.691	.321	1.489
Hourly gross pay (p=0.210)			
More than £15	1		
Less than £5	.429	.196	.942
£5-£9.99	.703	.357	1.384
£10-£14.99	.739	.411	1.328
Weekly working hours – before birth (p=0.120)			
30 or more hours	1		
1-15 hours	1.488	.711	3.114
16-29 hours	.787	.511	1.212
Employment status – before birth (p=0.856)			
Permanent	1		
Temporary	1.059	.569	1.970
Years in last pre-birth job			
More than 10 years	1		
Less than 1 year	.156	.058	.419
1 to 2 years	.162	.080	.329
More than 2, up to 5 years	.738	.403	1.353
More than 5, up to 10 years	1.086	.616	1.917
Type of maternity pay received			
Statutory Maternity Pay only	1		
Maternity Allowance only	.532	.275	1.031
Statutory Maternity Pay and Occupational Maternity Pay	1.369	.839	2.234
Maternity Allowance and Occupational Maternity Pay	1.557	.117	20.692
Occupational Maternity Pay only	2.277	.786	6.598
None	.526	.259	1.071
Number of children aged 14 and under			
1 child	1		
2 children	1.300	.851	1.987
3 or more children	2.134	1.183	3.851

Continued

Table B.4 Continued

	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Whether any school aged children			
Pre-school children only	1		
Pre-school and school aged children	.780	.476	1.278
Mother's ethnicity			
White	1		
Non-white	1.699	.811	3.559
Mother's highest educational level			
NVQ 4+	1		
NVQ 3	.968	.534	1.754
NVQ 1-2	.610	.380	.980
No qualifications	1.106	.270	4.524
Whether someone in family has disability			
No	1		
Yes	.897	.552	1.457
Whether mother cares for relative or friend			
Yes	1		
No	1.821	.663	5.001
Location respondent lives in			
London	1		
Yorkshire and Humberside	1.960	.890	4.317
South East	1.684	.905	3.134
North East	1.284	.506	3.254
East England	.708	.327	1.534
East Midlands	5.069	2.138	12.023
West Midlands	2.055	.967	4.368
South West	1.698	.680	4.242
North West	2.078	.954	4.525
Wales	1.732	.556	5.393
Scotland	1.694	.664	4.322
Father's weekly earnings			
£770+	1		
Less than £200	1.766	.743	4.198
£200-389	2.544	1.385	4.671
£390-579	3.096	1.662	5.765
£580-769	3.026	1.652	5.541

Rows with blank confidence intervals signify the reference categories.

Grey highlighting depicts the significant factors, and bold text signifies the categories within factors that are significantly different to the reference category.

Table B.5 Factors predicting mothers' return to work, model 3 – lone mothers

	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Employer size and sector – before birth			
Public	1		
Private 1-24	.206	.068	.627
Private 25-499	.410	.143	1.181
Private 500+	.589	.149	2.331
Workforce gender composition – before birth			
All/mostly women	1		
Half women and half men	.651	.240	1.767
Mostly men	.351	.099	1.250
Number of family-friendly arrangements at work before birth – grouped			
5 or more	1		
None	.587	.163	2.122
1 to 2	.323	.103	1.010
3 to 4	.297	.086	1.030
Occupational group – before birth			
Managers and senior officials	1		
Professionals, associate professional & technical	4.945	1.061	23.043
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales & customer services	1.812	.480	6.833
Skilled trades	1.228	.266	5.674
Age of mother			
40 or above	1		
Under 25	.305	.045	2.084
25-29	.429	.054	3.381
30-34	.616	.101	3.748
35-39	.570	.076	4.298
Hourly gross pay			
More than £15	1		
Less than £5	2.188	.197	24.331
£5-£9.99	3.345	.304	36.837
£10-£14.99	2.159	.340	13.731
Weekly working hours – before birth			
30 or more hours	1		
1-15 hours	1.226	.333	4.515
16-29 hours	3.597	1.251	10.338
Employment status – before birth			
Permanent	1		
Temporary	2.472	.987	6.191

Continued

Table B.5 Continued

	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Years in last pre-birth job			
More than 10 years	1		
Less than 1 year	.058	.006	.556
1 to 2 years	.030	.003	.253
More than 2, up to 5 years	.458	.069	3.059
More than 5, up to 10 years	.852	.168	4.328
Type of maternity pay received			
Statutory maternity pay only	1		
Maternity allowance only	.302	.096	.954
Statutory maternity pay and occupational maternity pay	1.284	.368	4.480
Maternity allowance and occupational maternity pay	1.458	.189	11.224
Occupational maternity pay only	.198	.075	.519
None	2.304	.666	7.974
Number of children aged 14 and under			
1 child	1		
2 children	2.304	.666	7.974
3 or more children	.374	.053	2.652
Whether any school aged children			
Pre-school children only	1		
Pre-school and school aged children	2.154	.478	9.713
Mother's ethnicity			
White	1		
None-white	.638	.122	3.325
Mother's highest educational level			
NVQ 4+	1		
NVQ 3	2.757	.837	9.086
NVQ 1-2	.964	.381	2.439
No qualifications	1.174	.253	5.451
Whether someone in family has disability			
No	1		
Yes	.638	.242	1.682
Whether mother cares for relative or friend			
Yes	1		
No	1.049	.249	4.418

Continued

Table B.5 Continued

	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Level	
		Lower	Upper
Location respondent lives in			
London	1		
Yorkshire and Humberside	.814	.113	5.870
South East	.103	.011	.942
North East	.384	.051	2.918
East England	.185	.023	1.480
East Midlands	.348	.028	4.276
West Midlands	.841	.124	5.694
South West	.550	.057	5.279
North West	.154	.016	1.477
Wales	.337	.036	3.117
Scotland	1.168	.169	8.070

Rows with blank confidence intervals signify the reference categories.

Grey highlighting depicts the significant factors, and bold text signifies the categories within factors that are significantly different to the reference category.

Table B.6 Factors predicting father taking time off before baby's birth

All fathers	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower	Upper
Employer size and sector – before birth			
Private 1-24	1		
Private 25-499	1.876	1.035	3.399
Private 500+	1.349	.779	2.336
Public	1.057	.667	1.675
Self-employed	4.286	.368	49.925
Number of family-friendly arrangements			
None	1		
1-2	.796	.392	1.615
3-4	.831	.376	1.835
5 or more	1.423	.664	3.053
Self-employed	.309	.028	3.420
Occupational group			
Managers and senior officials	1.000		
Professionals	1.669	1.014	2.746
Associate professional and technical	.833	.428	1.623
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services	.598	.285	1.252
Skilled trades	1.403	.791	2.489
Process, plant and machine operatives versus managers and senior officials	1.096	.564	2.130
Elementary occupations	.636	.292	1.387

Continued

Table B.6 Continued

All fathers	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower	Upper
Hourly gross pay – (bands)			
£15+	1		
Less than £6	.905	.437	1.878
£6-£8.99	.986	.568	1.712
£9-£11.99	.792	.513	1.224
£12-£14.99	.991	.575	1.707
Age of father			
Under 29	1.000		
30-34	1.004	.603	1.672
35-39	.767	.496	1.187
40 or above	.866	.491	1.526
Whether father has disability			
No	1.000		
Yes	.884	.570	1.373
Ethnicity			
White	1.000		
Other groups	1.085	.645	1.825

Rows with blank confidence intervals signify the reference categories.

Grey highlighting depicts the significant factors, and bold text signifies the categories within factors that are significantly different to the reference category.

Table B.7 Factors predicting father taking time off after baby’s birth

All fathers	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower	Upper
Employer size and sector – before birth			
Public	1		
Private 1-25	1.149	.525	2.513
Private 25-499	3.524	1.491	8.330
Private 500+	3.900	1.777	8.560
Self-employed	.738	.070	7.770
Number of family-friendly arrangements			
None	1		
1-2	.902	.300	2.713
3-4	.603	.180	2.021
5 or more	.688	.247	1.915
Self-employed	.412	.031	5.562

Continued

Table B.7 Continued

All fathers	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower	Upper
Occupational group			
Managers and senior officials	1.000		
Professionals	.875	.447	1.713
Associate professional and technical	1.255	.444	3.552
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services	1.837	.524	6.444
Skilled trades	1.492	.598	3.721
Process, plant and machine operatives versus managers and senior officials	.856	.297	2.465
Elementary occupations	.549	.147	2.042
Hourly gross pay – (bands)			
£15+	1		
Less than £6	.758	.325	1.770
£6-£8.99	1.112	.408	3.028
£9-£11.99	.643	.295	1.405
£12-£14.99	2.144	.635	7.238
Age of father			
Under 29	1.000		
30-34	.759	.264	2.180
35-39	.545	.217	1.365
40 or above	.645	.269	1.548
Whether father has disability			
No	1.000		
Yes	.666	.337	1.316
Ethnicity			
White	1.000		
Other groups	.689	.320	1.482

Rows with blank confidence intervals signify the reference categories.

Grey highlighting depicts the significant factors, and bold text signifies the categories within factors that are significantly different to the reference category.

Table B.8 Factors predicting father taking paternity leave

All fathers	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower	Upper
Employer size and sector – before birth			
Public	1		
Private 1-24	.446	.227	.873
Private 25-499	.854	.456	1.599
Private 500+	1.645	.872	3.105

Continued

Table B.8 Continued

All fathers	Odds ratio	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower	Upper
Number of family-friendly arrangements			
None	1.000		
1-2	3.491	1.557	7.825
3-4	2.321	.944	5.706
5 or more	3.376	1.468	7.763
Occupational Group			
Managers and senior officials	1.000		
Professionals	1.377	.755	2.510
Associate professional & technical	1.445	.725	2.877
Administrative, secretarial, personal, sales and customer services	.971	.368	2.565
Skilled trades	.815	.421	1.578
Process, plant and machine operatives versus Managers and senior officials	.861	.417	1.777
Elementary occupations	.747	.237	2.354
Hourly gross pay – (bands)			
£15+	1		
Less than £6	1.451	.612	3.441
£6-£8.99	2.297	.999	5.285
£9-£11.99	1.081	.541	2.160
£12-£14.99	1.476	.719	3.028
Age of father			
Under 29	1		
30-34	1.079	.532	2.187
35-39	1.034	.511	2.094
40 or above	.955	.450	2.027
Whether father has disability			
No	1		
Yes	1.283	.700	2.352
Ethnicity			
White	1		
Other groups	.740	.305	1.800
Mother's hourly pay			
£15+	1		
Less than £6	.452	.221	.926
£6-£8.99	.806	.434	1.499
£9-£11.99	.786	.399	1.548
£12-£14.99	.695	.356	1.358

Rows with blank confidence intervals signify the reference categories.

Grey highlighting depicts the significant factors, and bold text signifies the categories within factors that are significantly different to the reference category.

Appendix C

Latent Class Analysis

The typology of non-working mothers was constructed using Latent Class Analysis (LCA), a statistical approach that categorises individuals into different groups or ‘latent classes’ according to their responses to a series of questions. Essentially, LCA consists of: a) identifying the number of classes that best fit the data; and b) generating probabilities, per respondent, of class membership. An individual is then assigned to the class for which they have the highest probability. The software Latent Gold version 4.0 (http://www.statisticalinnovations.com/products/latentgold_v4.html) was used to carry out this analysis.

One crucial aspect of LCA is to identify the number of latent classes that best fits the data. In order to do so, we examined a range of models with different numbers of classes (from two to eight classes). In order to select the most appropriate model we looked at both statistical and substantive considerations.

Firstly, we used several statistical tests to assess the goodness of fit (see Table C.1). The recommended guidelines for good fitting models indicate that small values of BIC, AIC and AIC3 correspond to a good fit. According to these rules the number of clusters should be between five and eight (five if BIC used, eight if AIC or AIC3 used).

Table C.1 Latent class models and goodness of fit statistics

	BIC(LL)	AIC(LL)	AIC3(LL)
Model 2 Clusters	27119.73	26611.72	26732.72
Model 3 Clusters	26711.95	25947.83	26129.83
Model 4 Clusters	26540.44	25520.21	25763.21
Model 5 Clusters	26448.83	25172.49	25476.49
Model 6 Clusters	26602.18	25069.74	25434.74
Model 7 Clusters	26717.91	24929.36	25355.36
Model 8 Clusters	26810.43	24765.77	25252.77

Note: BIC (Bayesian Information Criterion), AIC (Akaike Information Criterion), AIC3 (Akaike Information Criterion 3).

Secondly, we examined class size, probabilities of class membership and parsimony. The size of the clusters showed that models with five or more classes had some groups with very few cases (less than 35 cases). Although the model with five clusters had one group with a small size (only 29 cases), we believed this was the best solution because respondents within each class were reasonably homogenous in terms of their responses.

The probabilities of class membership suggested that a five-cluster model was the best model. Ideally, each individual should have a probability of one of being in one class and zero of being in other classes, showing that the model assigns individuals into their designated class with accuracy. An examination of the average membership probabilities indicated that for all models, the probability of being assigned to the class for which they have the highest probability was very high (over 0.95). The highest average membership probability was for a model with five clusters (0.969). When viewed alongside the BIC goodness of fit statistic for this model solution, this suggests that a model with five clusters fits the data well.

The principle of parsimony, which suggests that a model with fewer parameters that fits the data well should be preferred over one with more parameters, indicated that a model with five clusters was the best solution for our data.

Finally, we examined whether the classes within the five-cluster model had a meaningful interpretation by looking at the responses to the 20 statements around decisions not to return to work. We observed that each class was distinctive from the rest and had a meaningful interpretation. Thus, based on all these considerations we chose a model with five latent classes.

Appendix D

Typology of mothers who did not return to work

This appendix provides some additional analysis of the typology of mothers who did not return to work (Chapter 6); examining the responses mothers gave to various statements regarding children and childcare, work and other statements. Tables D.1, D.2 and D.3 show that mothers in clusters two, three and five were more likely to identify statements regarding parental care as a ‘big factor’, compared to mothers in the clusters one and four. For instance, the majority of mothers in the former clusters identified the statement ‘I am worried I will not have enough time with my child/children’ as a big factor (100, 56 and 68 per cent, respectively). In contrast, fewer than a fifth of mothers in clusters one (13 per cent) and four (17 per cent) reported this statement as a ‘big factor’ for not working.

In addition, nearly all mothers in clusters two (100 per cent) and three (99 per cent) answered that wanting to look after their children themselves was a big factor for not returning to work. This figure was smaller among mothers in cluster five, however, still over two-thirds of these mothers (69 per cent) reported this statement as a big factor for not working. Once again, mothers in clusters one and four were less likely to identify this parenting-related statement as a big factor in their decision for not working (30 per cent and 40 per cent, respectively).

Mothers in clusters two, five and, to a lesser extent, three, held particularly strong preferences towards informal childcare, with mothers in clusters two and five more likely to say that close family did not live near enough to provide childcare and mothers in all three clusters being more likely to say they were not prepared to leave their child(ren) with anyone other than close family. For example, mothers in clusters two and five were especially likely to classify ‘I am not prepared to leave my child in the care of anyone other than my family or close friends’ as a big factor (49 per cent and 64 per cent, respectively). Mothers in clusters one and four were less concerned about this factor, with the majority (66 per cent and 85 per cent, respectively) placing this card in the ‘not a factor’ pile.

Regarding (formal) childcare-related statements, we observe a somewhat different pattern. Mothers in clusters one, two and five were more likely to say that lack of suitable, affordable childcare was a big factor for not working (39 per cent, 41 per cent and 52 per cent, respectively) than mothers in clusters three and four (12 per cent and eight per cent).

Table D.1 Responses to statements regarding children and childcare, by cluster

Base: Mothers who did not return to work and completed the card-sort exercise

Statements	Typology of mother who did not return to work					Total
	1. Job and childcare obstacles	2. Family oriented, some obstacles	3. Carer by choice	4. Few obstacles	5. Multiple obstacles	
	%	%	%	%	%	%
My child/children wouldn't like me to work						
Big factor	3	23	31		[45]	15
Smaller factor	20	27	12	1	[44]	19
Not a factor	77	50	57	99	[10]	66
I want to look after my child(ren) myself or at home						
Big factor	30	100	99	40	[69]	65
Smaller factor	49		1	26	[25]	22
Not a factor	22			35	[6]	13
I am worried I will not have enough time with my child(ren)						
Big factor	13	100	56	17	[68]	48
Smaller factor	68		37	21	[19]	34
Not a factor	19		7	62	[13]	18
There isn't enough suitable, affordable childcare around here						
Big factor	39	41	12	8	[52]	31
Smaller factor	33	22	23	10	[29]	24
Not a factor	28	37	66	83	[19]	45
My family or close friends are not able, or live too far away, to provide childcare						
Big factor	31	46	18		[71]	31
Smaller factor	26	20	15	2	[12]	18
Not a factor	43	34	67	98	[17]	51
I am not prepared to leave my child(ren) in the care of anyone other than my family or close friends while I work						
Big factor	14	49	39	7	[64]	30
Smaller factor	19	29	13	8	[25]	20
Not a factor	66	22	48	85	[11]	50
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	179	140	75	69	29	492

Note: Column percentages.

In terms of work-related issues, mothers in clusters one, two and five were more likely to consider these statements as important factors for not working than other mothers (see Table D.2). More than half of mothers in clusters one (50 per cent), two (65 per cent) and five (71 per cent) classified the statement ‘I would need a job where I could take time off at short notice to look after my child/ children’ as a big factor. This compared with around a tenth of mothers in clusters three and four (ten per cent and 13 per cent, respectively).

Mothers in clusters one, two and five were also more likely to doubt that they would be financially better off in work (41 per cent, 44 per cent and 71 per cent, respectively, stating this was a big factor) compared with a fifth of cluster three (20 per cent) and no one in cluster four.

Finally, mothers in cluster five (the multiple obstacles cluster) were particularly likely to consider other work-related statements as big factors compared with mothers in other clusters. For instance, 57 per cent of mothers in cluster five stated that transport problems were a big factor for not working, along with 61 per cent believing that employers were not very family-friendly. Additionally, 41 per cent of mothers in cluster five identified having low confidence as a big factor and 43 per cent stated that a big factor was that they lacked the qualifications or experience to get a job. All of these statements were placed in the big factor pile by substantially smaller proportions of mothers in the other clusters.

Table D.2 Responses to statements regarding work, by cluster

Base: Mothers who did not return to work and completed the card-sort exercise

Statements	Typology of mother who did not return to work					Total %
	1. Job and childcare obstacles %	2. Family oriented, some obstacles %	3. Carer by choice %	4. Few obstacles %	5. Multiple obstacles %	
I would have problems with transport to and from work						
Big factor	17	14	1	4	[57]	14
Smaller factor	28	18	10		[14]	17
Not a factor	54	69	89	96	[29]	69
There are few suitable job opportunities in the local area						
Big factor	43	29	4	20	[46]	29
Smaller factor	34	35	8	18	[28]	27
Not a factor	23	36	88	63	[26]	44
My confidence is low at the moment						
Big factor	8	10	1	1	[41]	8
Smaller factor	25	22			[40]	17
Not a factor	67	68	99	99	[19]	75
I haven't got the qualifications or experience to get the kind of job I would want						
Big factor	20	14	1	16	[43]	16
Smaller factor	26	30		12	[35]	21
Not a factor	54	56	99	72	[22]	63

Continued

Table D.2 Continued

Base: Mothers who did not return to work and completed the card-sort exercise

Statements	Typology of mother who did not return to work					Total %
	1. Job and childcare obstacles %	2. Family oriented, some obstacles %	3. Carer by choice %	4. Few obstacles %	5. Multiple obstacles %	
I am not sure I would be financially better off in work						
Big factor	41	44	20		[75]	34
Smaller factor	33	35	25	9	[10]	27
Not a factor	26	21	55	91	[15]	39
I would need a job where I could take time off at short notice to look after my child(ren)						
Big factor	50	65	10	13	[71]	43
Smaller factor	39	25	29	20	[22]	29
Not a factor	11	11	61	66	[6]	28
Employers aren't very family-friendly						
Big factor	17	20	1	6	[61]	16
Smaller factor	43	37	2	10	[31]	28
Not a factor	40	43	97	85	[8]	55
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	179	140	75	69	29	492

Note: Column percentages.

Table D.3 shows that, with the exception of mothers in cluster five (the **multiple** obstacles cluster), most mothers viewed other statements as ‘not a factor’ for their decisions around work. For example, around 90 per cent of non-returners identified health and caring-related statements (i.e. having difficulties due to a health condition or disability, or caring for someone with a health condition or disability) as ‘not a factor’ for not working. In contrast, less than a quarter of mothers in cluster five (22 per cent) placed health problems in the not a factor pile. It is clear that mothers in cluster five have many more concerns influencing their decision not to work than mothers in other clusters.

Additionally, we observe that most mothers (except cluster five) were not worried about leaving the security of benefits. Over three-quarters of mothers in clusters one to four classified this statement as ‘not a factor’ for staying at home. However, a considerable proportion of mothers in cluster five reported **concern about leaving the security of benefits** as a big factor (26 per cent) or a ‘smaller factor’ (46 per cent) for not going back to work.

Unlike the mothers in the other clusters, the mothers in cluster five were also influenced by the expectations of their family members. While over 90 per cent of mothers in clusters one to four said their parents not liking it if they worked was not a factor, and over 80 per cent of mothers in these clusters said their partner not liking it was not a factor – over a quarter of mothers in cluster five stated their parents’ (26 per cent) or their partner’s (29 per cent) dislike of them working was a big factor influencing their decision.

We observe a different response pattern for ‘I don’t need to work because we have enough money’. While the majority of mothers in clusters one, two, four and five stated having enough money was not an influencing factor, over half of mothers in cluster three said this was either a big or a small factor in their decision to stay at home.

Table D.3 Responses to other statements, by cluster

Base: Mothers who did not return to work and completed the card-sort exercise

Statements	Typology of mother who did not return to work					Total %
	1. Job and childcare obstacles %	2. Family oriented, some obstacles %	3. Carer by choice %	4. Few obstacles %	5. Multiple obstacles %	
My parent/parents wouldn’t like it if I worked						
Big factor	1	2	4		[26]	3
Smaller factor	1	7	3		[33]	4
Not a factor	99	92	93	100	[41]	93
I have difficulties due to my health condition or disability						
Big factor	6	3	1	5	[40]	6
Smaller factor	7	4		4	[38]	6
Not a factor	88	93	99	91	[22]	88
I care for someone who has a health condition, disability or behavioural difficulties						
Big factor	4	6		6	[36]	6
Smaller factor	0	3		2	[20]	2
Not a factor	96	91	100	92	[44]	92
My husband/partner/ex-partner would not like it if I worked						
Big factor		2	11		[29]	4
Smaller factor	3	15	6		[36]	8
Not a factor	98	83	83	100	[36]	88
I am concerned about leaving the security of benefits						
Big factor	8	8		2	[26]	7
Smaller factor	17	12	1	4	[46]	13
Not a factor	75	80	99	94	[28]	81

Continued

Table D.3 Continued

Base: Mothers who did not return to work and completed the card-sort exercise

Statements	Typology of mother who did not return to work					Total
	1. Job and childcare obstacles	2. Family oriented, some obstacles	3. Carer by choice	4. Few obstacles	5. Multiple obstacles	
	%	%	%	%	%	%
I have personal or family troubles that need to be sorted out						
Big factor	7	14			[36]	8
Smaller factor	10	14		2	[39]	10
Not a factor	84	73	100	98	[25]	82
I don't need to work because we have enough money						
Big factor	6	8	29	4	[6]	10
Smaller factor	8	18	24	7	[26]	14
Not a factor	86	73	47	89	[67]	75
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	179	140	75	69	29	492

Note: Column percentages.

Appendix E

Detailed tables

Table E.1 Number of weeks maternity leave taken

Number of weeks maternity leave	Year baby was born	
	2006	2008
	N	N
1	7	4
2	6	4
3	5	3
4	3	1
5	3	2
6	5	4
7	1	5
8	7	2
9	2	3
10	3	6
11		3
12	6	7
13	5	6
14	10	
15	8	5
16	6	8
17	12	4
18	7	9
19	10	5
20	13	5
21	10	2
22	17	21
23	19	10
24	22	19
25	37	18
26	534	70
27	74	21
28	59	21
29	36	20
30	44	28
31	31	30
32	23	22
33	17	15

Continued

Table E.1 Continued

Number of weeks maternity leave	Year baby was born	
	2006 N	2008 N
34	16	16
35	17	45
36	10	35
37	22	33
38	9	51
39	20	325
40	20	63
41	19	47
42	12	33
43	14	49
44	10	33
45	7	29
46	8	20
47	12	10
48	10	25
49	6	14
50	11	15
51	19	10
52	177	244
53	14	18
54	8	14
55	4	7
56		6
57	8	13
58	3	1
59	1	3
60	2	2
61	2	7
62	1	
63	2	1
64		
65		2
66	2	
67		
68	1	
69	1	1
70		1
71		
72		

Continued

Table E.1 Continued

Number of weeks maternity leave	Year baby was born	
	2006 N	2008 N
73		
74		
75		
76		
77		1
78	1	1
<i>Unweighted bases</i>	1,558	1,511

Appendix F

Data user guide

This appendix provides guidance on using the Maternity and Paternity Rights Survey 2009/10 datasets that will be deposited in the UK Data Archive. The datasets are in SPSS format.

For both mothers and fathers all analysis should be carried out using all cases in the files. However, if necessary it is possible to distinguish between wave 1 and wave 2 cases by using a variable called 'wave'.

Variables

All cases have a unique serial number 'serial_2009'. Mothers and their partners have the same serial numbers, so couples can be identified and their data can be linked to each other for analysis.

Variable names are the same or very similar to the ones used in the questionnaire. See Appendix H for wave 1 and wave 2 questionnaires. Variables that have the same letter name and differ only by numeric suffix refer to the same question in the questionnaire that either had multiple answer choices or was repeated for all children/jobs etc. In particular, multiple response questions include a variable per each answer category. These variables are coded as 0 'Not mentioned' if respondent did not select this category and 1 'Mentioned' if respondent did select this category. Datasets contain several derived variables. Labels for these start with 'Derived'.

Missing values are generally coded as -9 'Refusal', -8 'Don't know' and -1 'Not applicable'. Some variables may have additional 'Not applicable' codes, these will be negative and clearly labelled in the syntax.

Weighting and standard errors

Mothers' data should be weighted with mothers' weight 'wt_mother' and fathers' data with fathers' weight 'wt_father' before any estimates are derived.

The Maternity and Paternity Rights Survey 2009/10 used a complex sampling design with stratification and clustering, which needs to be taken into account when calculating standard errors for estimates and performing significance testing. In SPSS this can be achieved by using 'Complex samples' options. Other statistical packages will have their own corresponding options. Primary Sampling Units (PSUs) are identified by 'psuid' variable and strata by 'svystrata' variable.

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This report presents the results of the Maternity and Paternity Rights Surveys conducted in 2009 and 2010 which included face-to-face interviews with 2,031 mothers and telephone interviews with 1,253 fathers of children born in 2008. The previous maternity rights report (La Valle, I., Clery, E. and Huerta, M.C. (2008). DWP Research Report No. 496) is based on interviews with mothers of children born in 2006.

The Work and Families Act 2006 and associated regulations introduced a number of changes to mothers' maternity leave and pay entitlements which took effect from 1 April 2007:

- the Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) period increased from 26 to 39 weeks;
- the Maternity Allowance (MA) period increased from 26 to 39 weeks;
- the eligibility requirements for Additional Maternity Leave (AML) were removed, which enabled all employed mothers to take up to one year's Statutory Maternity Leave;
- the introduction of Keeping In Touch days enabled women to agree with their employers that they would work for up to ten days during their maternity leave.

The Act did not make changes to fathers' entitlements. At the time covered in this report (2008), fathers could take two weeks of Statutory Paternity Leave after their baby was born. During the leave, most were entitled to flat rate Statutory Paternity Pay.

The report examines the impact of the Act on mothers' engagement and experience in the labour market prior to, and following, the birth through comparisons with the previous survey.

The report includes findings on maternity and paternity leave and pay, mothers who returned to work and those who did not and the availability of family-friendly working arrangements for mothers and fathers.

The survey was undertaken by the National Centre for Social Research and was jointly commissioned by the Department for Work and Pensions and the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills.

If you would like to know more about DWP research, please contact:
Kate Callow, Commercial Support and Knowledge Management Team,
Upper Ground Floor, Steel City House, West Street, Sheffield, S1 2GQ.
<http://research.dwp.gov.uk/asd/asd5/rrs-index.asp>

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