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## **Exploring the impacts of the UK government's welfare reforms on lone parents moving into work**

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**Dr Helen Graham, Employment Research Institute, Edinburgh Napier University.**

**Prof Ronald McQuaid, Stirling Management School, University of Stirling.**

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## **Executive summary**

This report presents the findings of a research project, commissioned by the Glasgow Centre for Population Health (GCPH), which explored the experiences of lone parents in a context of increasing benefit conditionality and welfare reform.

Lone parents on out-of-work benefits have been subject to increasing obligations to prepare for and seek work as a condition of benefit receipt. Mandatory Work-focused Interviews with Jobcentre Plus staff were introduced in 2001. By 2012 a lone parent, not in work, was only entitled to Income Support until their youngest child turned five years old (compared with 16 years old in 2008). At this stage, unless eligible for another out-of-work benefit, lone parents wishing to receive state support must transfer onto Jobseeker's Allowance; they must therefore actively seek work, must prove that they are doing so, and can have their benefit removed if they fail to seek work or accept it when it is offered.

The research aimed to understand the challenges and opportunities facing lone parents who wish to return to work, or are being compelled to do so because their youngest child has turned five. It sought to understand: the issues facing a lone parent seeking work; what it is like being a lone parent on Jobseeker's Allowance; and how the expectations placed upon them as Jobseeker's Allowance claimants relate to the realities of seeking, entering into and sustaining paid work as a lone parent. More broadly it aimed to capture the lived experiences of lone parents – in relation to employment and job-seeking, income, childcare, access to social networks, transport, and health – in this context of a tightening policy regime.

The project took the form of a mixed-methods study. The quantitative element used large-scale social survey datasets to explore lone parents' demographic characteristics, employment, income, housing, education and health, in the UK, Scotland, and specifically in Glasgow where possible. The qualitative element of the research consisted of seventeen individual interviews with lone parents, and a focus group with eight lone parent participants.

## **Key findings**

Lone parents are a heterogeneous group, in terms of demographic characteristics, income, employment and their pathways into lone parenthood. Nonetheless, a substantial minority experience poverty and deprivation. Lone parent families are disadvantaged relative to couple families with children as lone parent households are less likely to have someone in work, and more likely to experience poverty, including in-work poverty. Children living in a lone parent household are twice as likely to be living in a household with an income below 60% of the median as children in a couple parent household. Lone parents are also around twice as likely as couple parents to report being unable to keep up with bills.

Among those who are in work, median weekly income from earnings in lone parent households is less than a third of that in couple parent households. This is due to a number of factors; apart from

only having one potential earner, lone parents are also more likely than couple parents to work in elementary occupations and less likely to be in a professional occupation, and more likely to have no qualifications and less likely to have a degree. Lone parenthood itself is also associated with a lower probability of being in employment, even after taking account of factors such as the qualification level and number of children. This suggests substantial barriers to the reconciliation of paid work and care for lone parents.

Lone parenthood is also associated with poor parental and child health, although there are complex interactions between lone parenthood, the deprivation experienced by lone parent families and poor health outcomes. The data also suggest that lone parents are substantially more likely than couple parents to have experienced domestic violence.

In general, lone parents do want to work, and perceive a number of advantages: the financial benefit of a wage; personal independence; the adult interaction that they miss as a full-time parent reliant on state support; and the ability to set an example to their children about the importance of work and the undesirability of being reliant on state support. However, they face a number of barriers to employment. A lack of qualifications is one issue, although the role of confidence – in feeling capable of work and applying for jobs – is also as a key element in their employability, particularly for lone parents with limited work histories or who have been out of the labour market for some time. Lone parents may struggle to find a job with the reduced hours and flexibility that will allow them to reconcile it with their caring responsibilities; as the sole earner and carer in the household, they have a particular need for flexibility that is not often found in the current labour market. It can be difficult or impossible to secure suitable, affordable childcare, and not all lone parents have family or friends who are able or willing to assist. Most lone parents are also reliant on public transport, which represents a significant in-work cost, and restricts the hours in which it is possible to travel to and from work and job available opportunities.

Lone parents' experiences of the Jobseeker's Allowance (JSA) regime vary, but a number of problems emerged in the research:

- Moving onto JSA comes slightly too early for those whose youngest child has turned five but not started school yet, particularly in the summer holiday before starting school, when free nursery provision ceases.
- JSA pushes lone parents into applying for and accepting jobs that are not necessarily sustainable or reconcilable with caring responsibilities, in order to meet their job search conditions.
- There is often an expectation that Jobseeker's Allowance clients are ready to move into work and have no problem with searching and applying for jobs, and little support is offered to those who are in fact somewhat further from the labour market.
- Jobcentre Plus advisors often do not take into account lone parents' specific needs, and the atmosphere when claimants attend is generally punitive and suspicious.

## **Recommendations**

A number of changes would improve lone parents' experiences of the Jobseeker's Allowance regime and better help them to move into work:



- Obligations to apply for and take up work need to take into account the reduced availability and increased need for flexibility of lone parents, and Jobcentre Plus staff should be more aware of, and tolerant towards, these specific needs.
- Obligations should be reduced or removed until the child has started school, if this occurs after their fifth birthday.
- Job-seeking support should be improved; lone parents should have greater access to assistance with searching and applying for jobs, and support to improve their employability and secure childcare where necessary.
- Greater support is needed for lone parents to improve their skills and career prospects through skills development and education.
- Jobcentres should have suitably trained staff to support lone parents (similar to Lone Parent Advisors).
- The supply of affordable childcare should be increased, particularly after school and during holidays.
- Some improved transport for lone parents seeking work, and potentially for a period of time after starting work, would greatly assist lone parents on a limited income. Transport availability should also be taken into account in determining jobseekers' obligations.

A number of other issues emerged from the research that would benefit from local and national action to improve the situation of lone parents:

- The move to a monthly payment under Universal Credit will pose significant challenges, and access to financial and budgeting advice will be essential.
- The move to an online application system under Universal Credit must be accompanied by enhanced access to IT facilities and training and support where required.
- Co-ordination between health, social care, early years and employability services is essential to tackle the interconnected issues of financial deprivation and poor health experienced disproportionately by lone parents.
- There should be greater attempts to reduce the stigmatisation of lone parents in the media, as this has a negative impact on all lone parents.
- There are currently limitations in what existing data sources are able to tell us about the characteristics and circumstances of lone parents. Small adjustments to existing large-scale surveys could yield useful information to better inform policy to help lone parents; for example the British Crime Survey could be used to help provide a fuller and more representative picture of lone parents' experience of domestic violence.

# **1. Introduction**

## **1.1. Background**

The obligations upon lone parents who are out of work<sup>1</sup> and receiving state support have increased over recent years. In 2001, mandatory ‘Work-focused Interviews’ for all lone parents on Income Support were introduced. At this time, lone parents could be on Income Support until their youngest child turned 16, but this has since decreased to five years old<sup>2</sup>. After their eligibility for Income Support ceases, lone parents wishing to continue receiving out-of-work benefits must move onto Jobseeker’s Allowance, unless they are entitled to any other out-of-work benefit such as Employment Support Allowance due to a disability. Jobseeker’s Allowance has a great deal more conditionality attached to its receipt than Income Support; instead of a Work-focused Interview every six months, claimants must normally attend a Jobcentre fortnightly, and provide evidence of having applied to a minimum number of jobs since the previous meeting. Failure to meet the conditions can result in a loss of benefit, known as a sanction. These specific changes affecting lone parents have occurred alongside a number of broader reforms to the welfare system that potentially impact lone parents and their children; both specific and general policy changes are discussed in Chapter 2 of this report.

## **1.2. Aims and objectives**

This research, which was commissioned by the Glasgow Centre for Population Health (GCPH), explored the experiences of lone parents seeking employment in the context of this tightening policy regime. Recruiting participants across Glasgow city, the study sought to understand what it is like being a lone parent seeking work, what it is like being a lone parent on Jobseeker’s Allowance, and how the expectations placed upon them as Jobseeker’s Allowance claimants relate to the realities of seeking, entering into and sustaining paid work as a lone parent.

Thus the overall objective of the research was to undertake an in-depth mixed methods study that explores the challenges and opportunities facing lone parents moving into paid work, and ‘captures’ their lived experiences, such as employment and job-seeking, income, childcare, access to social networks, transport, and health.

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<sup>1</sup> In this report, the term ‘work’ refers to paid employment; while unpaid work, such as caring for children, is referred to as ‘caring’.

<sup>2</sup> In 2008 this age limit was reduced to twelve, and then to ten in 2009, seven in 2010 and five in 2012.

### **1.3. Methodology**

The research followed a mixed-methods approach, combining the analysis of large-scale social survey datasets with qualitative interviews and a focus group.

#### **Quantitative analysis**

The quantitative aspect of this research used social survey datasets to explore lone parents' demographic characteristics, employment, income, housing, education and health. Comparisons were made where possible between the UK, Scotland and Glasgow. The datasets used were the Annual Population Survey, the Family Resources Survey, the Scottish Household Survey, and the Growing Up in Scotland study (see Appendix 2 for further details about these datasets).

The quantitative analysis was principally descriptive in nature, establishing a descriptive picture of the characteristics of lone parents, and bivariate associations between parenthood status (that is, couple versus lone parent) and a number of outcome variables, including employment, income and health<sup>3</sup>. Chapter 3 presents key features of the results of this analysis, with more detailed tables (including the results of significance testing) presented in Appendix 3.

Some regression analysis was also carried out in order to examine the impact of lone parenthood on employment outcomes, while controlling for a number of salient differences between lone and couple parents, such as their age and level of education. The results of this modelling are summarised in Chapter 3, and presented in full in Appendix 4.

More information about the methodology employed in the descriptive analysis and regression modelling can be found in Appendix 1.

#### **Qualitative data collection and analysis**

The qualitative aspect of the research consisted of 17 individual interviews with lone parents in Glasgow and one focus group with eight lone parent participants. The interviews and the focus group explored their experiences of lone parenthood, and of being a lone parent working or looking for work, and of the welfare system. The findings from this stage of the research are in Chapter 4.

The lone parent interview and focus group participants ranged in age from 21 to 44, with an average age of 31. Their children ranged from one to 19 years old, and around two-thirds of the sample had a youngest child who had turned five, or was about to. On average, participants had two children, and the age at which they had their first child ranged from 15 to 32. One participant was a lone father, one was a kinship carer, and the rest were lone mothers. More information about the sample selection procedures, sample characteristics, interview procedure, data analysis, and ethical

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<sup>3</sup> The statistical significance of associations was tested using a Chi-squared or Wald test (depending on whether the variables under consideration are categorical variables, such as employment status, or continuous variables, such as income).

considerations can be found in Appendix 1. The topic guides used in the interviews and focus group are presented in Appendix 5.

### **Contribution and limitations**

It is hoped that this research can provide some insight into the way in which recent policy changes have affected lone parents; what has been helpful, what has been problematic, what local agencies can do to support lone parents, and how policy could better support lone parents moving into employment.

The quantitative aspect of the work provides an up-to-date profile of lone parents in the UK, in Scotland, and to some extent at a regional level within Scotland, although the analysis is limited by the data available, especially at a local level. It is also able to provide some specific information about lone fathers; this is often lacking in analyses of lone parents, as lone fathers are rarely found in sufficient numbers in survey datasets to permit robust conclusions, due to the fact that they make up a small proportion of lone parents (around 8% in the UK – see Section 3.2). However, the large sample size of one of the key datasets used in this analysis facilitated some consideration of this group.

The qualitative aspect of the research explores in detail the perspectives of a particular group of lone parents; those moving into work, and especially those compelled to seek work as a result of being moved onto Jobseeker's Allowance. It shows how this policy is affecting lone parents in practice, and how they feel about the support available to them to move into work, and challenges some of the assumptions behind the policy change, by contrasting the expectations of Jobseeker's Allowance with the realities of lone parents' lived experience. However, although this type of research can provide a detailed picture of lone parents' lives which captures some of its complexity, the small and non-random sample means that the insights it generates cannot be applied to all lone parents in Glasgow.

## **1.4. Outline of the report**

The remainder of the report is structured as follows. Chapter 2 presents background information to set the context for the research. The results of the quantitative and qualitative findings of the research are then presented in Chapters 3 and 4 respectively. Finally, conclusions and policy implications and recommendations are presented in Chapter 5. The appendices provide further details not included in the main report for reasons of brevity.

The findings are organised according to a thematic framework, which developed from a literature review conducted during the first phase of the research<sup>4</sup>. The review considered the recent empirical literature on lone parents, providing a structured critique of both published peer-reviewed literature and grey literature identified from a range of databases and published sources. The review covered the demographic features of lone parents, the inequalities they experience (e.g. social, economic and health) relative to other family types, contemporary discourse about lone parents, and policy responses. From the literature, a number of important themes emerged; these underpinned the

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<sup>4</sup> This review, Graham and McQuaid (2013), is available at [www.gcph.co.uk/publications](http://www.gcph.co.uk/publications)

collection, analysis and presentation of the primary research, and the framework was modified in light of the research findings. This framework is outlined in Table 1.

**Table 1. Framework for the research.**

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Sub-theme</b>	<b>Description</b>
<b>Lone parents' lived experience</b>	Demographic	Basic characteristics of lone parents; path to lone parenthood, number of children, age, ethnicity, urban-rural, regional.
	Financial	Income and expenditure, poverty, financial capability, housing, area deprivation.
	Wellbeing	Social networks, lone parents' physical and mental health, and the health of their children.
<b>Looking for and being in work</b>	Employability (individual factors)	Qualifications obtained and barriers to obtaining them, training, employment status and history, job status and quality. Plus attributes such as confidence and attitudes towards work.
	Barriers to being in (and sustaining) work	Personal circumstances and external factors affecting employability. Perceived external barriers, e.g. local labour markets, childcare.
	Challenges of reconciling work with caring responsibilities	Difficulties of reconciling demands of employment with responsibility as (sole) carer, problems of transport and logistics and so on.
	Benefits/positives and costs/negatives of being in work	Positive previous experiences of employment, opportunities provided by work.
<b>The welfare regime and welfare reform</b>	Impact of the current regime	Perceived impact of the current regime (especially recent requirement to move from Income Support when youngest child turns five).
	Perceptions of future change	Perceptions of welfare reforms still to occur and what the impact of these is likely to be.

## 2. Background

This chapter sets out the broad context for the study by outlining some broad information on lone parents and the policies that affect them. The issues raised are further analysed in later chapters.

### 2.1. Lone parents in the UK, Scotland and Glasgow

According to the 2011 Census, there are 1,895,833 – almost two million – lone parent households<sup>5</sup> with dependent children<sup>6</sup> in the UK (Office for National Statistics, 2014a), and lone parent households account for 24.9% of all households with dependent children (Office for National Statistics, 2014b). In Scotland, there are 169,707 lone parent households with dependent children representing 27.6% of households with dependent children, only slightly higher than the UK average (Office for National Statistics, 2014a). In the Glasgow City local authority area there are 26,454 lone parent households, representing a considerably higher 40.4% of households with dependent children (Office for National Statistics, 2014b). Glasgow City has the highest proportion of lone parent households of any local authority in Scotland, as shown in Table 2. The proportion of lone parent households is predicted to rise over the period 2010-2035 by 51% for Scotland as a whole (General Register Office for Scotland, 2012a) and by 42% in Glasgow City (General Register Office for Scotland, 2012b).

The majority of lone parents are female. The proportion of lone parent households in the UK headed by a man is 9.5%, and the proportion is even lower in Scotland (7.8%) and lower still in Glasgow City (6.0%) (Office for National Statistics, 2014a). Estimates from the Labour Force Survey have suggested that this proportion has changed little over the last decade (Office for National Statistics, 2012b).

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<sup>5</sup> Note that this is not quite the same as the number of lone parent families, as some lone parent families live in households with other adults or families.

<sup>6</sup> A lone parent family is a parent or guardian, who is not in a cohabiting relationship, with one or more dependent children. Dependent children are those aged under 16 living with at least one parent, or aged 16 to 18 in full-time education, excluding all children who have a spouse, partner or child living in the household.

**Table 2. Proportion of households with dependent children that are lone parent households, by local authority**

<b>Local authority</b>	<b>Households with dependent children that are lone parent (%)</b>
Glasgow City	40.4
Dundee City	38.2
West Dunbartonshire	36.7
Inverclyde	34.0
North Ayrshire	32.6
Renfrewshire	31.0
North Lanarkshire	30.2
Clackmannanshire	28.8
South Lanarkshire	28.2
East Ayrshire	28.0
Fife	27.1
Edinburgh, City of	27.0
South Ayrshire	26.9
West Lothian	26.9
Falkirk	25.4
Midlothian	24.9
Argyll & Bute	24.8
Highland	23.7
Angus	23.5
Dumfries & Galloway	23.3
Perth & Kinross	22.6
Stirling	22.4
East Lothian	22.3
Aberdeen City	22.1
Scottish Borders	22.0
Eilean Siar	21.9
Moray	21.0
East Dunbartonshire	20.5
Orkney Islands	20.2
East Renfrewshire	20.1
Shetland Islands	18.3
Aberdeenshire	15.2

Source: Office for National Statistics, 2014b

Although the census has some information about the sex and employment status (see below) of lone parents, beyond this it is difficult to find reliable, up-to-date information about the characteristics of lone parents. The Office for National Statistics produces some basic statistics at the UK level, based on data from the Labour Force Survey, which suggest that the average age of a lone parent with dependent children in 2011 was 38.1, and 51% had never been married (35% of lone fathers compared with 52% of lone mothers) (Office for National Statistics, 2012b). The statistics on lone parents produced by the Office for National Statistics do not give information about key protected

characteristics such as ethnicity, religion or disability. Some insight can be gained from the results of the, now slightly dated, 2008 Families and Children Study (Maplethorpe *et al.*, 2008). This survey suggested that 89% of UK lone parents are White, 5% are Black, 2% are Asian and 4% are of ‘another ethnic background’. The survey also found that 13% of lone parents report their health as not good, 15% have a longstanding illness or disability that affects their daily activities, and 17% have a child with a longstanding illness or disability. This is higher than the percentage of couple parents reporting their health as not good (7%), the percentage with a longstanding illness or disability (9%), and the percentage with a child who has a longstanding illness or disability (14%).

Data from the 2011 Census shows that, in the UK as a whole, 59.1% of lone parents are in employment, with female lone parents less likely to be in employment (58.3%) than male lone parents (66.6%) (Office for National Statistics, 2014a). The figures are very similar for Scotland (58.1% in employment) but considerably lower for Glasgow (49.5%) (Ibid.); although this reflects Glasgow’s overall lower employment rate. Glasgow is the UK city with the highest proportion of workless households<sup>7</sup>, at 30.2% over the period January to December 2012, which represented a slight increase from 28.7% over the previous year, and is considerably higher than the UK average of 18.1% (Office for National Statistics, 2013c). Economic inactivity in Glasgow is higher than the average for Scotland and Great Britain – 33% compared with 23% in Scotland and Great Britain – and the reasons for economic inactivity differ, with inactive individuals less likely to be caring for family or in early retirement, and more likely to be out of work due to sickness or because they are a student (NOMIS, 2014).

The census data available does not provide a direct comparison between the employment rates of lone and couple parents, but Labour Force Survey data suggests that lone parents are less likely to be in employment than married or cohabiting mothers and fathers, and both men and women without dependent children (Table 3).

**Table 3. Employment rate<sup>1</sup> for those 16-64 years old, by parental status, April-June 2013, UK**

Parental status	Employment rate (%)
<b><i>Without dependent children<sup>2</sup></i></b>	
Men	70.0
Women	65.7
<b><i>With dependent children</i></b>	
Lone parents	60.2
Married or cohabiting men	90.7
Married or cohabiting women	72.2

<sup>1</sup> Percentage of those aged 16-64 in paid employment.

<sup>2</sup> Children aged under 16, and those aged 16-18 who have never married and are in full-time education.

Source: Office for National Statistics, 2013a

<sup>7</sup> This is defined by the Office for National Statistics as households with at least one person aged 16 to 64 and no one aged 16 or over in work.



Table 3 also demonstrates the gender gap in participation in paid employment, with childless men more likely to work than childless women, and couple fathers more likely than couple mothers; however, it should also be noted that couple mothers are more likely to work than childless men. However, many of these mothers will be in part-time employment; 42% of women aged 16-64 in work are part-time, compared with 12% of men aged 16-64 (Office for National Statistics, 2013b). Data from the 2011 Census suggests that lone parents are particularly likely to work part-time; 56.6% do so, although there are substantial gender disparities, with 21.5% of lone fathers but 60.9% of lone mothers working part-time (Office for National Statistics, 2014a).

Lone parent families are more likely to experience poverty than couple families; this is partially related to their lower propensity to be in employment, but lone parent families also experience a substantial amount of in-work poverty. Table 4 shows the percentage of children in different family types living in poverty (defined here, as is conventional, as a household with an equivalised income of less than 60% of the median). Twenty-two per cent of all children in lone parent families live in poverty before housing costs (43% after housing costs), compared with 16% of children in couple families (or 22% using the after housing costs measure) (Department for Work and Pensions, 2013a). This is to some extent linked to their lower employment rates, as there is a link between being in poverty and having no earner in the household. Around two-thirds of children in households with no earner are in poverty after housing costs; this is true of both lone parent families (65%) and couple families (69%). Poverty rates are also similar between children in couple households with a single full-time earner (30%) and in lone parent households where the lone parent works part-time (31%). The disparity between lone and couple families emerges at 'maximum' employment – i.e. both members of a couple, or the lone parent, employed full-time. Poverty among children whose parents both work full-time is just 5% after housing costs, rising to 10% where one parent works part-time. However even among children with a lone parent working full-time, almost one in five (17%) are in poverty after housing costs. Therefore although there is a clear link between poverty and not having an earner in the household, and this is partially driving higher rates of poverty among lone parents, in-work poverty is also a significant problem.

**Table 4. Percentage of children living in a household with an equivalised income of less than 60% of the median, by family type and employment status (UK<sup>8</sup>)**

Family type and employment status	Children living in household with income below 60% median	
	Before housing costs (%)	After housing costs (%)
<b><i>Lone parent</i></b>	<b>22</b>	<b>43</b>
In full-time employment	8	17
In part-time employment	17	31
Not in employment	34	65
<b><i>Couple family</i></b>	<b>16</b>	<b>22</b>
Both in full-time employment	4	5
One in full-time, one in part-time employment	6	10
One in full-time employment, one not in employment	20	30
One or both in part-time employment	39	59
Neither in employment	54	69

Source: Households Below Average Income statistics, Department for Work and Pensions (2013a, Table 4.5db). Note that the percentages are very similar if individuals rather than children are used as the basis for analysis.

## 2.2 The policy context

The financial support available to lone parents through the welfare system is largely determined at the UK level. However, there are a number of devolved areas where the Scottish Government can potentially influence the outcomes of lone parents and their children, and much of this is delivered at the local level. This section considers the policy context at the UK, Scottish and Glasgow level.

### The UK policy context

Lone parents who are not in employment (and not inactive due to sickness) receive either Income Support (IS) or Jobseeker's Allowance (JSA). The most recent published data (from July 2011) shows that there are 2,075 lone parents in Glasgow City claiming JSA (Department for Work and Pensions, 2011). The most recent data available for Income Support is from August 2013, and shows that there are 6,860 lone parents claiming IS in Glasgow City<sup>9</sup>.

A number of recent and ongoing policy reforms are likely to have an impact on lone parents' income and wellbeing. Perhaps the most profound policy change in recent years affecting lone parents is that the stage at which they cease to be eligible for Income Support as lone parents has been brought forward. In 2008 it changed from having a youngest child turning sixteen to having a youngest child turning twelve, and this age was further reduced to ten in 2009, seven in 2010, and five in 2012 (Whitworth, 2012). This is the stage at which lone parents who wish to continue receiving government support must move onto JSA, unless they can prove entitlement to another

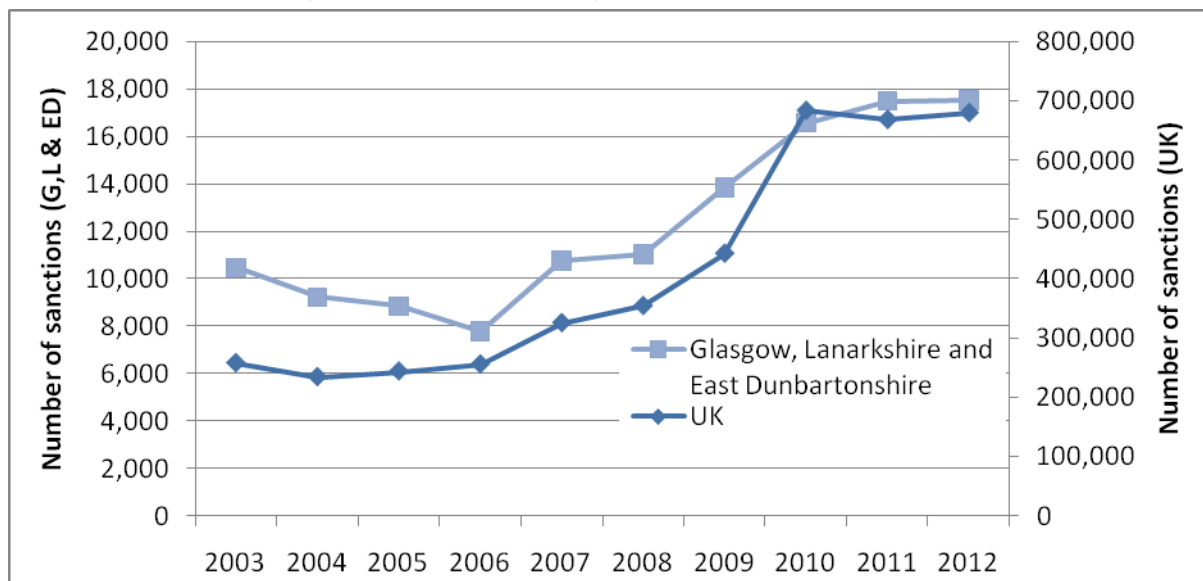
<sup>8</sup> These particular figures are not broken down by UK region.

<sup>9</sup> Source: DWP Tabulation Tool.

out of work benefit such as Employment Support Allowance due to an illness or disability. Once on JSA they must comply with requirements to actively seek and be available for work, or they could receive a sanction. As with all claimants, those receiving JSA for more than a year are required to attend the Work Programme. However, lone parents are entitled to certain flexibilities in the requirements placed upon them, including longer notice periods for attending interviews and starting work, the ability to limit working hours to take account of caring responsibilities, and the right to leave or refuse a job if no appropriate childcare is available (Gingerbread, 2013a).

The movement of increasing numbers of lone parents onto JSA is occurring at a time of increasing sanctions (penalties imposed on the claimant if they do not comply with their agreement with Jobcentre Plus). Figure 1 shows the number of adverse decisions (i.e. sanction referrals resulting in the claimant losing benefit, temporarily or permanently) in the Glasgow, Lanarkshire and East Dunbartonshire Jobcentre Plus district over the last ten years, and compares this with the UK as a whole. This figure shows a fairly steady rise in sanctions since 2006, from a low of 7,790 during 2006 to 17,510 in 2011. There appears to have been some levelling off recently, although the data for 2012 is only up to October and therefore does not represent a full calendar year. The trend for Glasgow, Lanarkshire and East Dunbartonshire mirrors closely the trend in the UK as a whole.

**Figure 1: Number of JSA sanction referrals where the decision was adverse in Glasgow, Lanarkshire and East Dunbartonshire, and the UK as a whole, 2003-2012**



Source: Department for Work and Pensions, 2013c.

All data is for calendar years, except 2012 data, which is Jan-Oct only.

An increase in sanctions over this period might be due to a number of factors, such as greater enforcement of jobseekers' agreements, tighter conditions for job-seeking, and fewer job opportunities, meaning it is harder for people to seek and identify job opportunities. The JSA caseload in the UK increased over the same period, from 946,160 in February 2003 to 1,471,070 in

August 2012<sup>10</sup>; this represents an increase in caseload of 55%, but this is less than the increase in sanctions applied over the same period. Statistics produced by the Department for Work and Pensions show that, in February 2003, there were 22,820 adverse sanctioning decisions applied in the UK, and in August 2012, there were 67,330; an increase of almost 200% (Department for Work and Pensions, 2013c). For the Jobcentre Plus offices within Glasgow, over the same period, the number of adverse decisions increased from 920 to 2,130; an increase of 132%.

A new sanctions regime was introduced on 22nd October 2012, and data on the number of sanctions from this date until the end of June 2013 was released in November 2013 (Department for Work and Pensions, 2013b). These figures show that 16,100 adverse decisions were applied in the Glasgow, Lanarkshire and East Dunbartonshire district over this eight-month period, an average of around 2,012 per month. This is slightly higher than the average 1,755 per month for 2012 under the previous sanctioning regime.

There are a number of other recent reforms to the welfare system that are likely to have an impact on lone parents – both those who have been moved onto JSA and those who have not. Lone parents are expected to constitute 50% of households affected by the recent introduction of the cap on total household benefits to out-of-work households (Scottish Government, 2013). Lone parents on out-of-work benefits will also be affected by changes to Housing Benefit and the Local Housing Allowance. New size criteria in social housing limit the number of bedrooms a household is entitled to, with a 14% reduction in Housing Benefit for one bedroom more than this maximum, and a 25% reduction for two or more additional bedrooms (www.gov.uk, 2014). For tenants in the private sector, there have also been a number of changes to the Local Housing Allowance; the rates are now based on the 30th percentile of local market rents rather than the median (50th percentile), rates are capped at a maximum for each property size, and claimants are no longer allowed to keep any difference between their rent and their Local Housing Allowance if the former is less than the latter.

Lone parents who do work will be affected by changes to Working Tax Credit and Child Tax Credit. This includes freezes in the amounts payable, or uprating these amounts below inflation, therefore representing a decrease in real terms. Support for childcare costs has also been reduced; working parents can claim back up to 70% of costs, rather than 80%, leaving them with a larger portion of the cost to meet out of their own income. One projection of the impact of these changes to the tax credit system has suggested that a lone parent with two children working full-time on the minimum wage could lose 13% of their income (£1,630 per year), and a lone parent on the average wage could lose 7% of their income (£1,890 per year) (Reed & Horton, 2011).

### **The Scottish policy context**

Welfare policy is for the most part not an area devolved to the Scottish Government, and there is a limit to which policy at the Scottish level can mediate the impact of the reforms outlined above. However, selected elements of the welfare system are administered by the Scottish Government, or have been devolved to it as part of welfare reform. Currently what are known as ‘passport’ benefits – such as free school meals, free dental treatment, and Education Maintenance Allowance – are administered by the Scottish Government. Entitlement is currently determined by the receipt of

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<sup>10</sup> Source: DWP Tabulation Tool, [http://tabulation-tool.dwp.gov.uk/100pc/is/tabtool\\_is.html](http://tabulation-tool.dwp.gov.uk/100pc/is/tabtool_is.html)

particular benefits, such as Income Support or Jobseeker's Allowance, but the replacement of these with Universal Credit will mean that a new way of assessing eligibility will need to be established, and it is up to the Scottish Government to plan and implement this. The Scottish Government is also required to make successor arrangements following the abolition of Council Tax Benefit and discretionary elements of the Social Fund. The availability of additional support such as passported benefits makes a considerable difference to the lives of low-income families (Berry, Georghiou, & Kidner, 2012), and any change in these is likely to have a significant impact on lone parent families.

There are also a number of devolved policy areas that are relevant to the employment, income and wellbeing outcomes of lone parents and their children, and through which the Scottish Government has scope to influence these outcomes. Key devolved areas are education and training, local government, social work, housing, health, environment, planning and transport. There are a number of strategies and policy frameworks that set out how to use these powers to improve outcomes for families and children.

The *Child Poverty Strategy for Scotland* outlines a number of ways in which, despite being unable to directly control families' income, the Scottish Government can potentially shape their outcomes in other ways (Scottish Government, 2011). A central aim of the strategy is to maximise household resources through promoting employment, by supporting skills development and providing childcare. Other policy initiatives that affect household income include the payment of a living wage in the public sector, the provision of financial advice services, and investment in affordable housing. Efforts to tackle child poverty are particularly important to lone parent families, who are more likely than couple families to experience poverty (see Table 3 above).

*Equally Well* focuses on health inequalities, and how health, employability and environmental services can help to tackle these (Scottish Government, 2008a). Figures presented in Section 2.1 above suggest that lone parents and their children are more likely to experience poor health and longstanding illness or disability, although the strategy itself does not explicitly target lone parents as a specifically vulnerable group, however, health inequalities in the early years is a priority for the Ministerial Task Force, who recommend a range of services to support vulnerable children and families. Tackling poverty and increasing employment is also central to the strategy.

*Achieving Our Potential* is the Scottish Government's anti-poverty strategy (Scottish Government, 2008b). Although it aims to make the tax credit and benefit system "work better for Scotland", it acknowledges that the Scottish Government has limited capacity to influence this system directly. As with the *Child Poverty Strategy*, the focus is on income maximisation, by helping people move into and progress in work. It acknowledges that the barriers to moving out of poverty are both at the individual level (e.g. individual aspects of employability), but also at the wider, societal level (e.g. housing, discrimination, rising energy prices and so on).

The *Early Years Framework* outlines the way in which health, education and social care services can be used to tackle poverty and inequality (Scottish Government, 2008c). Social care services have a role in supporting parents, particularly the most vulnerable, while early years education has a role to play, both in the short term in supporting employment and in the longer term by helping those who are children now to achieve better outcomes later in life. The emphasis in the framework is on

service delivery in order to facilitate the capacity of families to secure positive outcomes for themselves, rather than service delivery itself; in a similar way to the anti-poverty strategy, which emphasises support to maximise individual income generation, rather than financial support itself. Related to this framework is the *Getting it right for every child (GIRFEC)* approach to delivering children's services, which sets out the values and principles that Community Planning Partnerships should embed in their service planning and delivery (Scottish Government, 2012). The *Early Years Collaborative* aims to facilitate the conversion into practice of the principles set out in GIRFEC and the Early Years Framework, through multi-agency collaboration (Scottish Government, 2014).

There have also been Scottish Government policies aimed at helping lone parents (alongside other parents) move towards or into work or to remain in work, such as the £50m Working for Families Fund, which ran between 2004 and 2008 (McQuaid *et al.*, 2009). The fund was established to invest in initiatives to tackle barriers to employment for disadvantaged parents. The programme was administered by 20 local authorities (LAs), operating through 226 locally-based public, private and third sector projects, which provided support to parents to help them improve their employability and access childcare.

### **Support for lone parents in Glasgow**

There are number of local initiatives within Glasgow, run by the City Council or third sector organisations (or both in partnership), that are relevant to addressing issues of poverty, unemployment and poor health among lone parents.

Glasgow City Council's approach to delivering children's services is underpinned by the national-level frameworks outlined in the previous section. The Community Planning Partnership's *One Glasgow* approach aims to improve service delivery through greater collaboration and an early intervention approach for families identified as being in need of extra support (Glasgow City Council, 2013). The approach focuses on families that are 'just coping' – those who are struggling but not yet visible to public services – and has included the introduction of 'nurture classes' in primary schools and nurseries (Glasgow Centre for Population Health, 2014).

Local regeneration activity in Glasgow, including employability support, is provided by Glasgow City Council via an arm's length external organisation, Jobs and Business Glasgow. As well as services for unemployed adults and young people, the organisation provides childcare services, and support for vulnerable families in the form of the School Gates Initiative (Jobs & Business Glasgow, 2014). Jobs and Business Glasgow also works in partnership with a number of third sector organisations to administer a programme called Making It Work, a Big Lottery funded programme that aims to support lone parents and help them to move into employment.

Glasgow City Council also has a Welfare Rights and Money Advice service, as part of its Social Work services (Glasgow City Council, 2014). These services are available to social work users (through the social work offices), as well as to non-social work users (through the Glasgow Advice and Information Network), and information and training is also provided to local authority staff and voluntary organisations. The council is also developing its own anti-poverty strategy, with strands

including child poverty and welfare reform, which have direct relevance to lone parents and the issues they face in light of policy changes at the UK level.

NHS Greater Glasgow and Clyde also administer a project called *Healthier Wealthier Children*, in conjunction with the Glasgow Centre for Population Health and the Voluntary Sector Money Advice Services (Naven & Egan, 2013). The project aims to tackle both low income and poor health, by linking together income maximisation advice with health services, establishing referral links between the two. The majority of the project's advice clients (69%) were lone parents (Ibid.).

Employability initiatives specifically targeted at lone parents are also run by third sector organisations such as One Parent Families Scotland, who among other activities aimed at supporting lone parents, offer support and advice with preparing CVs, accessing training courses, and searching and applying for jobs.

### 3. Quantitative findings

This chapter presents some key facts about lone parents, from the quantitative element of this research, which analysed large-scale social survey datasets to identify lone parents' demographic characteristics, income, and employment patterns. It also sought to establish the position of lone parents relative to couple families and those with no dependent children, and identify areas of inequality or disadvantage. A key aim of the analysis was to build up a picture of lone parents in Glasgow, and to compare this with lone parents in Scotland and the UK as a whole. This was not always possible, as some potentially relevant variables were unavailable in datasets that provided the required geographical information, or sufficient sample sizes to produce robust estimates at this level<sup>11</sup>.

The analysis was carried out at the family level; this is not quite the same as the household level, as some lone parent families live with other adults or family units. For the purposes of this analysis, a family unit is defined as the 'benefit unit', i.e. what constitutes a family for benefit purposes, which comprises parents and their dependent children. Only working-age families were included in the analysis; families were omitted if they contained a man who is 65 or over, or a woman who is 60 or over (note that lone parent *families* may live in *households* with a person over this age who is not in their family unit, and these lone parent families were not excluded from the analysis).

The methodology employed in this quantitative analysis was outlined in Chapter 1 of this report, and a fuller account is given in Appendix 1, including details of the variables used, weighting applied and statistical tests and modelling undertaken. The Tables and Figures presented here select and present key features of the results – see Appendix 3 for full tables, including confidence intervals and significance tests. Note that where significance is referred to in the text, it should be taken to mean in the statistical sense, and refers to significance at the 5% level; i.e. that there is only a 5% chance that this result was obtained due to random variation (and therefore does not reflect a true underlying relationship).

#### 3.1. About the datasets

This analysis is based on a number of datasets, because the required information is not contained within a single dataset, and each dataset has its particular focus and strengths. Most of the information about characteristics of lone parents is based on the Annual Population Survey (APS) Household Dataset, which combines consecutive quarters of the Quarterly Labour Force Survey and the English, Welsh and Scottish Local Labour Force Surveys. This dataset has the largest sample size of the datasets, and can therefore produce the most precise estimates. It contains many of the variables of interest, but it does not contain all the information required.

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<sup>11</sup> Note that, in the Annual Population Survey dataset, which is used extensively here, the smallest geographical area available is in fact the old local authority area of 'Strathclyde', which encompasses a number of present day local authorities including Glasgow City but also parts of Argyll and Bute, East, North and South Ayrshire, East and West Dunbartonshire, North and South Lanarkshire, Renfrewshire and Inverclyde.



Financial information (income from different sources and indicators of material deprivation) comes principally from the Family Resources Survey (FRS), which is the source that the government uses in its *Households Below Average Income* publications to produce poverty indicators. The income data is complete, as missing cases are imputed, and it has information on a range of income sources that the APS does not. Furthermore, the dataset is set up for a comparison of income between family types in a way that is impossible with the APS. The main disadvantage of this dataset is that it does not provide geographical information below the level of Scotland.

The Scottish Household Survey (SHS) is used to investigate the spatial distribution of lone parents further than is possible in the other datasets. It is the only dataset that contains this information, but its relatively old age (the most recent data available for analysis pertains to 2007-08) and lack of information about the relationships between the household members limits its usefulness in other ways.

The final dataset used in the analysis is the Growing Up in Scotland study, which is used to provide information on the experience of domestic violence. As it is a cohort study, findings from this data cannot be generalised across all lone parents, which limits its usefulness in this particular analysis, which aims to provide a representative picture of lone parenthood in Scotland. However, it is the only survey with information about lone parents' experience of domestic violence.

### **3.2. Lone parents' lived experience**

This section considers the characteristics of lone parent families – their prevalence in the population and how they are distributed, their average size, and the ages of the adults and children within them – and how this compares with couples with dependent children and those without dependent children. It also explores the financial situation of lone parent families; their income from different sources, and the extent to which they and their children experience material deprivation, and how this compares with other family types.

Lone parents are a heterogeneous group, who vary along a number of characteristics, including gender, age and number of children, health and disabilities (of parent or child), income and so on. Also important may be how they became a lone parent, for instance whether they had been married or in a long-term cohabiting relationship at the time of their child's birth, and became single parents as a result of separation or widowhood (and the age of the parent and child(ren) when this occurred), or whether they were not in a stable relationship when the child was born. Only some of the information on these varying characteristics of lone parents is available in survey data.

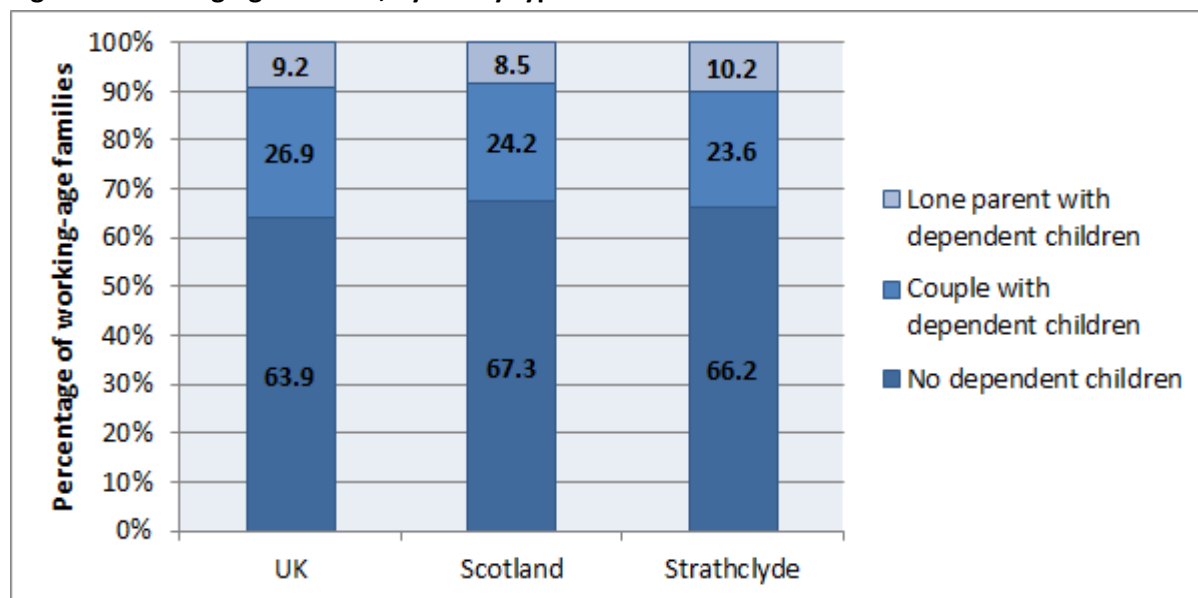
#### **Demographic characteristics**

##### ***Prevalence and patterns of spatial distribution***

In the UK as a whole, 9.2% of working-age families are lone parent families; Figure 2 suggests that the Scottish average is slightly lower at 8.5%, but the Strathclyde average is higher at 10.2%. In fact,

the difference between Scotland and the rest of the UK was not found to be statistically significant<sup>12</sup>, but the difference between Strathclyde and the rest of Scotland was found to be significant. Among working-age families with dependent children, there is an almost 5 percentage point difference between Strathclyde, in which 30.2% of families are lone parent, and the UK as a whole, where the figure is 25.5% (see Table A9 in Appendix 3). Thus, it would seem that Strathclyde has a proportion of lone parent families that is higher than the average for Scotland and the UK as a whole.

**Figure 2: Working-age families, by family type**



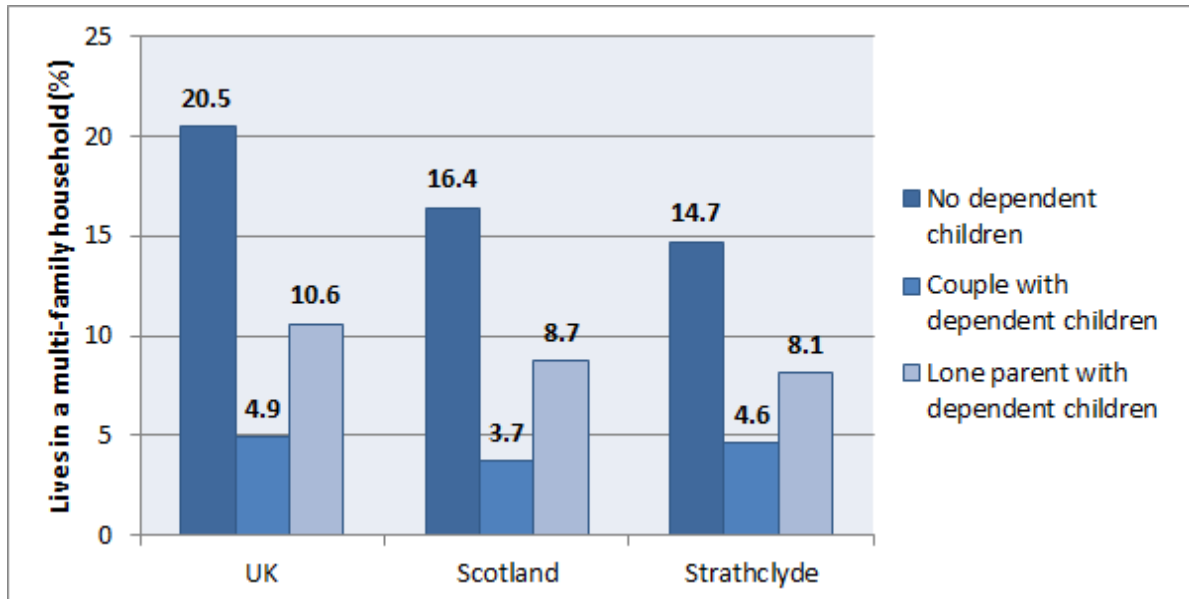
Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011

Note: For further detail on this Figure, see Table A9 in Appendix 3.

Not all lone parent families live in what would be classified as lone parent households; some live in 'multi-family' households, with one or more relatives or other adults in the same household. Figure 3 shows that lone parent families are approximately twice as likely to live in this kind of arrangement as couples with dependent children; but four times less likely than those with no dependent children (which includes households such as students living in shared accommodation). The multi-family arrangement is not uncommon among lone parents, with approximately 1 in 10 lone parent families in the UK living with others. The proportion of lone parents who live with others is lower in Scotland than in the UK as a whole, at just under one in eleven; this difference is significant, but no significant difference was found between Strathclyde and the rest of Scotland in this respect.

<sup>12</sup> The results of all tests of statistical significance referred to in this report are shown in Table A10 in Appendix 3. Details on the nature of the tests conducted can be found in Appendix 1.

**Figure 3: Families living in multi-family households, by family type**

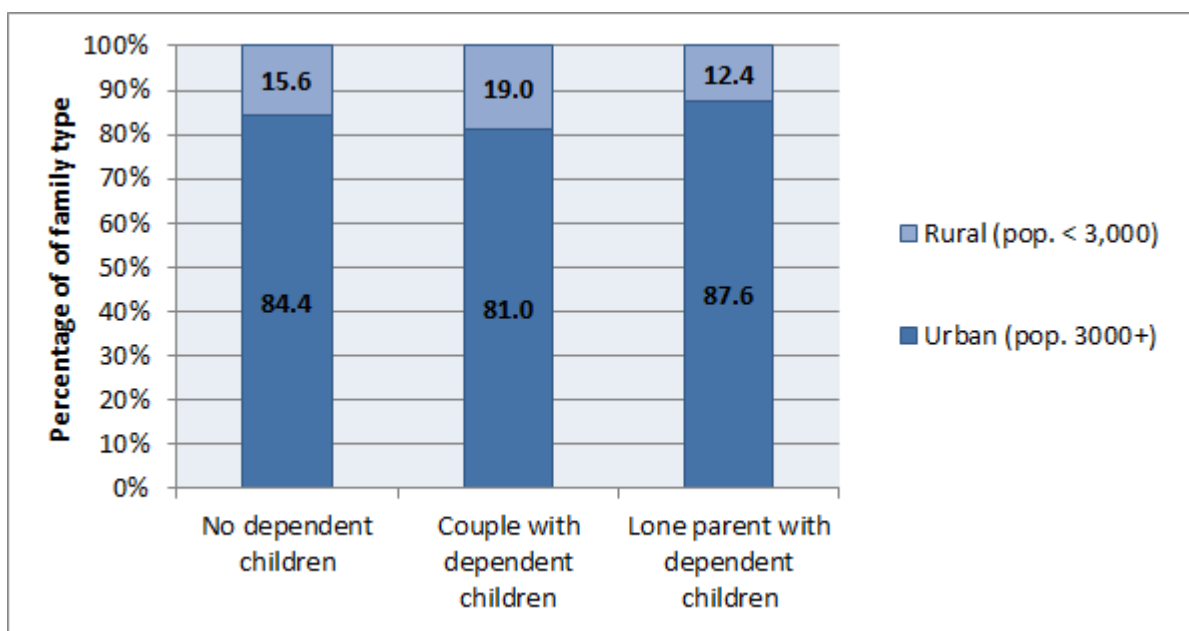


Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this figure, see Table A11 in Appendix 3.

Data from the Scottish Household Survey data shows the proportion of households of different family types who live in urban and rural areas (Figure 4). The figures suggest that lone parent households are least likely to live in rural areas, and couples with dependent children are the most likely.

**Figure 4: Distribution of family type of working-age families in Scotland, by Scottish Government urban-rural classification.**



Source: Scottish Household Survey, 2007-08.

Note: For further detail on this figure, see Table A12 in Appendix 3.

### ***Gender, age and number of children***

The vast majority of lone parents – over 90% – are female (see Table A13 in Appendix 3). There are no statistically significant differences between Scotland and the rest of the UK, or between Strathclyde and the rest of Scotland, in this respect.

There are a few differences between lone mothers and lone fathers (Table 5). Lone fathers are older on average than lone mothers, by around six and a half years in the UK, and over eight years in Scotland and Strathclyde. They also have on average fewer children in their family than lone mothers, although this difference was only found to be statistically significant for the UK as a whole and not in Scotland or Strathclyde. Lone fathers' oldest children are also on average older than lone mothers', by around two years, in all three 'geographies' in this analysis (the UK, Scotland, and Strathclyde).

**Table 5. Characteristics of parents, by gender and family type.**

	UK	Scotland	Strathclyde
Mean age			
Lone mother	36.7	36.5	36.2
Couple mother	38.5	39.0	39.2
Lone father	43.1	45.2	44.4
Couple father	41.0	41.3	41.4
Mean number of dependent children			
Lone mother	1.64	1.54	1.57
Couple mother	1.79	1.74	1.73
Lone father	1.45	1.44	1.50
Couple father	1.79	1.74	1.73
Mean age of oldest child			
Lone mother	10.1	10.1	10.1
Couple mother	9.5	9.7	9.8
Lone father	12.2	12.3	12.5
Couple father	9.5	9.6	9.8

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this Table, see Tables A13 to A19 in Appendix 3.

Table 5 also illustrates the differences between mothers and fathers in lone and couple parent families. Compared with mothers and fathers in couple families, lone mothers are younger than mothers in couple families and lone fathers are older than fathers in couple families; these differences were found to be significant in all three geographies. However, it should be noted that the substantive differences are quite small; the age differences are around two or three years. The oldest child in lone parent families is slightly older than in couple families, by less than a year; this was found in all three geographies, although it was not found to be statistically significant in Strathclyde (this is perhaps an artefact of small sample sizes). Lone parents were found to have on average fewer children than couple families, and this difference was statistically significant in all geographies.

***Marital status, age and number of children***

There are also some differences between lone mothers and fathers in their route into lone parenthood, for instance whether they had never been married or became single parents as a result of separation or widowhood, and the age at which this occurred. Table 6 shows the percentage of lone mothers and fathers with each marital status, and the average age of the parents in each of these subgroups. Note that the category of ‘Single, never married’ includes both those who were not in a cohabiting relationship when they had their child, and those who were cohabiting but unmarried, and subsequently split since the birth of the child. Individuals in these two categories cannot be distinguished in this data.

**Table 6. Marital status of lone parents with dependent children in the UK, by gender and family type.**

	<b>% in category</b>	<b>Mean age</b>
<b>Single, never married</b>		
<b>Lone mothers</b>	<b>53.4</b>	<b>32.2</b>
<b>Lone fathers</b>	<b>30.0</b>	<b>36.7</b>
<b>Separated</b>		
<b>Lone mothers</b>	<b>18.6</b>	<b>39.2</b>
<b>Lone fathers</b>	<b>20.9</b>	<b>44.4</b>
<b>Divorced</b>		
<b>Lone mothers</b>	<b>25.0</b>	<b>43.3</b>
<b>Lone fathers</b>	<b>38.9</b>	<b>45.2</b>
<b>Widowed</b>		
<b>Lone mothers</b>	<b>3.0</b>	<b>46.3</b>
<b>Lone fathers</b>	<b>10.3</b>	<b>50.4</b>

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this figure, see Table A20 in Appendix 3.

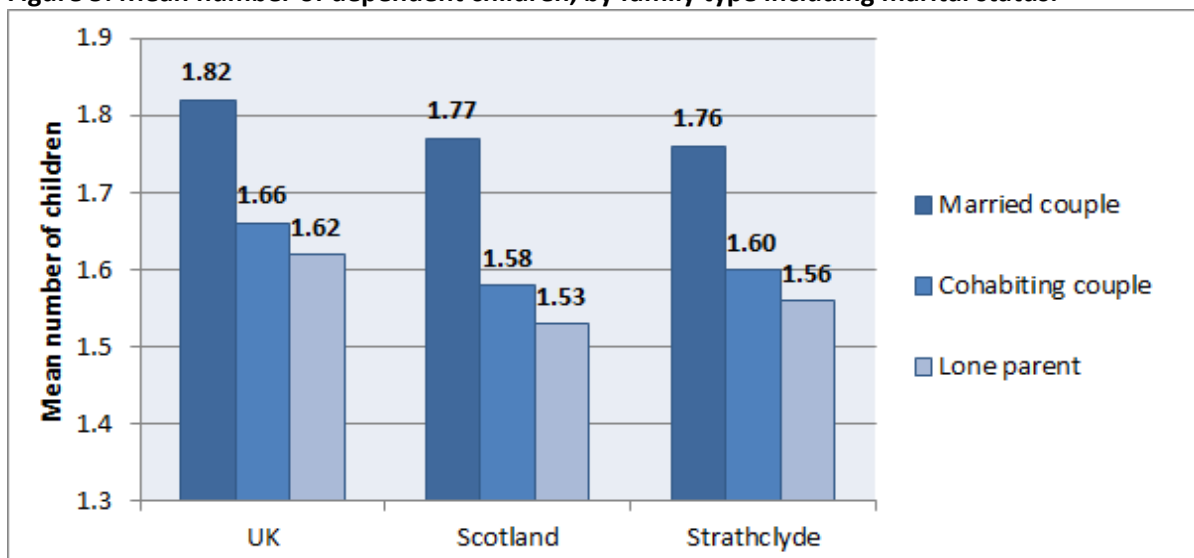
Lone fathers are more likely to have been previously married than lone mothers; 70% of lone fathers have been married, compared with just under half of lone mothers<sup>13</sup>. Divorce is the most common route into lone parenthood for fathers, and the proportion who are widowed, although fairly small,

<sup>13</sup> Note that these figures differ very slightly from the Census statistics (see section 2.1).

is three times higher than for lone mothers. Table 6 also shows that never married lone mothers are the youngest group on average, with a mean age of 32, while widowed lone fathers are the oldest group, with a mean age of 50.

Previous analysis (Office for National Statistics, 2013d) has suggested that lone parents are more similar to cohabiting couple parents than married couple parents in terms of the number of children they have. Figures obtained in this analysis suggest that this is the case, in all three geographies (Figure 5), and this distinction is statistically significant in each. Thus, although in this analysis comparisons are made between lone and couple parents, it is worth bearing in mind that in some cases, a more meaningful distinction could be made between married and non-married parents than lone and couple parents. However, this is not always the case (for example with regard to employment status – see Figure 15 later in this chapter).

**Figure 5: Mean number of dependent children, by family type including marital status.**



Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this Figure, see Table A21 in Appendix 3.

There are a number of different paths into lone parenthood; those who are currently lone parents vary in terms of whether they have ever been in a relationship with the father of their child(ren), and if so the nature of this relationship, when it broke down and why. However, it is difficult with the existing social survey data to build up a comprehensive picture of the relative prevalence of these different scenarios. There is a lack of information about transitions from cohabiting relationships into single parenthood, and even when previous status is known, there is no supplementary information about when relationship breakdown occurred, and what caused it. This is therefore an aspect of the lone parent experience that is difficult to explore using secondary quantitative analysis.

Although no large-scale survey dataset can give information about the direct role of domestic violence in relationship breakdown, data from the *Growing Up in Scotland* study suggests that lone

parents are more likely to have experienced domestic violence than couple parents. Respondents<sup>14</sup> are asked when their child is six whether they have experienced a number of physical and verbal forms of violence since their child was born. Table 7 shows the percentage of lone and couple parents reporting different forms of domestic violence: physical violence (e.g. pushing, hitting, kicking); controlling behaviour (e.g. restricting activities or money); threatening behaviour (e.g. threatening to hurt the respondent, or someone close to them); and any of these<sup>15</sup>.

**Table 7. Experience of domestic violence, by family type (Scotland)<sup>16</sup>.**

	Couple parents	Lone parents
Any domestic violence	7.4	46.1
Physical violence	3.4	25.6
Controlling behaviour	5.1	39.1
Threatening behaviour	2.4	23.5

Source: Growing Up in Scotland, Sweep 6, 2010-2011.

Note: For further detail on this Table, see Table A22 in Appendix 3.

The figures in Table 7 show not only that lone parents are more likely than couple parents to say that they have experienced domestic violence, but that this experience is common among lone parents. Almost half (46.1%) report experiencing some kind of violent behaviour; with just over a quarter (25.6%) reporting physical violence. This compares with 7.4% of couple parents reporting any domestic violence and 3.4% reporting physical violence. Eighty-four per cent of lone parents identify the perpetrator of this behaviour as an ex-partner, although it should be noted that this is not necessarily the father of their child(ren); all that can be concluded from this data is that the incidents occurred in the previous six years. It is also unknown to what degree the domestic violence was a cause of separation. It should also be observed that the study is of a particular cohort of children, born in 2005, and therefore the results cannot necessarily be generalised to all parents in Scotland with children of all ages. It is, however, the only dataset that currently offers enough information about lone parents' experience of domestic violence.

### ***Ethnicity***

Even using the Annual Population Survey dataset, which has the largest sample size of any of the datasets analysed here, analysis of the ethnicity of lone parents was only possible for broad ethnic groups<sup>17</sup>, and at the UK level only, due to the low representation of non-White individuals in the

<sup>14</sup> As the respondent is the child's mother in over 97% of cases, the results effectively reflect the prevalence of male-on-female violence only.

<sup>15</sup> For more information on the specific incidents included in these categories, see Table A8 in Appendix 2.

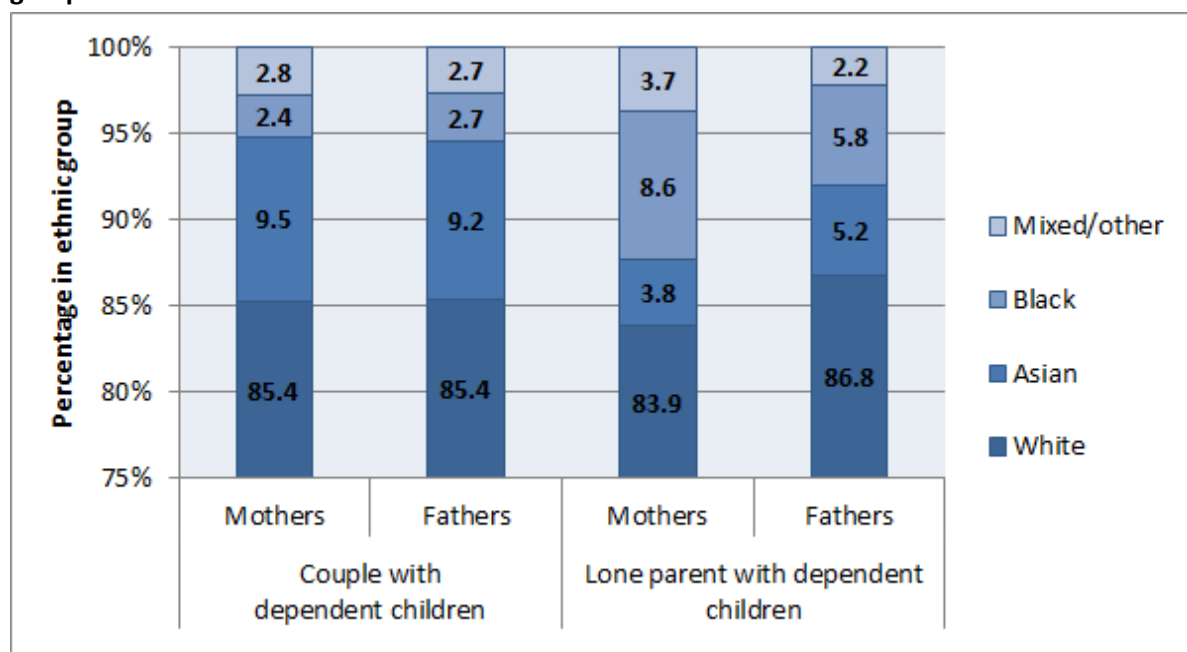
<sup>16</sup> Estimates are only available at the Scotland level; the data is not designed to produce estimates at the Health Board or local authority level.

<sup>17</sup> See Table A3 in Appendix 2 for composition of ethnic groups.

data. This obscures potential differences between lone parents within these ethnic groups, for example between Asian individuals of Chinese and Indian descent, or between white British individuals and migrants from other countries such as Poland, but the sample size does not allow robust conclusions to be drawn in this respect. It is also not possible to examine ethnic group at the sub-UK level; among respondents from Scotland, there were only 16 lone mothers and two lone fathers who were not classified as White.

Figure 6 shows that in the UK lone mothers are slightly less likely to be White than couple parents, although the difference is very small. Lone parents are less likely to be Asian and more likely to be Black than couple parents; the difference is particularly noticeable for lone mothers, who are approximately three times less likely to be Asian and three times more likely to be Black.

**Figure 6: Working-age families with dependent children in the UK, by family type and ethnic group<sup>18</sup>.**



Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this figure, see Table A23 in Appendix 3.

## Income and deprivation

### Income

This section considers income sources and financial wellbeing, using data from the Family Resources Survey (FRS). This dataset does not contain any geographical information about respondents below the Scottish level, therefore no analysis was possible of Glasgow specifically<sup>19</sup>.

<sup>18</sup> Note that the scale on the y-axis of this figure does not start at zero, and therefore does not fully represent that relative proportion of the population that is White; the scale has been chosen to highlight differences among the non-White groups.



The top panel in Table 8 shows mean (average) and median (where 50% are above and below this figure) total family income from all sources, including earnings from employment, other earnings (e.g. from investments or rent), and income from universal and means-tested government support<sup>20</sup>. The median total income for a lone parent family in Scotland is £368 per week. Family income is lowest for lone parent families, who have a mean and median income of less than half that of couple parent households. Families without dependent children (some of whom will be single, and some of whom will be a couple) have a higher mean total income than lone parents, but a lower median.

**Table 8. Mean and median weekly family income, by family type.**

	UK		Scotland	
	Mean	Median	Mean	Median
<i><b>Total income from all sources</b></i>				
<b>No dependent children</b>	£517.69	£355.00	£486.23	£356.00
<b>Couple with dependent children</b>	£962.26	£789.00	£937.80	£800.00
<b>Lone parent with dependent children</b>	£422.72	£366.50	£390.00	£368.00
<i><b>Income from earnings (employees only)</b></i>				
<b>No dependent children</b>	£592.08	£450.00	£550.13	£435.00
<b>Couple with dependent children</b>	£906.31	£769.00	£875.33	£771.00
<b>Lone parent with dependent children</b>	£306.72	£216.00	£265.08	£208.00
<i><b>Income from means tested benefits and tax credits (those receiving only)</b></i>				
<b>No dependent children</b>	£99.25	£83.00	£92.01	£78.00
<b>Couple with dependent children</b>	£85.80	£40.00	£68.42	£30.00
<b>Lone parent with dependent children</b>	£177.07	£181.67	£163.76	£155.94

Source: Family Resources Survey, 2010-2011.

Note: For further detail on this Table, see Table A24 to A27 in Appendix 3.

<sup>19</sup> The SHS has information down to the Glasgow level, but it is difficult to produce reliable income estimates at the local area level – attempts have been made in recent years to do this (Bramley and Watkins, 2013), but it is not possible to obtain income estimates according to family type as required in the current analysis.

<sup>20</sup> No attempt is made here to undertake any equivalisation (i.e. to adjust household income for the number of adults and children in the household, in order to reflect the differences in income required to achieve a comparable standard of living). Figures for equivalised income are available from the UK Government's *Households Below Average Income* series (see Department for Work and Pensions, 2013a).

Looking specifically at income from earnings, for families that contain at least one employee<sup>21</sup> (the second panel in Table 8), the FRS data suggests that lone parent earnings are a third of those of couple households. Although it would be expected that lone parents' household income would be lower on average, as they have a maximum of one earner while couple households potentially have two, their average earnings are considerably less than half of that in a couple household. This suggests that lone parents are constrained in some way in their ability to earn compared with couple parents. Median gross weekly pay for lone parent employees is just £208. Low pay may be related to the characteristics of the jobs that they do – in terms of status, sector and hours – or to differences in their age or qualifications. These issues are considered in Section 3.3.

Finally, the third panel in Table 8 shows the average amount of means-tested benefits and tax credits<sup>22</sup> received by each family type, for those who are in receipt of means-tested benefits. Lone parents receive more than couple families on average; this is likely to be due in part to their lower employment rates, with couple families more likely to be receiving Working Tax Credit to supplement a low income, while lone parents are more likely to be out of work and therefore rely on means tested benefits for their income.

Some geographical differences are apparent; lone parents in Scotland appear to earn less, and receive less in state support, and this was found to be statistically significant. However, these differences may reflect both the higher average earnings and cost of living – and particularly the higher housing benefit payments – in the south east of England, rather than any systematic disadvantage. There may also be regional differences in number of children per family, which would be reflected in differences in total benefit payments. The UK Government's *Households Below Average Income* series, which does give equivalised income, suggests that the proportion of families with dependent children who are living below the poverty line is in fact lower in Scotland than elsewhere in the UK (Department for Work and Pensions, 2013a).

In addition to information on income, the Family Resources Survey also contains some questions on the extent to which respondents have difficulty paying for certain basic items. Table 9 shows that there are considerable differences between the ability of lone parents to pay for these items and the ability of those who are not lone parents. The proportion of lone parents failing to keep up with bills and regular debt payments is double that of families without dependent children and more than double that of couples with dependent children. Over three times as many lone parents as couple parents or those without dependent children say they cannot afford a hobby or leisure activity, and that they do not have money to spend on themselves. These results are striking in absolute as well as relative terms; one in five lone parent families are struggling to keep up with bills and debt payments, one in three cannot afford to keep their house in a decent decorative condition or have a hobby, and over half say that they do not have money to spend on themselves.

There are few geographical differences apparent from Table 9, and none that were found to be statistically significant. This suggests that lone parents in Scotland are not worse off than elsewhere with respect to material deprivation.

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<sup>21</sup> The impact of including self-employed was explored, but it had only a very minor impact on the estimates that did not at all change their substantive interpretation.

<sup>22</sup> See Table A6 in Appendix 2 for a list of benefits and tax credits included.

**Table 9. Indicators of financial and material deprivation, by family type.**

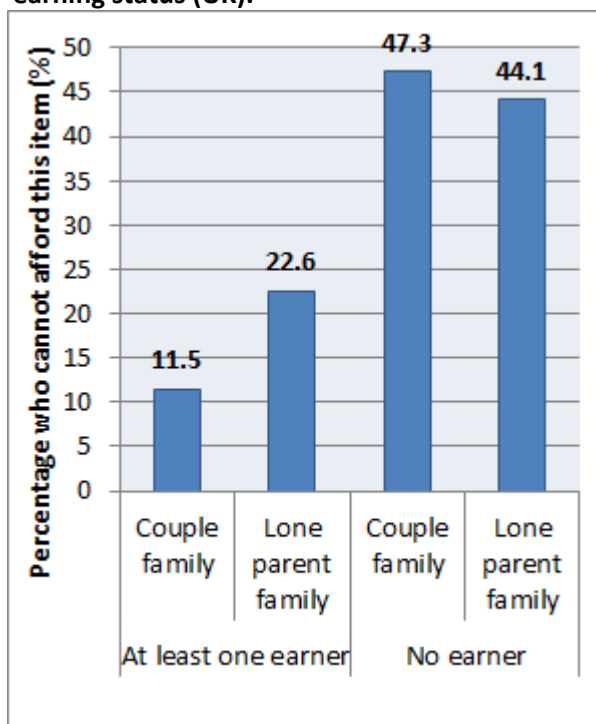
	UK (%)	Scotland (%)
<i>Does not keep up with bills and regular debt payments</i>		
No dependent children	10	12
Couple with dependent children	8	8
Lone parent with dependent children	20	22
<i>Cannot afford to keep house in decent decorative condition</i>		
No dependent children	15	14
Couple with dependent children	14	10
Lone parent with dependent children	32	33
<i>Cannot afford to replace worn-out furniture</i>		
No dependent children	25	21
Couple with dependent children	28	19
Lone parent with dependent children	58	56
<i>Cannot afford to replace broken electrical items</i>		
No dependent children	20	18
Couple with dependent children	18	15
Lone parent with dependent children	50	49
<i>Cannot afford a hobby or leisure activity</i>		
No dependent children	9	8
Couple with dependent children	15	12
Lone parent with dependent children	34	31
<i>Cannot afford money to spend on self not family</i>		
No dependent children	17	16
Couple with dependent children	28	21
Lone parent with dependent children	54	50

Source: Family Resources Survey, 2010-2011.

Note: For further detail on this Table, see Table A28 and A29 in Appendix 3.

The ability to afford items can be further broken down by whether the family has an earner or not, to establish the extent of material deprivation among those in and out of work, and whether this differs between lone and couple parents (this analysis was not possible at the Strathclyde level due to small sample sizes). For households with no earner, there is no statistically significant difference between couple and lone parent families with respect to their ability to afford items. However, among families with at least one earner, lone parents are in general twice as likely to report that they cannot afford an item as couple parents. Table A30 in Appendix 3 gives the full results of the analysis, but the pattern is illustrated here in Figure 7, which takes the example of keeping the house in decent decorative condition. Among families with no earner, 44% of lone parent families and 47% of couple parent families report that they are unable to afford to do this, and this difference was found not to be statistically significant. However, among families with an earner, 23% of lone parent families reported being unable to afford to keep their house in a decent decorative condition, compared with only 12% of couple parent families. This reflects the situation that lone parents in work earn on average just a third of the earnings of couple families (see Table 7 above); this earnings disparity translates into considerably higher material disadvantage for lone parents. All of the variables in Table 9 follow the same pattern of higher material deprivation among working lone parents relative to couple families with at least one earner. The only exception is in ability to afford a hobby or leisure activity, which lone parents are more likely to report being unable to afford, in work or not (Figure 8).

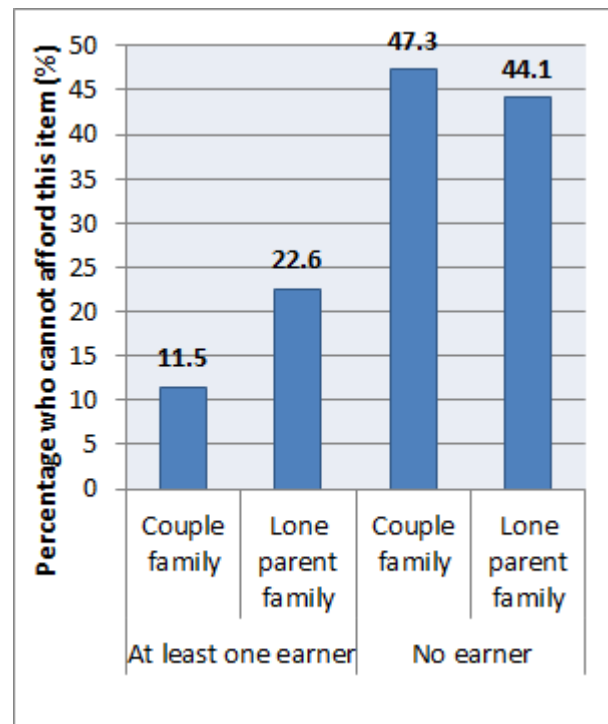
**Figure 7: Cannot afford to keep house in decent decorative condition, by family type and earning status (UK).**



Source: Family Resources Survey, 2010-11.

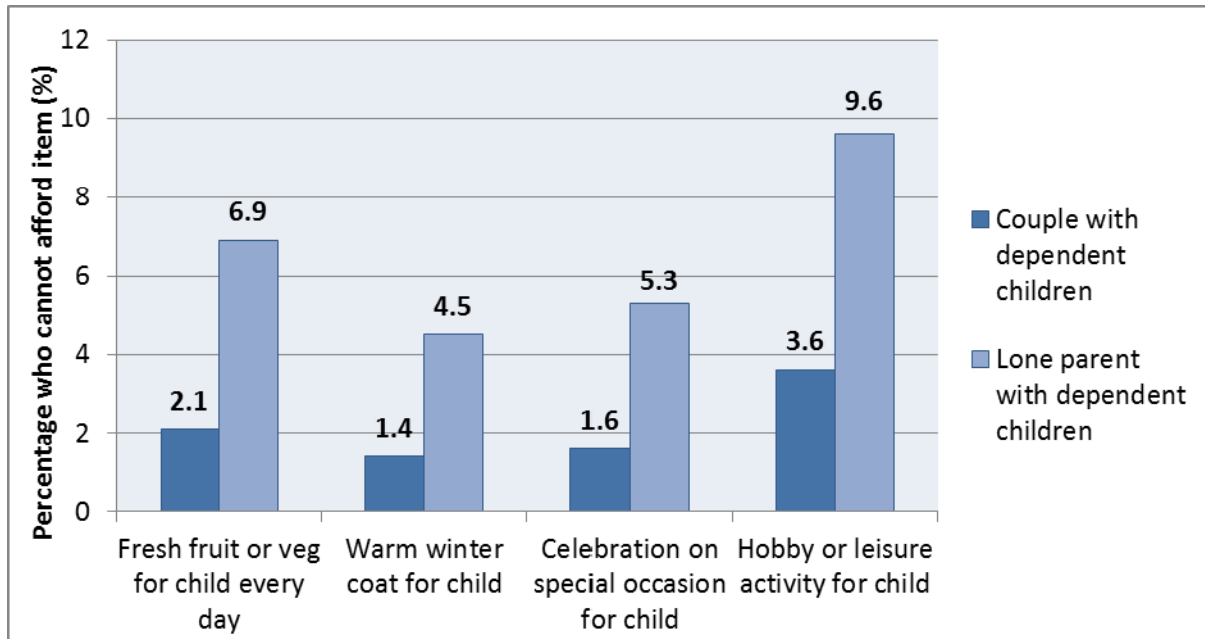
Note: For further detail on this figure, see Table A30 in Appendix 3.

**Figure 8: Cannot afford a hobby or leisure activity, by family type and earning status (UK).**



There are also questions in the Family Resource Survey on the ability to afford basic items for children. Negative responses to these questions are much lower in general than for the questions in Table 9, but there is still a noticeable difference between lone and couple parents (Figure 9), and this was found to be statistically significant in all cases.

**Figure 9: Indicators of child financial and material deprivation in UK working age families, by family type.**



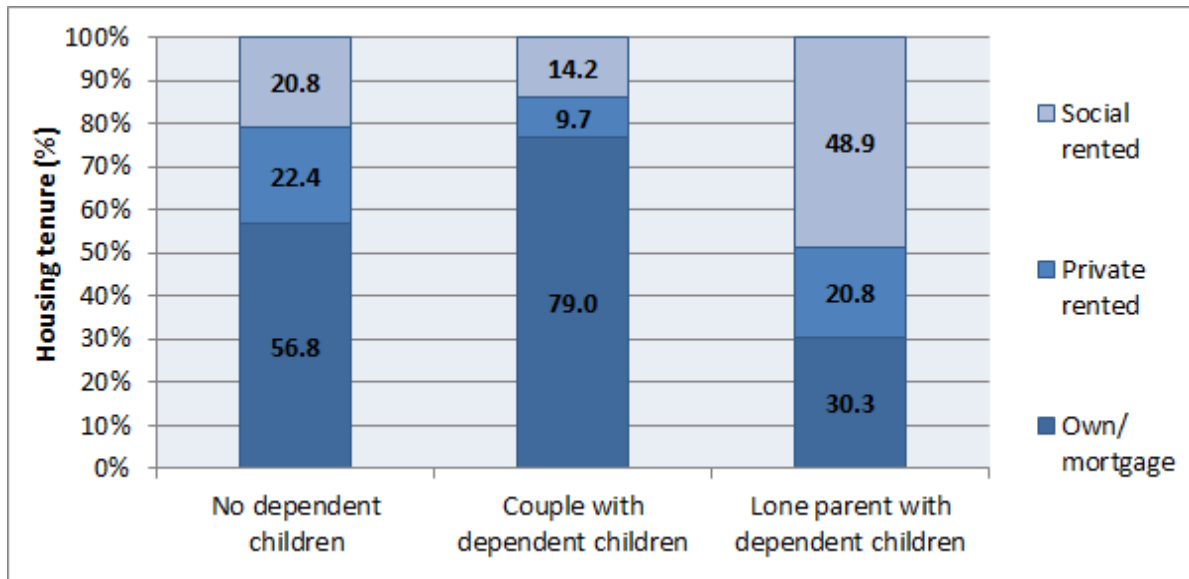
Source: Family Resources Survey, 2010-2011.

Note: For further detail on this Figure, see Table A31 in Appendix 3.

### ***Housing and area deprivation***

Figure 10 shows that lone parents are much more likely than other family types to live in social rented housing (i.e. renting a property from a local authority or housing association), and less likely to own their own home. Just under a third of lone parents own or mortgage their home, compared with almost four fifths of couples with dependent children. Almost half of lone parent families live in social housing. Figure 10 shows the figures for Scotland, but the pattern is the same in the UK as a whole, and when looking specifically at Strathclyde (see Table A33 in Appendix 3).

**Figure 10: Housing tenure of working age families in Scotland, by family type.**

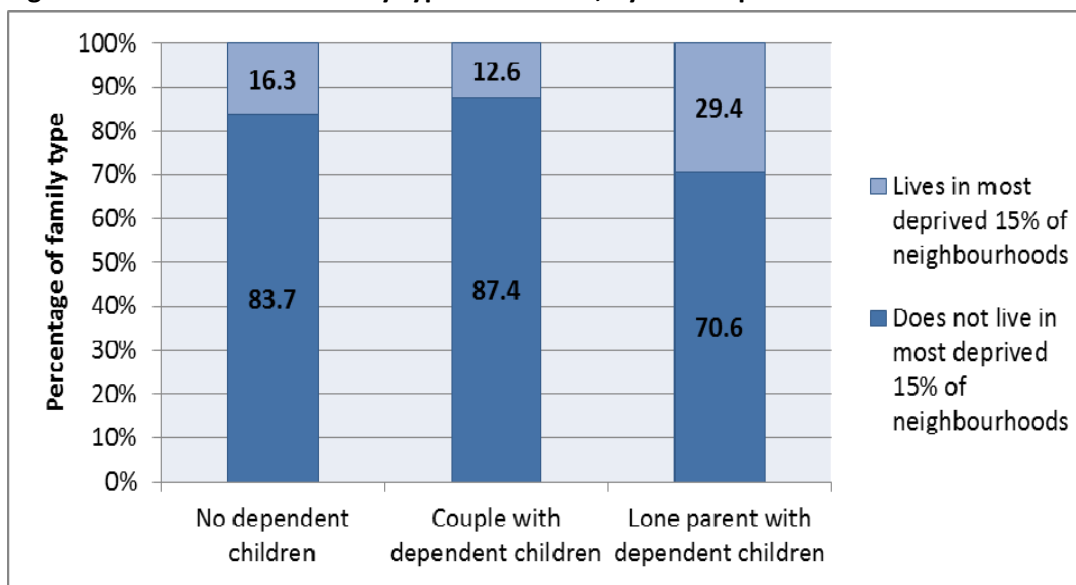


Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this figure, see Table A32 in Appendix 3.

Figure 11 examines the proportion of each type of family living in deprived areas, comparing those in the lowest 15% of areas in the Scottish Index of Multiple Deprivation with those who are not. Lone parents are more than twice as likely as couple parents, and almost twice as likely as those without dependent children, to live in the most deprived areas.

**Figure 11: Distribution of family type in Scotland, by area deprivation.**



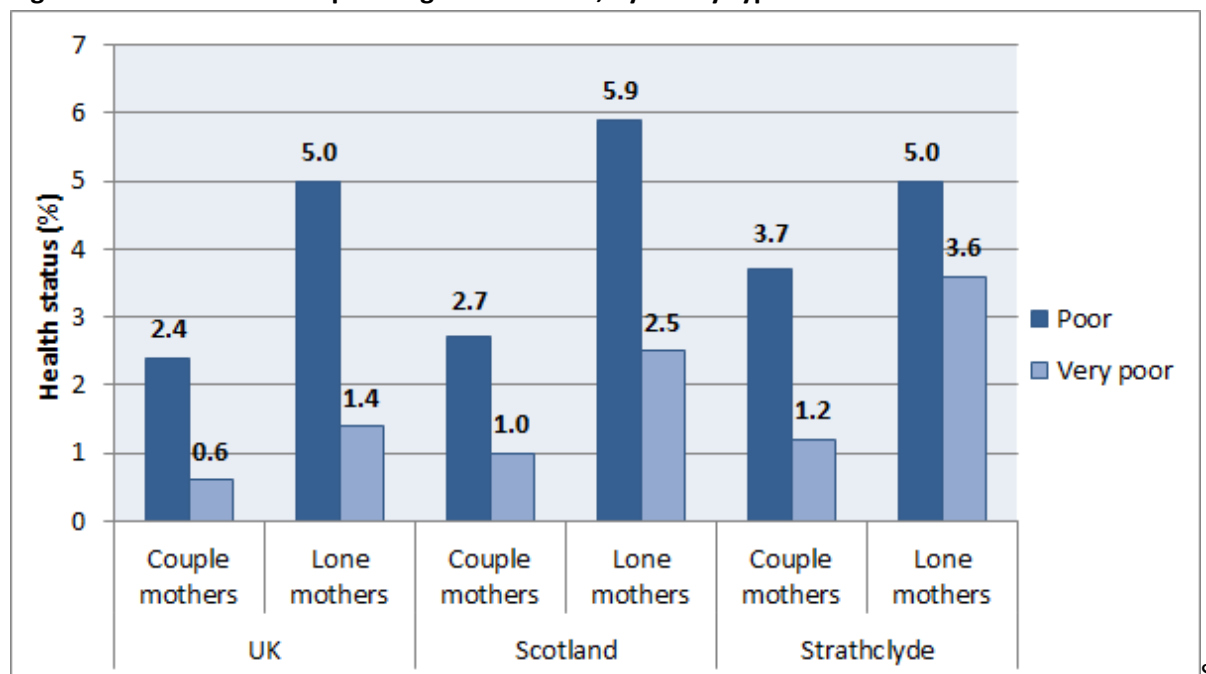
Source: Scottish Household Survey, 2007-08

Note: For further detail on this Figure, see Table A33 in Appendix 3.

## Health

Figure 12 shows differences between lone and couple mothers in the proportion reporting poor or very poor general health.

**Figure 12: Mothers' self-reported general health, by family type.**



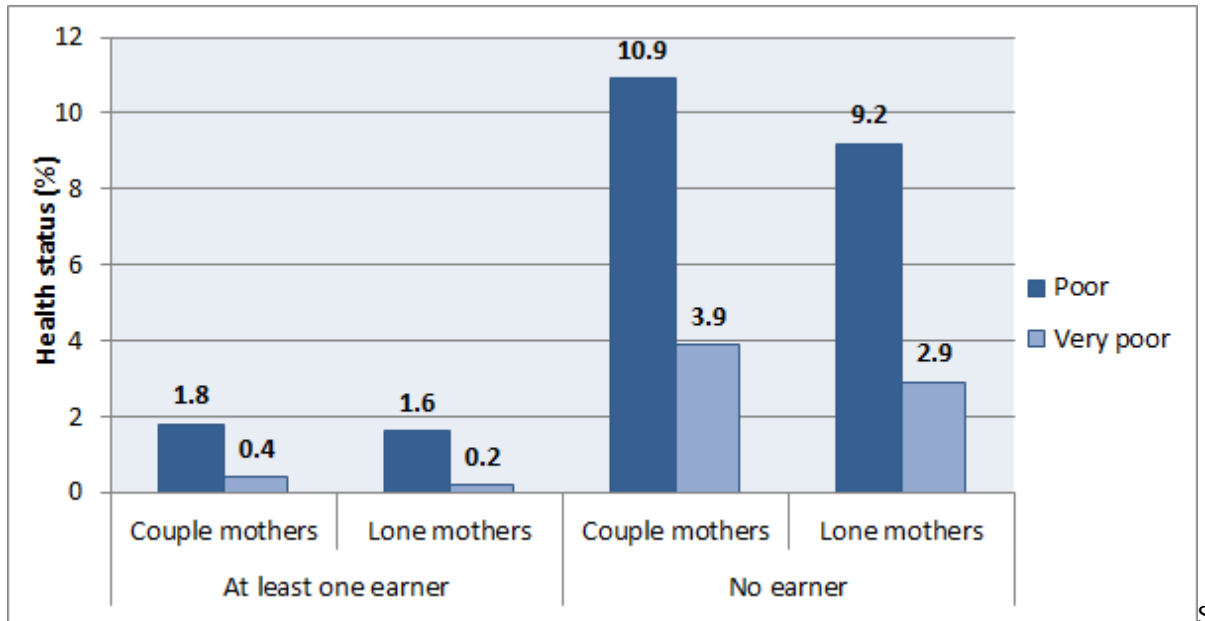
Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this Figure, see Table A34 in Appendix 3.

From Figure 12 it is clear that, although the vast majority of lone mothers do not report poor health, they are more than twice as likely as couple mothers to do so. This is statistically significant in all three geographies, although the gap between lone and couple mothers is slightly larger in Scotland than in the UK as a whole or Strathclyde specifically. Lone mothers in Scotland are more likely than those in the rest of the UK to report poor or very poor health, and this difference was found to be statistically significant, but no significant difference was found between lone mothers in Strathclyde and the rest of Scotland. However, there is a significant difference between Strathclyde and the rest of Scotland in the proportion of lone mothers reporting very poor health. Due to small sample sizes, analysis of the differences between lone and couple fathers was only possible at the UK level, and this indicated a similar pattern (see Table A35 in Appendix 3).

To investigate whether this association between lone parenthood and health is intertwined with the associations between lone parenthood and poorer economic outcomes, the analysis was further broken down according to whether the household contains an earner (Figure 13). Note that this analysis is only possible for mothers, at the UK level, due to small sample sizes. This figure illustrates the key association of economic factors with lower self-reported health. There is virtually no difference between lone and couple parents within each earning status. The highest levels of poor health were in fact found among couple mothers in households with no earner, although the difference between lone and couple mothers in this type of household was not found to be statistically significant.

**Figure 13: Mothers' self-reported general health, by family type and earning status (UK).**



Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this Figure, see Table A36 in Appendix 3.

### 3.3. Employment and work

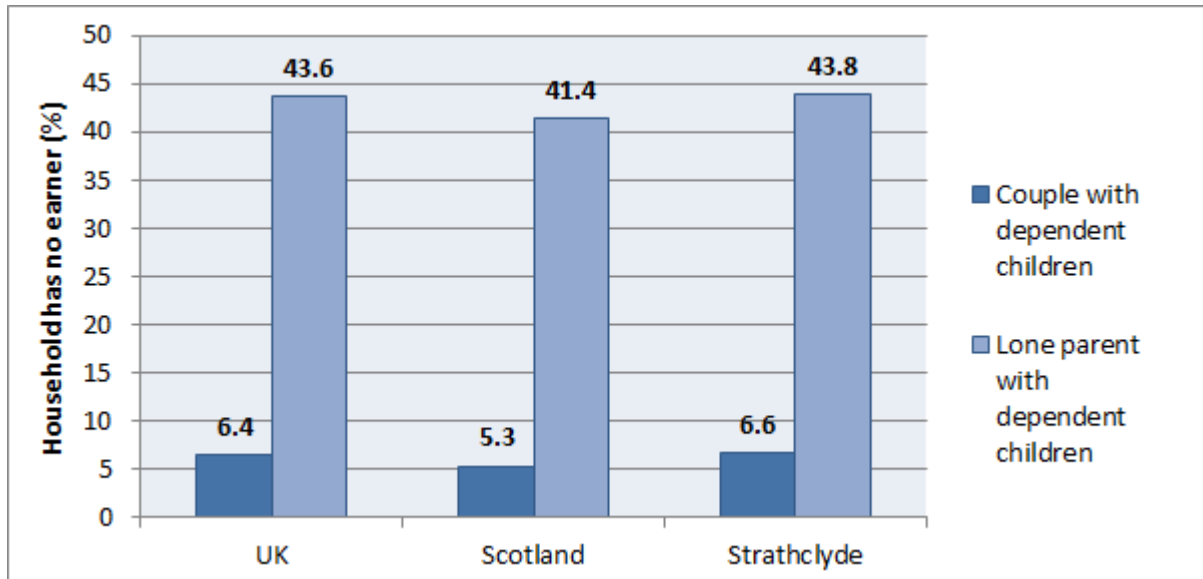
This section examines lone parents' employment, and how this compares with parents in couple families. It explores the extent to which they are in work, and the job characteristics of those who are, and attempts to establish the extent to which these outcomes are related to their status as lone parents, but also to other demographic and human capital factors.

#### Employment

Figure 14 shows that lone parent families are considerably more likely than couple families to contain no earner. Although there appears to be some slight geographical variation in the proportion of families with no earner, this was not found to be statistically significant.



**Figure 14: Families with dependent children with no earner, by family type.**

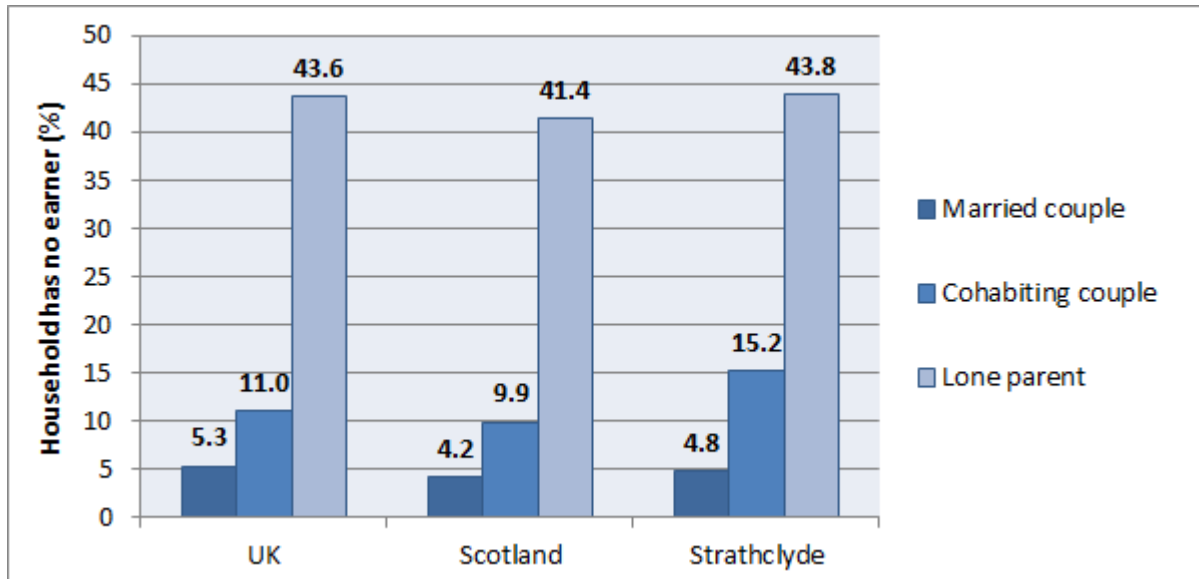


Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this figure, see Table A37 in Appendix 3.

The distinction between married and cohabiting couple families with children with respect to earners in the household was also examined (Figure 15). Cohabiting couple families were found to be at least twice as likely as married couple families to be without an earner, and more than three times in the case of Strathclyde. However, the proportion of cohabiting couples with no earner in the household is more similar to the proportion of married couple families without an earner than to the proportion of lone parents without an earner. This is in contrast to number of children, examined above (see Figure 5 above), in which they were found to be more similar to lone parents.

**Figure 15: Families with dependent children with no earner, by family type including marital status**



Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this Figure, see Table A38 in Appendix 3.

Table 10 shows that there are a number of differences in economic activity between lone and couple mothers and fathers (the analysis was only possible at the UK level due to sample sizes). Couple fathers are the most likely to be in work, but couple mothers are more likely to be in work than both lone mothers and lone fathers. Lone mothers are least likely to be in work. Mothers are much more likely to work part-time than fathers, but fathers are more likely to be self-employed. Lone mothers and lone fathers are much more likely to be unemployed than couple mothers and couple fathers. Lone mothers are the most likely to report their activity as looking after family, but the difference between lone and couple mothers in this respect is very small, and the proportion is around a fifth of both groups. Almost one in ten lone fathers report looking after family as their main activity compared with less than two in 100 couple fathers.

**Table 10. Economic activity in working-age families with dependent children in the UK, by gender of parent and family type.**

	<b>Couple mothers (%)</b>	<b>Lone mothers (%)</b>	<b>Couple fathers (%)</b>	<b>Lone fathers (%)</b>
<b>In work</b>				
<i>Full-time employee</i>	<b>28.1</b>	<b>22.9</b>	<b>68.2</b>	<b>44.8</b>
<i>Part-time employee</i>	<b>35.0</b>	<b>28.4</b>	<b>4.3</b>	<b>8.0</b>
<i>Self-employed</i>	<b>7.3</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>17.1</b>	<b>13.7</b>
<b>Total in work</b>	<b>70.4</b>	<b>55.5</b>	<b>89.6</b>	<b>66.5</b>
<b>Not in work</b>				
<i>Unemployed</i>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>10.5</b>	<b>4.3</b>	<b>11.7</b>
<i>Looking after family</i>	<b>21.0</b>	<b>22.7</b>	<b>1.6</b>	<b>9.4</b>
<i>Sick or disabled</i>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>6.5</b>	<b>2.9</b>	<b>8.1</b>
<i>Student/retired/other</i>	<b>2.9</b>	<b>4.7</b>	<b>1.6</b>	<b>4.3</b>
<b>Total not in work</b>	<b>29.6</b>	<b>44.4</b>	<b>10.4</b>	<b>33.5</b>

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

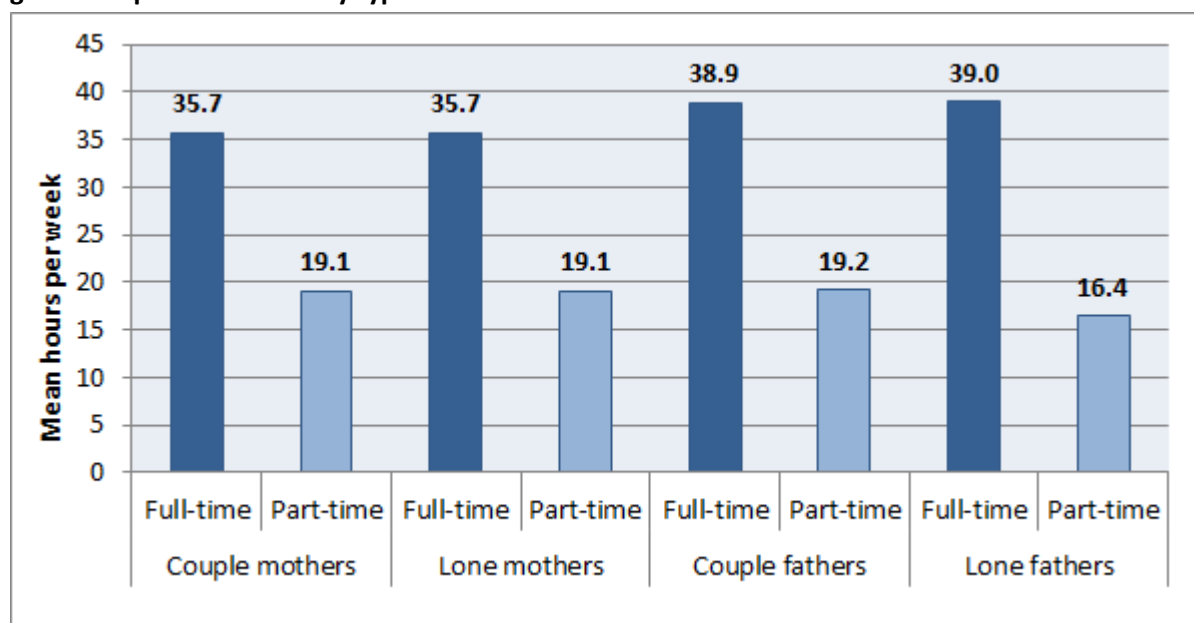
Note: For further detail on this Table, see Table A39 in Appendix 3.

### **Job characteristics**

The APS data also allows some comparison of the type of work that lone and couple mothers and fathers are engaged in. Analysis is possible down to the Strathclyde level for mothers, but only at the UK level for fathers due to the small number of lone fathers in the dataset.

Figure 16 shows the mean hours worked per week by lone and couple mothers and fathers in full-time and part-time employment, for the UK as a whole. Mean weekly hours were not found to differ between couple and lone mothers at all, with no statistically significant differences found at the UK, Scotland or Strathclyde level, or between these geographies. Lone and couple fathers who are full-time employees work slightly longer hours than lone and couple mothers, with mean hours worked among lone fathers more similar to couple fathers than to lone mothers. Among fathers who are part-time employees – although the means obtained differed slightly – no significant difference was found between lone and couple fathers.

**Figure 16: Mean hours worked per week in UK working-age families with dependent children, by gender of parent and family type.**



Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this figure, see Table A40 and A41 in Appendix 3.

There are some differences between the groups with respect to the type and status of job. Table 11 shows the distribution of each group across the Standard Occupational Classification (SOC2010)<sup>23</sup>.

Some of the differences seem to be related more to gender than to whether a person is a lone or couple parent. For example, mothers are more likely to be employed in ‘Administrative and secretarial’, ‘Caring, leisure and other service’, and ‘Sales and customer service’ occupations than fathers. Meanwhile fathers are more likely to be employed as ‘Managers, directors and senior officials’ and ‘Process, plant and machine operatives’, and in ‘Skilled trades’ occupations.

However, there are also differences between the couple and lone parents within each gender, with lone parents occupationally disadvantaged relative to couple parents. Lone parents are less likely than couple parents of the same gender to be employed as ‘Managers, directors and senior officials’ or in ‘Professional occupations’, and more likely to be employed in ‘Elementary occupations’. Lone fathers are less likely to be in professional occupations than couple mothers (although more likely to be managers), although they are more likely to be in a managerial or professional occupation than lone mothers.

<sup>23</sup> Note that these figures should be interpreted with some caution, particularly with regard to the occupational distribution of lone fathers, due to sample sizes (see Table A42 in Appendix 3).

**Table 11. Occupational classification in UK working-age families with dependent children, by gender of parent and family type.**

	Couple mothers (%)	Lone mothers (%)	Couple fathers (%)	Lone fathers (%)
Managers, directors and senior officials	7.7	5.2	16.5	11.8
Professional occupations	24.5	14.5	21.2	15.3
Associate professional and technical occupations	13.1	10.6	15.4	14.0
Administrative and secretarial occupations	18.9	16.8	3.5	4.3
Skilled trades occupations	1.7	2.2	18.5	20.8
Caring, leisure and other service occupations	16.3	21.2	2.3	5.1
Sales and customer service occupations	8.0	12.9	3.2	2.7
Process, plant and machine operatives	1.3	1.4	11.2	13.7
Elementary occupations	8.4	15.2	8.3	12.3

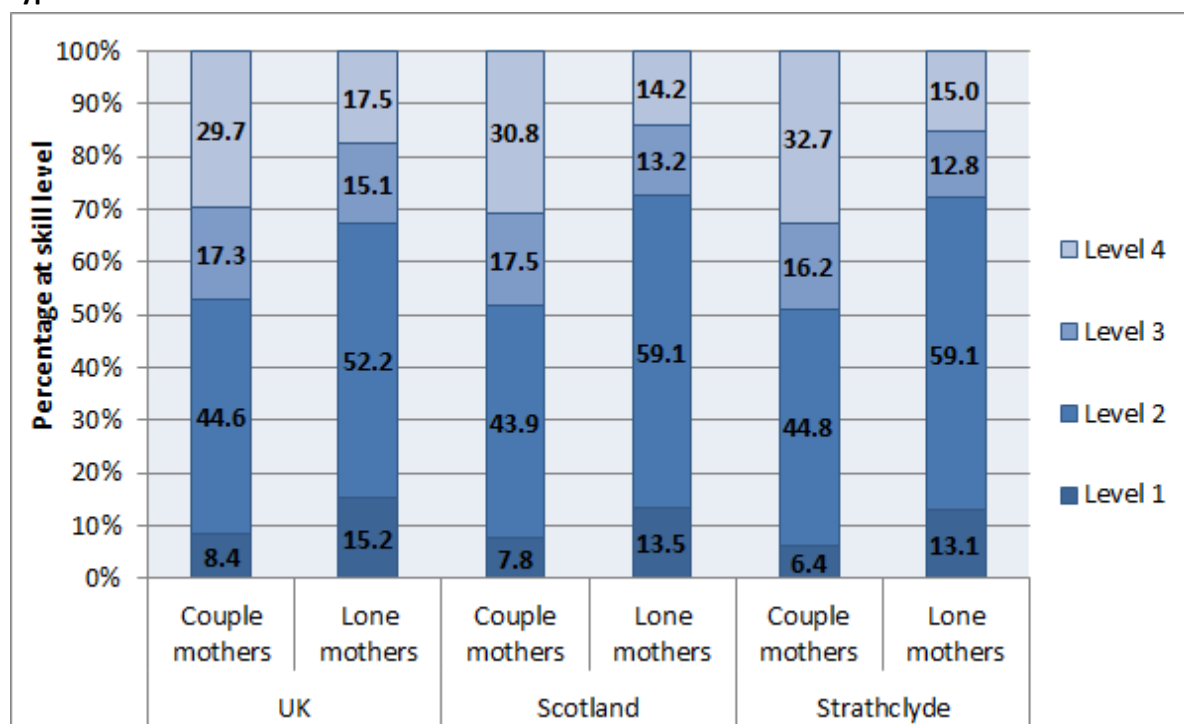
Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this table, see Table A42 in Appendix 3.

The nine-category SOC 2010 classification in Table 11 is not strictly ordinal, but it can be collapsed into a four-category ordinal variable of the skill level involved in the job<sup>24</sup>, to better understand the relative disadvantage faced by lone as opposed to couple parents. Figure 17 compares lone and couple mothers' distributions across these four skill levels, for the UK, Scotland and Strathclyde (the sample sizes were too small for lone fathers to compare fathers in the same way). Level 4 is the highest skill level, and pertains to jobs requiring high levels of education, training and experience, while Level 1 is the lowest skill level, and pertains to jobs requiring a minimum of education, knowledge or experience.

<sup>24</sup> See Table A4 in Appendix 2 for details of how the categories in Table 11 and Figure 17 correspond.

**Figure 17: Occupational skill level of mothers' occupations in UK working-age families, by family type.**



Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

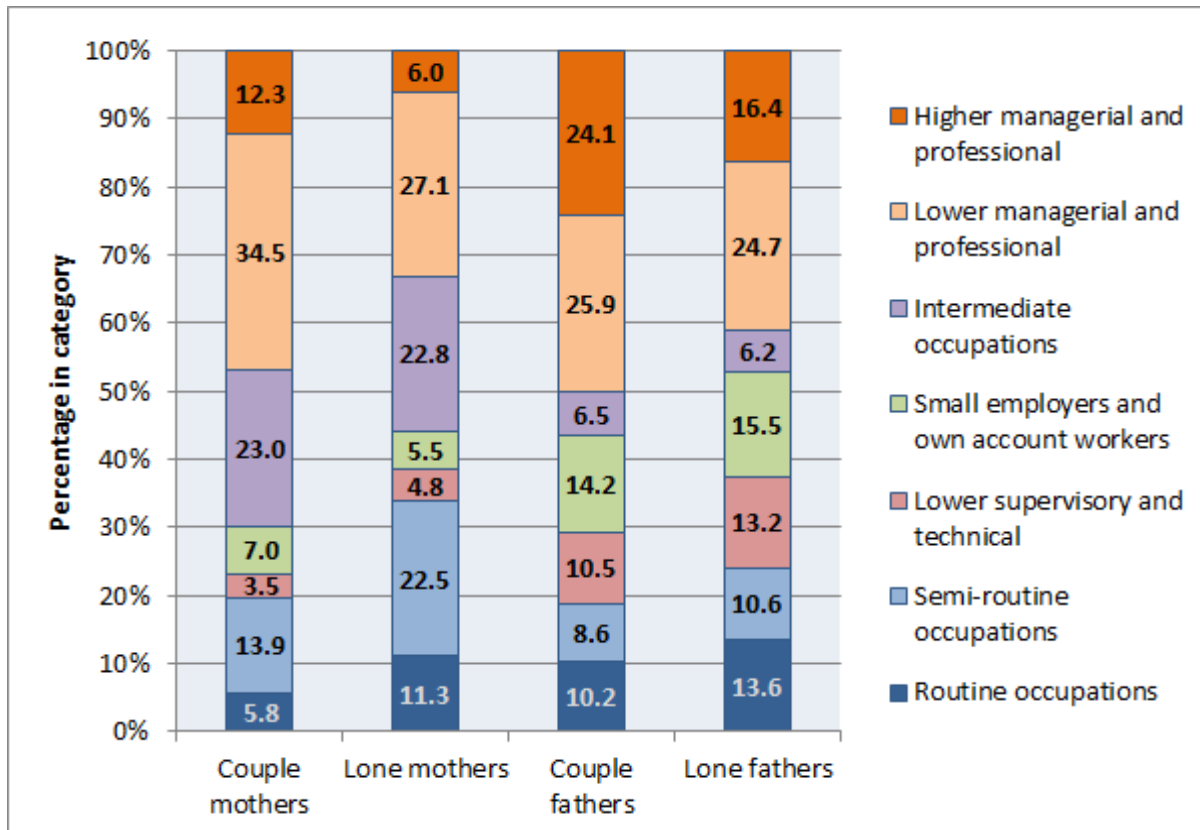
Note: For further detail on this Figure, see Table A43 in Appendix 3.

Level 2 is the modal category for all mothers, in all three geographies. Couple mothers are more likely than lone mothers to be employed in Level 4 occupations; around twice the proportion of couple mothers are employed in the highest level. However, the gap is much smaller at Level 3, only around 2 or 3 percentage points. Lone mothers are more likely than couple mothers to be in the bottom two levels, and those in Scotland and Strathclyde are particularly concentrated in Level 2 occupations, with almost three-fifths in occupations in this category. The differences in these distributions between Scotland and the rest of the UK were significant, but there was no significant difference between Scotland and Strathclyde in this respect.

To further explore the relative occupational disadvantage experienced by lone parents, another indicator of occupational status is the National Statistics Socio-economic Classification (NS-SEC), which is an ordinal ranking<sup>25</sup> of occupations according to both their skill level and their position in the workplace (Office for National Statistics, 2010a). Figure 18 compares the distribution of lone and couple mothers and fathers according to this classification.

<sup>25</sup> Note that the seven-category version presented below is not strictly ordinal – the ‘Small employers and own account workers’ category does not fit into the hierarchy, and should not be considered as ranking below the ‘Intermediate’ category. The three-category version presented in the subsequent diagram is the only version that can properly be considered ordinal (Office for National Statistics, 2010a).

**Figure 18: Socioeconomic classification of parental occupations in UK working-age families, by gender of parent and family type.**



Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

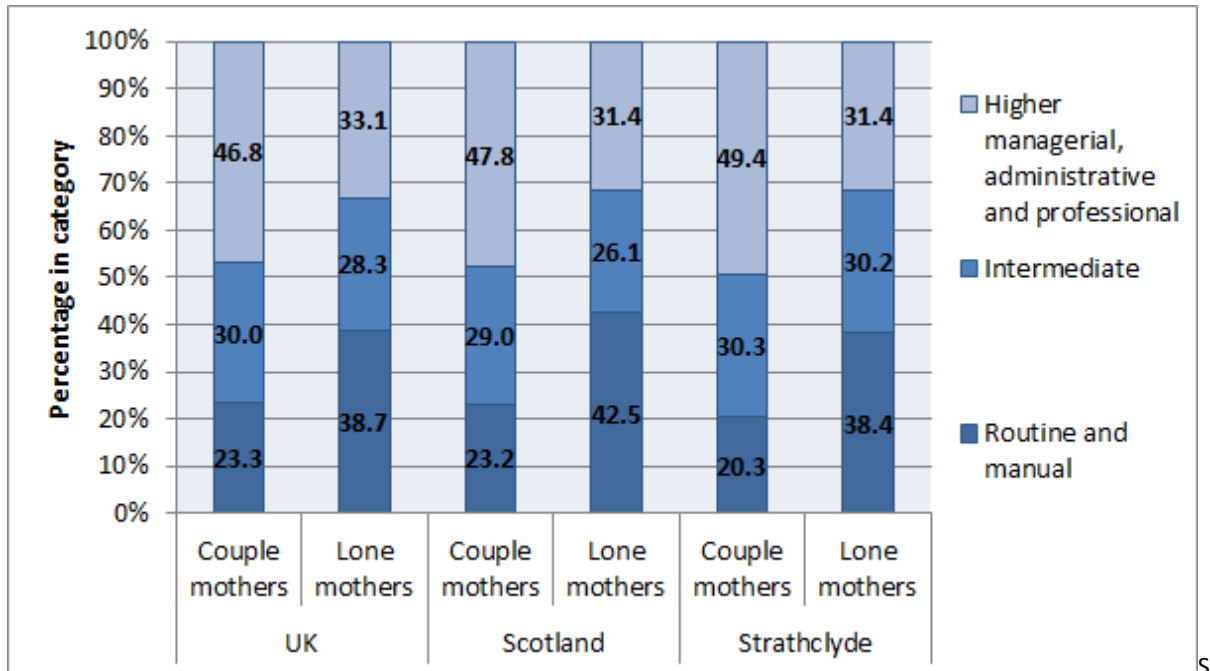
Note: For further detail on this Figure, see Table A44 in Appendix 3.

As with the occupational classification above, there are both differences by gender and by whether a parent is a lone or couple parent. Figure 18 shows that fathers are more likely than mothers to occupy the top ‘Higher managerial and professional’ category, but couple parents are more likely than lone parents to occupy one of the top two categories; the higher and lower managerial and professional occupations. Mothers are more likely to be found in the ‘Intermediate’ occupations, and fathers are more likely to be ‘Small employers and own account workers’, but lone parents of both genders are more likely to be found in the ‘Routine occupations’ or ‘Semi-routine occupations’ than couple parents of either gender. Lone mothers are the most likely to be in one of these bottom two categories; however, it is worth noting that the proportion of lone mothers in these categories is around the same as the proportion in a managerial or professional occupation, at roughly a third.

These categories were collapsed into a simpler three-category variable<sup>26</sup> to examine differences in the socioeconomic classification of lone and couple mothers at the Scotland and Strathclyde levels as well (Figure 19).

<sup>26</sup> See Table A5 in Appendix 2.

**Figure 19: Socioeconomic classification of mothers' jobs, by family type.**



Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this figure, see Table A45 in Appendix 3.

Again, sample size did not permit a similar investigation for fathers. This Figure shows that very similar proportions of lone and couple mothers are found in the 'Intermediate' category; the difference between the two groups is at the higher and lower ends of the scale. Almost half of couple mothers in all geographies are in professional or managerial jobs, compared with around a third of lone mothers, who are more represented in the lowest category. The differences between lone and couple mothers are statistically significant in all cases, and suggest moderate labour market disadvantage for lone mothers.

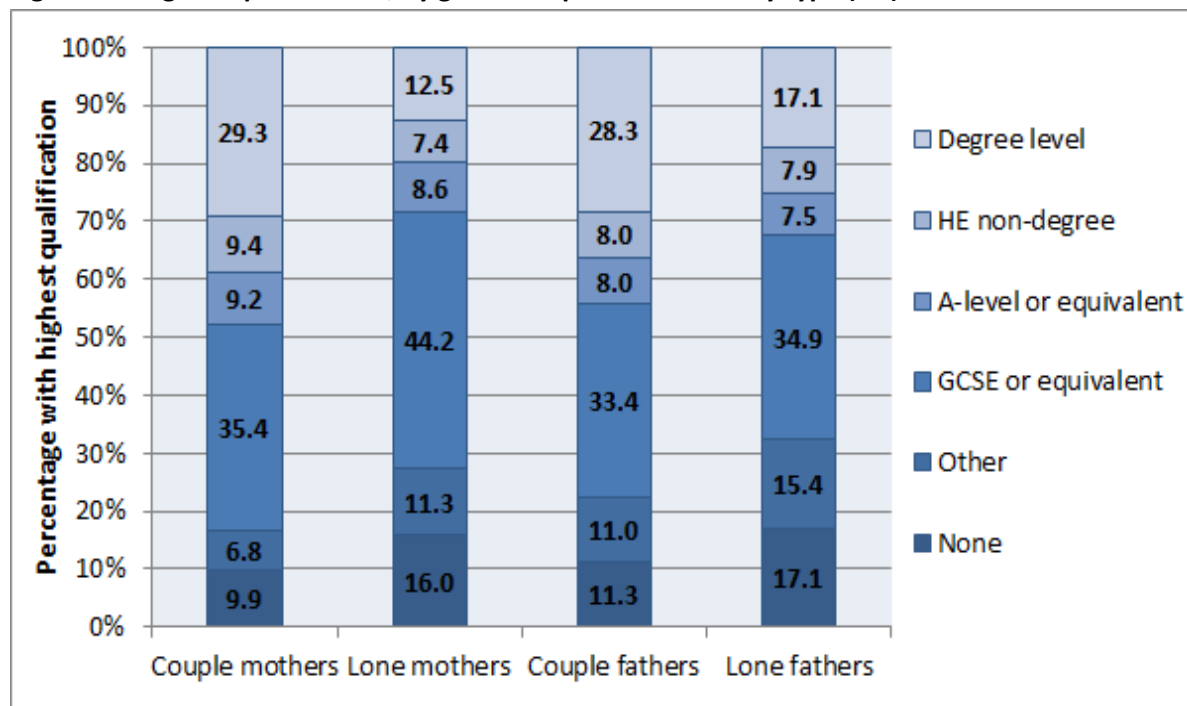
Figure 19 suggests few differences between the UK as a whole, and Scotland and Strathclyde. Although the figures suggest a slightly higher degree of labour market disadvantage for lone mothers in Scotland (a higher proportion in routine jobs and a lower proportion in professional jobs), no statistically significant difference was found between Scotland and rest of UK, or between Strathclyde and rest of Scotland.

All the results presented here pertaining to job skill levels and classifications suggest a consistent story; it is not the case that all lone mothers are stuck in low-skilled, poorly paid jobs, but that they are somewhat disadvantaged in this respect relative to fathers and couple mothers.

Differences in job status may be related to different levels of qualification, and this is considered in the regression models presented later in this chapter. However, to look first of all at qualification levels themselves, highest level of qualification is compared between the four groups in Figure 20.



Figure 20: Highest qualification, by gender of parent and family type (UK).



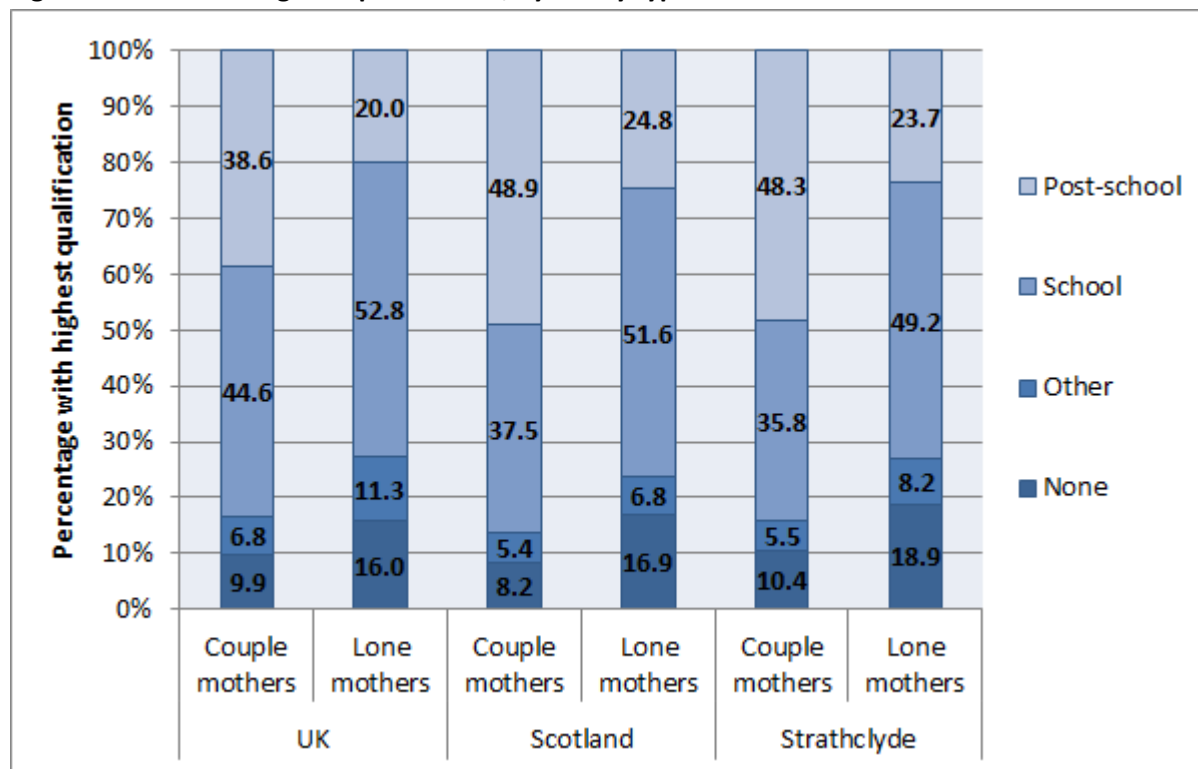
Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this Figure, see Table A46 in Appendix 3.

This Figure shows that lone parents are less likely to have a degree than their couple counterparts. For mothers this disparity is particularly wide, with couple mothers more than twice as likely to have a degree than lone mothers. The difference between lone and couple fathers is somewhat smaller, although the latter are still over 1.5 times as likely to have a degree. Lone parents are also more likely than couple parents to have no qualifications, by around 6 percentage points for both mothers and fathers.

To compare figures for the UK as a whole with Scotland and Strathclyde, these categories are collapsed slightly, and compared between lone and couple mothers in Figure 21 (again fathers are not compared due to the sample size). This Figure suggests that the disparities between lone and couple mothers are sharper in Scotland than they are for the UK as a whole, with lone mothers in Scotland less than half as likely as couple mothers to get a degree, and twice as likely to have no qualifications. However, it should also be noted that lone mothers in Scotland are more likely to have a degree than the average for lone parents in the UK as a whole, and this difference was found to be statistically significant. No significant differences were found between Scotland and the rest of the UK, or Strathclyde and the rest of Scotland, in the proportion of lone parents without qualifications.

**Figure 21: Mothers' highest qualification, by family type.**



Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Note: For further detail on this Figure, see Table A47 in Appendix 3.

### Regression models

The analysis above suggests that lone parents may face employment inequality; they are less likely to be in employment, less likely to be in higher status jobs and more likely to be in lower status jobs. However, they are younger and less qualified on average, which may negatively affect their labour market outcomes. Regression models were used to examine simultaneously the factors associated with lone parents' employment disadvantage (their relatively lower likelihood of being in employment and higher likelihood of being in a low status job). The full results are presented in Appendix 4, but are summarised here in Tables 12 and Table 13. All effects reported are statistically significant unless otherwise indicated.

Table 12 summarises the findings for a model predicting whether a parent is in employment or not, for mothers and fathers (separate models were estimated for each). For some predictors, the results are very similar for mothers and fathers; having qualifications, being over 25 and living in Scotland are all positively associated with being in employment for both. The impact on employment of being a lone parent relative to being a couple parent is negative for both mothers and fathers, although it is stronger for fathers. A key difference between mothers and fathers is that the age of their youngest child has a statistically significant impact on the odds (likelihood) of employment for mothers (mothers with children under five are less likely to be in employment than those with children over five), but there is no significant impact for fathers.

**Table 12. Summary of results of regression model predicting odds of being in employment.**

Predictor variable	Mothers	Fathers
<b>Qualifications</b>	Those without qualifications have lower odds of being in employment than those with (odds are 20% of those with school level qualifications).	Those without qualifications have lower odds of being in employment than those with (odds are 30% of those with school level qualifications).
<b>Number of children</b>	Employment is more unlikely with each additional child.	Having three or more children reduces the odds of employment.
<b>Age of youngest child</b>	Employment is more likely after youngest turns five, and even more likely after youngest is 12.	Not significant.
<b>Age of parent</b>	Those under 25 years old less likely to be in employment than those over 25.	Those under 25 or over 50 years less likely to be in employment than the 25-49 age group.
<b>Living in Scotland</b>	Those living in Scotland more likely to be in employment than those living in rest of UK.	Those living in Scotland more likely to be in employment than those living in rest of UK.
<b>Lone parenthood</b>	Lone mothers have lower odds of being in employment than couple mothers (odds are 60% of those of couple mothers).	Lone fathers have lower odds of being in employment than couple fathers (odds are 20% of those of couple fathers).

Note: Coefficients and measures of model fit are shown in Table A49 in Appendix 4.

Table 13 shows the results of two models (each separately estimated for mothers and fathers); one predicting the odds of being in a professional or managerial job (as opposed to a lower status job than this), and another predicting the odds of being in a routine or manual job (as opposed to a job with a higher status than this). These models show that lone parenthood is significantly associated with employment disadvantage; a lower likelihood of being in a professional or managerial job, and a higher likelihood of being in a routine or manual job, even after controlling for other factors that may influence this. Qualifications are also a key explanatory variable, particularly in relation to access to higher status jobs.

**Table 13. Summary of results of regression model predicting odds of being in a high or low status job.**

Predictor variable	Professional or managerial job		Routine or manual job	
	Mothers	Fathers	Mothers	Fathers
<b>Qualifications</b>	Odds of being in a professional job are seven times higher for those with post-school qualifications relative to school level qualifications.	Odds of being in a professional job are six and a half times higher for those with post-school qualifications relative to school level qualifications.	Odds of being in a routine job are four times as high for those with no qualifications relative to those with school-level qualifications.	Odds of being in a routine job are twice as high for those with no qualifications relative to those with school-level qualifications.
<b>Number of children</b>	Odds of being in a professional job are lower with each additional child.	Being in a professional job is most likely among fathers with two children.	Having three or more children increases the odds of being in a routine job.	Being in a routine job is most likely among those with one child.
<b>Age of youngest child</b>	Those with child aged 0-2 most likely to be in a professional job.	Not significant.	The odds of being in a routine job are higher for those with children over five relative to those with younger children.	Not significant.
<b>Age of parent</b>	Odds of being in a professional job increase with age.	Odds of being in a professional job increase with age.	Odds of being in a routine job are higher for those under 25 than for those over 25.	Odds of being in a routine job are higher for those under 25 than for those over 25.
<b>Living in Scotland</b>	Those living in Scotland have lower odds of being in a professional job than those in the rest of the UK.	Those living in Scotland have lower odds of being in a professional job than those in the rest of the UK.	Those living in Scotland have higher odds of being in a routine job than those in the rest of the UK.	Those living in Scotland have higher odds of being in a routine job than those in the rest of the UK.
<b>Lone parenthood</b>	Lone mothers have lower odds of being in a professional job than couple mothers (80% of the odds).	Lone fathers have lower odds of being in a professional job than couple fathers (80% of the odds).	Lone mothers have 60% higher odds of being in a routine job than couple mothers.	Lone fathers have 30% higher odds of being in a routine job than couple fathers.

Note: Coefficients and measures of model fit are shown in Tables A50 and A51 in Appendix 4.

### 3.4. Summary

This analysis has used data from four major social survey datasets to explore the characteristics and outcomes of lone parents, and how these compare with other family types.

Over 90% of lone parents are female. Lone fathers are, on average, considerably older than lone mothers; in Scotland the difference in mean ages is eight years – slightly wider than the six and a half year difference for the UK as a whole. Lone fathers also have fewer children on average, although the difference between lone fathers and mothers was not found to be statistically significant in Scotland. There are a number of different paths into lone parenthood; some lone parents have never been married or in a relationship, while others have become lone parents as a result of relationship breakdown. Lone fathers are more likely than lone mothers to be widowed or divorced, and lone mothers are more likely to have never been married. Domestic violence may be implicated in relationship breakdown for a substantial proportion of lone mothers, as 46.1% of lone mothers in Scotland report having experienced threatening, controlling or physically violent behaviour since the birth of their child, although the exact role of violence in entry into lone parenthood is not well explored by large-scale survey data.

Comparing demographic characteristics between family types, lone mothers are younger on average than couple mothers, and lone fathers are older than couple fathers, but the size of these differentials is small, just two or three years. Couple families, in the UK and in Scotland, have more children on average than lone parent families. Ethnically, data at the UK-level suggests that lone parents are more likely to be Black and less likely to be Asian than couple parents (there was insufficient data to establish whether this also applies in Scotland specifically).

Looking at the geographical spread of family types, the data suggests that Glasgow has a higher proportion of working-age families with dependent children who are lone parent families than the UK or Scotland average. Lone parent families are more likely than couple families and those without dependent children to live in the 15% most deprived areas according to the Scottish Index of Multiple Deprivation, and less likely than other family types to live in rural areas.

Lone parents have poorer self-reported health than couple parents, and this association was found to be particularly strong in the Strathclyde region. However, the disparity disappears after controlling for the presence of an earner in the household. Households with no earner are almost ten times more likely to report poor health than those with an earner.

Lone parent families are over six times more likely than couple parent families to contain no earner. Lone mothers and fathers are more likely to be unemployed than couple mothers and fathers. A similar proportion of lone and couple mothers (around a fifth) report their economic status as looking after family, but couple mothers are more likely to be employed.

Lone parents experience some disadvantage with respect to occupational structure; they are less likely to occupy the higher skilled and higher status occupations, and more likely to be in low skilled or routine work, although a third of lone mothers and two-fifths of lone fathers are in professional

or managerial jobs. Lone parent occupational segregation and disadvantage intersects with gendered patterns of segregation, leaving lone mothers worst off.

Occupational disadvantage, and the higher tendency of lone parents not to be in paid employment, is reflected in family finances; average earnings from employment in lone parent families are around a third of those in couple families, and they receive around three times as much in state support. Lone parents are more likely to report being unable to keep up with bills, and less likely to report being able afford basic household items such as furniture and electrical goods, to have a hobby or leisure activity, or to have money to spend on themselves rather than the family. They are also more likely to report being unable to afford items for children such as fresh fruit and vegetables and a warm winter coat. The disparities between lone and couple parents on these indicators of material deprivation vary by item, but as a general rule, the proportion of lone parents unable to afford items is around twice that of couple parents.

Lone parents are less likely to have post-school qualifications, and more likely to have no qualifications, than couple parents, although almost a quarter of lone parents in Scotland have post-school qualifications.

Regression models show that there are a number of factors associated with whether a parent is in employment, and if so whether they are in a high or low status job, such as qualifications, number and age of children, and the age of the parent themselves. However, lone parenthood itself exerts an effect independent of these other factors, suggesting that it is itself a characteristic associated with labour market disadvantage.

The mechanism by which lone parenthood creates a barrier to labour market participation is one of the issues considered in the qualitative research reported in the next chapter. This quantitative chapter has identified a number of patterns and association, which the qualitative research in the next chapter explores further, such as the difficulty of managing on the kind of weekly budgets identified here, and the factors stopping lone parents from working, and from progressing in work.

## **4. Qualitative findings**

This chapter presents the findings from the qualitative interviews. These were conducted with 17 lone parents, and a focus group consisting of eight lone parents. The interviews and the focus group explored their experiences of lone parenthood, and of being a lone parent working or looking for work, and of the welfare system. Further information about the design and conduct of the fieldwork is given in Appendix 1, and the topic guides for the interviews and focus group are reproduced in Appendix 5.

All of the lone parents participating in the study lived in Glasgow. Interviewees ranged in age from 21 to 44, with an average age of 30. Their children ranged from one to 19 years old; on average they had two children, and the age at which they had their first child ranged from 15 to 32. Focus group participants ranged in age from 26 to 43, with an average age of 33; their children were all at least four years old, and they had two children on average.

Most had been lone parents from before the birth of their child, or had split from the father of their children when the children were very young. Some had experienced 'on-off' relationships with their children's fathers, sometimes resulting in subsequent children, but all were lone parents at the time of the interview or focus group. Relationships with the non-resident parent varied from zero to regular contact. One participant was a lone father, and one was a kinship carer, and the rest were lone mothers.

### **4.1. Lone parents' lived experience**

#### **Income and poverty**

Most of the respondents in the study (both in the interviews and in the focus group) were on Jobseeker's Allowance (JSA) if their youngest child had already turned five, or Income Support (IS) otherwise. The amount received on the two benefits is the same (the difference is in the conditions attached to receiving JSA). All also receive tax credits, which is an extremely important source of income; as one respondent put it, Income Support is 'buttons', that is, a relatively small sum of money, and what is really crucial is the Housing Benefit that goes with it, and the Child Tax Credit.

The general feeling about living on benefits is that the amount received is just enough to live on and no more. Housing Benefit covers rent entirely for those in social housing (housing association or council properties), which was the majority of respondents, although some were in private rented accommodation and housing benefit did not completely cover the rent in every case. As far as living expenses were concerned, the amount received through benefits and tax credits was, for most respondents, sufficient to pay bills and buy food and other essential items; it was challenging but possible to meet the family's needs on the amount received. However, there was little or nothing left over for 'luxuries'; respondents wanted to be able to take their children on trips, and buy them the things that they wanted, and that their contemporaries had, but were unable to do so on their budget.

“It just gets you there and no more. There’s nothing to play about with, you can’t treat yourself.” **Age 29, two children aged four and three.**

“You just scrape by on your benefits really. By the time you pay your bills and get the shopping... I manage. I’ve got to manage!” **Age 26, three children aged six, two and one.**

“It is a struggle, it’s not easy, but I get by. But there’s never any spare money to do anything, if you wanted to take the kids out anywhere.” **Age 33, two children aged 16 and five.**

It is notable that expenditure beyond meeting the most basic needs was generally perceived as a luxury, in light of research suggesting that most people’s conceptions of a minimum standard of living include more than just the bare essentials. Research that sought to establish a ‘minimum income standard’<sup>27</sup> concluded that, in order to participate in society, modest expenditure is required on items that exceed the needs of basic survival. For a hypothetical lone parent with one child in 2013, this includes the resources to run a car if required, and the ability to spend around £44 per week on ‘social and cultural participation’ (Hirsch, 2013). This would include the kind of activities that most of the respondents reported being unable to afford for their children. For a hypothetical lone parent with one child, benefit income meets just 57% of the minimum income (Ibid.). Therefore, although out of work benefits do not leave lone parents destitute, the lifestyle they support is far below what might more broadly be considered basic, let alone luxurious.

The inability to provide children with the things they wanted was a source of unhappiness for respondents, who expressed disappointment at themselves for failing to provide these things, but also frustration at a lack of opportunity for them to do so. There was not necessarily a feeling that benefits should be higher; respondents felt that they ought to work to pay for luxuries for their children, and wanted to do so. What they want from the state is more support to get into work (see Section 4.3 below).

“I get by. I do struggle, you cannae [cannot] deny that you struggle, but in all fairness it’s enough to cover me, my weans [children], it’s enough to make sure we’ve got all of our bills, it’s enough for the way we live...[a job] could be just a bit more than enough, so that at the end of the month I can say ‘we’re going here’...cause right now you cannae do that, and if you do it, you say ‘we deserve a treat’, and you take money out, but you’ve taken that out of your budget... but you feel you’ve got to do that because they deserve a wee treat”, **Age 21, two children aged five and two.**

“You can’t really ask for any more, can you? You get what you get, you don’t work, so you can’t”, **Age 29, three children aged 11, five and one.**

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<sup>27</sup> The research established a minimum income standard through a process of discussion and debate between experts and focus groups representing a cross-section of the population. The methodology is outlined in Bradshaw *et al.* (2008). A minimum income calculator is available on the MIS website (Centre for Research in Social Policy, 2014).



## Housing and neighbourhood

Most of the respondents lived in housing association or council accommodation, although some were renting privately; this was either because they had been unable to secure social housing, or because they had been dissatisfied with their previous property or neighbourhood, and moving to a private let had given them more space or allowed them to escape unpleasant neighbours. Most were reasonably happy with their accommodation and the area in which they lived.

**"I'm settled where I am now, I quite like it." Age 33, two children aged 16 and five.**

**"There's only two bedrooms in the flat, my boy and girl share a bedroom, but everything else is perfect, the kids have got the big back garden and everything, so unless I got a really good house I wouldn't move." Age 44, two children aged 12 and six.**

The issue of accommodation size was one that did arise, with some respondents reporting having to share a bedroom with their child. Another issue was children having to share a bedroom because they are not old enough to be eligible for separate ones, but having very different routines due to an age gap. Some had experienced a considerable degree of upheaval, moving several times due to relationship transitions or issues with the house or neighbourhood. However, moving house could lead to problems, as shown in the quotation below.

**"[I've moved] four times... splitting up with [children's father] and then getting back together, and then splitting up again." Age 25, two children aged five and three.**

**"I've had about eight or nine houses in five years. It was because my council house, the housing [department] wouldn't do anything about my neighbours, and they were alcoholics and junkies, and they were leaving stuff lying about the close, and I had two kids. So I moved into a private let and then it went pear shaped from there. So to-ing and fro-ing, back and forth." Age 24, two children aged five and two.**

Most reported getting on well with their neighbours, although some had had complaints from neighbours about the noise made by their children.

## Family and social networks

Respondents were asked about the presence of family and friends nearby, and in particular the extent to which their own social network might be able to provide childcare if they were to find a job.

Even where the relationship with the non-resident parent was cordial and contact was frequent, non-resident parents were rarely seen by the lone parents as a source of childcare in the event that they found a job. This was either because the non-resident parent themselves worked, or because

they were (or were perceived as) not willing or reliable enough to do so. Nor was the receipt of maintenance from the non-resident parent considered a reliable source of income, if any arrangement was even in place at all. This is consistent with national statistics on child maintenance receipt, which suggest that only 36% of lone parent families receive child maintenance, and that the median amount received by those who do is just £23 per week (Bryson *et al.*, 2012).

**“They do have contact with him but it’s on his terms.” *Age 37, two children aged 19 and five.***

**“He probably would [provide childcare], but I wouldn’t like to depend on it because he’d probably let me down, but I could ask and he probably would.” *Age 33, two children aged 16 and five.***

Most had families that were within a short walk or bus journey, and many lived very near to their own parents and siblings, but this was not universal; some had family in another city, or none at all. Those without recourse to support from family or friends were completely reliant on formal care, or a job that is within school hours, in order to be able to work. For some, using family members to help with childcare was not possible, because they worked, or because they were too elderly or ill, particularly to look after younger children. Where they were available, it was generally for taking school-age children after school, rather than regular care of younger children throughout the week. Some lone parents were also reluctant to ask family to do more than help out occasionally, as they did not feel that it was right to burden them with regular childcare.

**“You hate asking people ‘can you take them?’” *Age 30, two children aged ten and six.***

**“It’s maybe OK for the first week or two, but other people have a life too.” *Age 26, two children aged seven and four.***

## **Health**

Most of the respondents reported no health problems affecting either themselves or their children. One respondent reported that her asthma affected her ability to work to some extent, as she occasionally requires hospitalisation, and her condition has been affected by cleaning products in previous jobs. Another reported that mental health issues had, a sometimes profound, impact on her day-to-day life, making it difficult to complete basic tasks let alone sustain employment.

**“Sometimes I can’t get up and get the weans [children] to nursery and school in the morning. Sometimes I just can’t get out of the house at all because I’ve got anxiety as well... sometimes I just can’t do it. I lost one of my jobs because of it, and it’s getting in a job and staying in a job, because I’ve got a very short fuse.” *Age 24, two children aged five and two.***

Most of the respondents did not have any additional unpaid caring responsibilities for an elderly or disabled adult, and none reported any such responsibilities that would prevent them from finding work.

## 4.2. Looking for and being in work

### Education and employment

The interviews explored the lone parents' educational and employment histories, including recent attempts to gain qualifications and the barriers to doing so. The research sought to understand: the impact on educational and employment trajectories of becoming and being a lone parent; to what extent becoming a lone parent had altered their direction; and to what extent being a lone parent represented a barrier to employment or education. Employability factors such as qualifications and experience have been identified in previous research as key barriers to employment for lone parents (Haux, 2011).

The respondents had low qualifications on average, although some had managed to gain Standard Grades at school, and some had gone on to college. A lack of qualifications was for some a result of their disengagement with education and a history of truanting. However, parenthood itself also disrupted education, with some leaving because of pregnancy, and parenthood creating ongoing difficulties in continuing with education.

"I did complete Intermediate 2 at college. And then I fell pregnant so I couldn't go to do the Highers. You can't have more than four weeks off and you can't get the wean [child] into nursery until it's six weeks old." **Age 26, three children aged six, two and one.**

"My mum spoke to the headteacher, who said to her that there was night classes and stuff, but at the time it was all a bit of a shock... so I didn't go back, I just stayed at home and looked after my son." **Age 33, two children aged 16 and five.**

Most did not have particular ambitions while at school, and even among those that did, there was often a sense of giving up on these.

"It's not very realistic... I just thought it's a bit of a dream kind of thing, it's not really reality... it's really long hours and unsociable hours, and who's going to look after the kids?" **Age 25, two children aged five and three.**

"I wanted to be a nursery school teacher. And then I woke up. I don't know, I always thought I'd have a job, get a job. I was always gonna end up a single parent." **Age 37, two children aged 19 and five.**

Not all respondents had ever worked, and those that had had mostly done so in retail, factory or cleaning work. Respondents struggled to accumulate any substantial employment experience, as spells in employment alternated with spells of both unemployment and parenthood. Many of those

looking for work now have been out of work for some time, and they worried about the gaps in their employment history when applying for work.

“I think it’s probably just being out of work for quite a while, and you feel a bit rusty, I suppose, and a wee bit ‘will I be able to do it?’... cause some of them [jobs] I’ve done a long time ago... and I don’t know if that maybe puts people off, if you’ve not worked in a certain industry for a long time.” **Age 32, one child aged five.**

“I don’t feel confident and don’t really know what to put on them [CVs], because obviously there’s a few gaps as well.” **Age 25, two children aged five and three.**

### Looking for work

Two respondents had recently moved into work, but most were not in work. Most of the lone parents were looking for work. For some this was in part because they had to, because they had been moved onto JSA and were now obliged to seek work, although for the most part these lone parents did want to work, but many felt very far away from the labour market. Other respondents were looking for work even though they had not yet been moved onto JSA.

### *Attitudes to work and looking for work*

Respondents were in general keen to find work, as they saw a number of benefits to being in work. The first of these was financial; many perceived that they would be better off in work, and wanted to have more money, particularly to spend on their children, as they found they had limited capacity for this on their benefit and tax credit income (see above).

“I want my weans [children] to have good things in life. Be able to take my daughter out and when she says can she go to the shop I don’t have to say I’ve nae [no] money.” **Age 26, three children aged six, two and one.**

“I was better off financially [in work]. I’d rather work than be on the benefits system. I want to have money for my weans and be able to give them stuff if they want stuff and go places. I feel better about myself when I’ve got a job because I’m working for my children.” **Age 24, two children aged six and five.**

However, it is not entirely clear that work would make the respondents better off. Among those who had previously been in work, there were mixed feelings about whether they had in fact been financially better off than they were presently on benefits; some felt that they were, others did not. Few had a clear idea of the minimum they would have to earn to be better off than they were currently. Research has suggested that their aspirations for a better standard of living may not be met by part-time, low-skilled and low-paid work. Figures presented in Table 3 earlier in this report showed that work is not a guaranteed route out of poverty, with 17% of children with a lone parent working full-time still in poverty and 31% of those with a lone parent working part-time. Research on the minimum income standard has suggested that a lone parent with one child working 37.5 hours

per week on the minimum wage will meet only 86% of the minimum standard; they would have to be earning around double the minimum wage to meet this standard (Hirsch, 2013).

The second major advantage of work was seen to be personal independence and the opportunity to spend time with other adults. Lone parenthood offers little respite from caring for children, particularly for those whose children do not regularly spend time with a non-resident parent or other relative, and respondents welcomed the prospect of some time in a different role. Those whose children had started school talked about not wanting to waste these hours during the day sitting around the house; they saw the time as an opportunity to work.

**INTERVIEWER:** What do you think are the advantages of being in work?

“Meeting folk, getting back out there.” **Age 31, one child aged four.**

“Sanity! [laughs]... it’s being out there during the day, having conversations with other people... it’s having a routine of every single day, I’m working, the weans [children] are in education... it makes it a lot easier, a lot happier.” **Age 21, two children aged five and two.**

The third motivation for seeking work is the desire to bring their children up to have a good work ethic, and the central role of teaching by example in doing so. Respondents were keen to give their children the message that money came from work, and that it is important to be in work.

“I’d like her [daughter] to see me working, I think it would just instil a good work ethic in her when she’s older as well, looking back, that her mum did work and not just stayed on the social.” **Age 32, one child aged five.**

“They don’t see you working but they know that you’re going and getting money, so they think, if I can just sit about... and this hole in the wall will give me money.” **Age 30, three children aged ten, six and five.**

However, despite some strong motivations for working, there was some trepidation about looking for work, particularly among those who have perhaps been out of work for some time, have low skills, and are not particularly sure about what they want to do or confident that they are employable.

“I’d like to go to work, to do better for the kids... I’d like a job, and get off the burroo [benefits], and signing on every fortnight” ... “It’s scary...I’m not an outgoing person, I find it hard to look for work. I would love to have a job to work in, but I can’t work computers or anything like that. I don’t even know what work I could do.” **Age 32, two children aged 12 and six.**

Some lone parents were willing to start work before their children started school, although others preferred to wait until their youngest child was in school. Almost all were happy to return by this

stage, provided they could find a job that fitted in with school hours and/or appropriate out of school childcare.

“At first I was going to wait until my wee boy started school before I looked for a job, but then I’m like, I can’t do it, I need to get a job, I want my own independence, because I was too used to that when I was working.” **Age 27, two children aged six and one.**

### ***Type of work***

Not all of those who were looking for work were looking for a specific job, and many said that they were just looking for any job, although most had a broad list in mind rather than the full spectrum of occupations; generally this included (and in fact rarely went beyond) a fairly low-skilled and somewhat gendered selection of cleaning, manufacturing, care, hospitality and retail work. For some, the first response to the question of what type of work they are looking for is one of hours rather than job activities. A common preference is for a job that fits within the primary school hours.

“The job would need to be between half nine and half two.” **Age 37, two children aged 19 and five.**

“I’m just looking for sixteen hours, I’m not looking for anything else... The hours will need to fit around [my daughter].” **Age 31, one child aged four.**

However, others had more specific ideas about the kind of job they wanted to do. For some it was an intention to re-join an interrupted career path, to complete or further their training, or to return to a job they enjoyed. Others wanted to embark on something different; one respondent wanted to bring her own experiences to working with children in care, while another had set her sights on becoming a gas engineer.

“I’m struggling to get a job because I’ve only done level 2, and a lot of the [hair] salons are wanting an HNC or HND, so I’d need to go back to college.” **Age 25, two children aged five and three.**

“I was working in [a bank], running the staff canteen, and it was great – started at seven in the morning, took five minutes to get to work, finished at half two, it was a great job.” **Age 43, two children aged 13 and nine.**

“I always worked in the hotels, I’d like to go back to that... I liked it, I was a manager.” **Age 43, one child aged five.**

Most respondents had a preference for a job in the local area, mostly due to the practical difficulties of getting between the locations of work and children’s schools and nurseries (see spatial barriers to

work, below). However, some expressed other reasons for this preference as well, such as a discomfort with unfamiliar areas, or wanting to be near where the children are during the day.

“I don’t want to travel that far because of my wee girl’s situation having asthma.” **Age 24, two children aged six and five.**

“I’d need to get to know an area first.” **Age 30, two children aged nine and five.**

### ***Methods of looking for work***

Most of the respondents use internet job sites to search for jobs, although some still take more direct approaches such as looking in shop windows or handing in speculative CVs. Some also make use of traditional social networks such as family or friends to alert them to opportunities, which is something that other studies have identified as a useful source of help in finding family-friendly employment (Millar and Ridge, 2008). The most common website used by respondents was Universal Jobmatch, as activity on this website is usually an aspect of their JSA conditions. Reports varied as to how useful the service is, with some complaining that new vacancies are posted rarely, and others reporting that they can find at least the number of vacancies they need to apply for, if not more.

There is some variation in the extent of internet access; many can access the internet via a mobile phone, but some need to use the library or the Jobcentre. There is also some variation in competence at using the internet to search and apply for jobs. Some have needed help to be able to use the service at all, and many have needed help with the next step of submitting the relevant information (CVs, application forms, and so on) online.

“Some of the things online I probably wouldn’t be able to do... certain ones, if you’re not used to a computer it’s hard. Some ones I go on and it looks easy and I can do it no problem, but others are just different.” **Age 33, two children aged 16 and five.**

### ***Job opportunities***

Optimism about the extent of local job opportunities varied considerably, with some respondents claiming that there are no jobs at all, and others arguing that there are jobs if you look for them. However, even those who thought there were jobs felt that few of these were compatible with their caring responsibilities. Having a youngest child starting primary school does not automatically pave the way to employment, as parents are still required to be present for dropping off and picking up their children from school, and care outside of these hours is not always available (see section on childcare below). Thus, without external support, lone parents are effectively limited to a job that can be contained within these hours, but there are more parents seeking such jobs than there are vacancies. This may help to explain the finding in other research that the start of primary school does not precipitate the substantial movement from benefits into work that policy-makers perhaps

expect (Brewer and Crawford, 2010). A lack of sufficiently flexible jobs has also been identified in other research as a key barrier for lone parents in finding and staying in employment (Gingerbread, 2012a; Smith, 2013).

“There’s not a lot of jobs out there that are 10 till 2.” **Age 34, three children aged 14, ten and five.**

“Everybody wants that 10 till 2, that’s why there’s no shifts at that time... if a job comes up, how many parents are going to go for that job.” **Age 40, two children aged seven and six.**

“I’ve not come across anything that sits around school hours... that’s the big barrier... starting work, it would have to be after nine, so I could get [the younger child] into school.” **Age 43, two children aged 13 and nine.**

Even when respondents had found jobs to apply for, the usual result was rejection, or not to hear anything back at all. Those on JSA were applying for between three and six jobs per week, but failing to get into employment. Of the two lone parents who had found work, in neither case had this been through applying ‘cold’; they had found a way in via a training or volunteer scheme, and had been subsequently offered a position as a result.

“I’ve applied for cleaning jobs, but nothing. I phone companies up as well and put my name down for a job but never hear anything back.” **Age 44, two children aged 12 and six.**

### **Barriers to being in work**

Even if a job were to be offered, a number of barriers to taking up the opportunity remained for most lone parents. Childcare is the largest and most obvious, but there are a number of practical issues that lone parents face in trying to reconcile the demands of a job with their sole responsibility for their children, and these can be insurmountable.

#### ***Childcare***

A lack of affordable childcare emerged as an absolutely key issue preventing lone parents both from finding and taking up work. The free provision, at just two and a half hours per day, does not facilitate employment.

“It’s hard sometimes, there is jobs out there – people just go ‘there’s nothing there’, but there is jobs there for people – but it’s the childcare, trying to get childcare, you can’t, it’s really, really hard to get childcare... and if you’ve only got a morning placement or an afternoon, you can only work for an hour, because by the time you’ve put them in [to school] and then travelled to work and travelled back...” **Age 24, two children aged five and two.**



A lot of the lone parents were not clear how the support available through the Tax Credit system (to support more than the basic provision) worked in practice. However, even those who were aware of it alluded to the 'Catch-22' situation created by the need to be in employment in order to claim tax credits to pay for childcare, but the need to secure childcare before being able to accept an offer of employment.

Respondents also struggled to find the time to undertake job seeking activities – writing CVs and applications, making contact with local businesses, and attending interviews – without having childcare. The free entitlement is not enough, as it is only part-time and during term time, but interviews may be scheduled outside of these limited hours. This is particularly problematic for those who move onto JSA during the summer holiday before their child starts school, if their child has turned five before school starts in August. If they are on JSA and fail to attend an interview, they could be sanctioned, but free nursery care is not available during the summer holiday.

Some respondents had looked into the availability of childcare and found that there was some; others found it severely lacking. In particular there is a lack of after-school and holiday care; this is often provided for several primary schools at one location, therefore places are limited, and those already in work receive priority.

A lack of childcare is particularly problematic for those who do not have family to help out, which some lone parents do not, and are completely reliant on formal care. Even those who have support from relatives and so on are reluctant to call on it all the time (see section above on social networks). Most of the lone parents would be happy to make use of affordable formal childcare, although a minority are reluctant to use any formal care, because they did not trust the providers or because their child does not like going to nursery.

“You don’t know who anybody is. And I don’t care if you’re sitting there with a certificate that says you’re qualified, because anybody can get that. And I just think it’s disgusting how they’re asking us to put our kids into care, to get watched by complete random strangers, and it’s going to cost us more money than it would to stay at home and take care of our own kids. I didn’t have children to give them to complete strangers to bring them up, I had them to bring them up myself.” **Age 40, two children aged seven and six.**

### ***Spatial, logistical and transport issues***

Most of the respondents do not drive, either because they cannot afford to learn or do not have access to a car, and are therefore reliant on public transport to get them to work. Public transport was regarded as reliable enough but expensive, and it can take a long time to get across the city. This can narrow the area in which there are realistic job opportunities, particularly if getting to work has to be combined with taking children to school and/or nursery – and especially if children are at different locations. This is consistent with other studies on the lower potential travel-to-work times of mothers generally, and lone mothers in particular, in Scotland (McQuaid, 2009).

“Transport is a problem... I’d have to get buses because I don’t drive at the moment.” **Age 26, three children aged six, two and one.**

“The furthest I would travel is the city centre... I don’t drive. Just buses.” **Age 31, one child aged four.**

### ***Barriers to progression***

Although some of the lone parents had plans for further study, training or career progression, most were waiting for their children to start primary school, or even secondary school, before they could contemplate pursuing these. Some knew that their preferred career path would involve longer or more unsocial hours, and wanted their children to be a little more independent first, and planned to take a more family-friendly job in the meantime.

It is also very difficult as a lone parent to undertake full-time education. It is not possible to claim JSA and be in full-time education, as the claimant has to be available for work. In order to undertake full-time education, the lone parent would have to stop receiving JSA – and crucially, some or all of their entitlement to associated benefits such as Housing Benefit – and apply for a student loan. Lone parents not yet on JSA and still on IS are also obliged to be on student support if they are eligible, and will no longer be eligible for IS if they receive the loan. The amount of student loan available may not be enough to cover all living expenses, making it impossible to pursue full-time education.

“I can’t go on and do my HNC because... I’m in a private let, so SAAS [the Student Awards Agency for Scotland] might not be able to cover all my rent, and how I’m going to manage to live as well... cause I need to come off all my benefits, including Housing Benefit... so I didn’t want to take the chance, it was either an education or a house for me and my kids.” **Age 24, two children aged five and two.**

### ***Challenges of reconciling work and childcare***

Not all respondents had worked since becoming lone parents; some had, but had to give up, either because something changed and the arrangement was no longer feasible, or because it was simply too hard to continue with an arrangement. Stories from the interviews and focus groups showed the difficulty and complexity of reconciling work and care as a lone parent, due to many of the issues discussed here, such as childcare, transport, and a lack of jobs that can be readily reconciled with their responsibility as a sole carer.

“I actually was working, but I had to give up my job because they changed my shift to six in the morning... when I first started they gave me the school hours, and then because I wasn’t contracted to that they basically said I had to leave the job, but they found me a night shift, so I was starting work at 10 at night and not getting in till 5 in the morning, then I had to sit up till 8, get the weans [children] ready, take them out, then they were at school and nursery, sleep, so that was the night shift. And then I had to change back to my contracted hours which was legally six in the morning, and I couldn’t do that so I had to leave.” **Age 33, two children aged seven and five.**

“It was night time work, sixteen hours. I managed to get a babysitter at night... because [child] was still a baby. But then when the bad weather came in it put me off, it was very, very dark at night, in the city centre I didn’t feel safe. So that’s why I packed it in. The buses were really bad at night.” **Age 31, one child aged four.**

### 4.3. The welfare system

The lone parents were asked about their experiences of the welfare system; how they found being on Jobseeker’s Allowance or Income Support, how adequate they found the support available to them to move into work, and what could be improved to make things easier for them.

#### Experience of the current policy regime

As indicated in the section on income (above), respondents were mostly either on, or about to be moved onto JSA. Those still on IS were obliged to attend a Work-focused Interview every six months, while those on JSA had to attend the Jobcentre once a fortnight, and complete a number of tasks in the intervening time. The exact nature of the conditions varied; for most, it was a requirement to apply for a certain number of jobs per fortnight, usually around six, and to show evidence of seeking work using more than one method (e.g. internet, newspapers, and so on). The most extreme example was a lone parent who was required to demonstrate ‘full-time’ (35 hours per week) job-seeking, for instance by being active on job-seeking websites.

The increased conditionality of JSA did seem to act as a ‘push’ towards work for the lone parents to some extent. This was in part because, for most, the conditions required a higher intensity of job search activity than they had been undertaking previously, but also because of the unpleasantness of being on JSA and having to ‘sign on’ (especially given the negative experiences at the Jobcentre detailed in the next section). However, most respondents wanted to work anyway, and the move onto JSA did not precipitate a desire to work or an attempt to find work.

“I was comfortable because I had my own time to look for a job, but (be)cause I’m on Jobseeker’s Allowance I *need* to look for a job now, I need to get out there instead of just lay back and look for a job whenever I want.” **Age 30, two children aged nine and five.**

Most found meeting the conditions relatively manageable, although all were receiving extra help of some kind via other employment services (see below), and for many it was only because of this help that they were able to assemble a CV or search and apply for jobs. A few respondents had received a sanction – i.e. had their benefit temporarily withdrawn because they had been judged to have failed to meet their JSA conditions – although in many cases this was due to clerical errors rather than an actual failure to meet conditions. Not all respondents felt that they were clear about what all the rules were regarding the requirements on them. One lone parent had been threatened with a sanction for not filling in a form to request a three-day ‘holiday’; she had not known that she had to do this.

There are some issues around the timing of the move onto JSA, particularly for those with children born between March and July. Most of the lone parents thought that it was suitable for them to start work when their youngest child started primary school, however, for some this was after their child’s fifth birthday, which is the date on which they are obliged to move onto JSA. Therefore some lone parents are obliged to undertake job-seeking activities during a period that their child is still only attending pre-school for 2.5 hours per day, or not at all in the summer holiday preceding the August they start school. This makes it difficult, or impossible, for those without adequate informal childcare support, to attend interviews without their children. However, failure to attend an interview could result in a sanction.

### **Support for lone parents**

All the respondents were attending either a Work-focused Interview or JSA signing on interview at the Jobcentre, plus some other service aimed at improving their employability and helping them into work. Their experiences of these services are now explored and contrasted.

#### ***Jobcentre Plus***

Respondents gave a lot of negative feedback about their experiences at the Jobcentre. Although a few had found their advisor helpful, most found the interaction at best ineffective, and at worst humiliating and unpleasant. There seems to be some variation between Jobcentres, and even between advisors within a Jobcentre. It seems to be those with a dedicated Lone Parent Advisor who had the most positive experiences.

Complaints about the Jobcentre fell into three main categories. The first was that their advisor had not been helpful, and that their visits to the Jobcentre did not equip them with the resources and advice they needed to find a job. Many had been out of work for some time or had never worked, and had poor IT skills or little access to a computer; as a result they found it difficult even to take the first step of compiling a CV, something required of virtually every job application, or to search and apply for jobs online. They generally did not feel that the Jobcentre offered them enough support to do these things.

The second complaint was that advisors did not understand the specific difficulties created by lone parents’ child care responsibilities, and the barriers that this created to finding and staying in employment.

“It’s like the woman who sanctioned me the other day, because she made the assumption that I wasn’t looking for work. She also said ‘I’ve got a child in nursery and I don’t have a problem with childcare, so why don’t you think about changing nurseries?’ It’s alright for them – you need to have a job to get your child in full-time nursery. If I had a full-time job I could get tax credits and fund a full-time place, but I’m only eligible for part-time. But she says if she can manage it... she looked at me like I was a piece of...” **Age 43, one child aged five.**

“I explained that I had two kids, I needed within-school hours, and the guy replied, ‘I think you’re asking a bit much’.” **Age 30, two children aged ten and six.**

The third type of complaint about the Jobcentre related to the unpleasantness of attending the Jobcentre. Many respondents found the atmosphere intimidating and the manner of their advisors cold and accusatory. For many lone parents, whose confidence is low enough already, being confronted with this further erodes their confidence, and thus their chance of finding work.

“Degrading. When the kids were off in the summer holidays I got put on to another advisor, he’s really, really hard... he nearly had me in tears... I find it really hard to talk to him... he’s not interested in listening, he’s just pushing you on to get a job.” **Age 44, two children aged 12 and six.**

“When you go into the Jobcentre, a lot of them have an attitude on them more than they want to help you.” **Age 25, two children aged five and three.**

“Every time I come out of there I feel suicidal!” **Age 30, two children aged ten and six.**

Only one respondent had been on the Work Programme, and this had been entirely unsuccessful. Despite having considerable previous employment experience, the contractor failed to help them find work, and the respondent felt as if they did not try particularly hard in her case.

“I was on the work programme with A4e for two years, and I think I was on the computers maybe three times. I never got an interview and I must have applied for god knows how many jobs, and I heard nothing back. My advisor got changed six times, so each time I was going I wasn’t sure who I was seeing, had to go through the same rigmarole, tell them all my story, it was just introducing yourself every time you went, and it really did become a pain... you got nowhere, you were just hitting your head off the wall. And then at the end of the two years they just said good luck, see ya.” **Age 43, two children aged 13 and nine.**

### ***Other services***

Experiences of Work-focused Interviews or signing on meetings at the Jobcentre were contrasted with experiences of employment services provided by local regeneration agencies or third sector organisations, which were found to be, in general, much more helpful in bringing people closer to work. The strengths of these services can be contrasted almost directly against the complaints about the Jobcentres; other services are friendly and approachable, knowledgeable, and understand the specific needs of lone parents seeking to move into and sustain work.

A key service offered is practical help with CVs and applications; what to put in them, and the technological aspects of how to do them. There does not seem to be much of this level of support at the Jobcentre, and many of the lone parents said that they would have been unable to apply for jobs without it.

The other key aspect is the approachability and friendliness in comparison to the Jobcentre staff and services; the support and confidence-building played a huge role in helping the lone parents feel ready to work.

“It’s a friendlier atmosphere, rather than walking into the Jobcentre and them talking down to you like you’re a piece of crap... they don’t make you feel dumb, and even if you think something is stupid, someone else is in the same boat as you, most of the lassies here are in the same boat.” **Age 43, two children aged 13 and nine.**

“I think it’s just the great unknown and you think you’re really alone, and then when you do come to a group like this you realise, wait a minute there are six and seven other people that are having the same sort of feelings, and even that in itself is enough to think, well, you’re not alone, there are other people going through the same.” **Age 32, one child aged five.**

“Now I feel like I can go out there and get a job. And I’m just as good as anyone else applying for that job to get it. But before I came here, I didn’t think that.” **Age 26, three children aged six, two and one.**

### **Future change**

There was not a great deal of awareness among the lone parents about the switch to Universal Credit and its financial implications for them. The prospect of having to apply online was daunting for some, given the difficulties they had experienced in applying online for jobs. There was also considerable trepidation about a switch to monthly payment, as this would make budgeting even more difficult, although most were resigned to having to deal with whatever happens.

“This new thing coming in where they give you all your month’s money at once – I couldn’t cope with that, I’d have a panic attack. If I got my month’s money in one go I’d get put out of my house. I’m just not good with money.”

**Age 33, two children aged seven and five.**

“I don’t know, I think that would be hard... you’ll just have to manage right enough, but it’ll be hard.” **Age 44, two children aged 12 and six.**

“You just need to budget, you just need to get on with stuff don’t you? Just need to get on with life, and if that’s the way it’s going to be, that’s the way it’s going to be, you can’t really do anything about it.” **Age 30, two children aged nine and five.**

Finally, lone parents were asked, based on their experience of the welfare system, what future changes they would like to see, to better help them move into work. The major change that many lone parents wanted to see was in regard to childcare; more affordable childcare, to support their job-seeking activities and allow them to take up employment. Many felt that this was their principal barrier to work.

The other aspect of change that most lone parents wanted to see was more support for job-seeking activities; help with searching for and applying for jobs, and having someone around to help them when they encountered problems. Respondents find that this kind of help is not offered by Jobcentres, and have found the additional help provided by other services invaluable in meeting their JSA requirements and moving closer to work. All valued the more intensive and less judgemental support compared with that received at the Jobcentre, and believed that such services should be available to all lone parents and better advertised.

## 5. Conclusions and recommendations

This chapter presents the key findings that have come out of the research, arranged under the thematic headings set out in Chapter 1. It also presents some policy recommendations and local actions in light of these findings.

### 5.1. Key findings

#### Lone parents' lived experience

##### *A demographic profile of lone parents*

The quantitative analysis suggested that around half of lone mothers and 70% of lone fathers were previously married. However, in the qualitative sample of the specific sub-group of lone parents on out-of-work benefits, none had been married although some had been in stable co-habiting relationships, and most had been lone parents for most or all of the time that they had been parents. The children's contact with the non-resident parent varied from none at all, to those who stayed with them overnight at least twice a week.

Quantitative analysis showed that over 90% of lone parents are female. The average age of a lone mother in Scotland is 36.5 (compared with 39.0 for a couple mother), and 45.2 for a lone father (compared with 41.3 for a couple father). Lone parents have on average fewer children than couple parents; in Scotland it is 1.58 and 1.77 children respectively. Lone parents are more likely to be Black and less likely to be Asian than couple parents. They are more likely to live in urban areas than couple parents, and Glasgow has a particularly high proportion of lone parent households relative to other local authorities.

When seeking data about lone parents from official sources, it is difficult to obtain statistics that look beyond the 'headline' level of how many lone parents there are, and explore the characteristics of lone parents such as racial composition and prevalence of disability. There is also considerable scope for ambiguity or error in the statistics, as they either consist of projections from past census data or population inferences from survey data, both of which are subject to a degree of uncertainty. These issues will be ameliorated to some extent as data from the 2011 Census becomes available, although interested policy-makers and organisations may need to commission specific data tables beyond those currently scheduled for release (National Records of Scotland, 2014).

The quantitative analysis presented in Chapter 3 has attempted to provide some information about the demographic characteristics of lone parents, although small sample sizes and a lack of geographical information constrained the possibility of exploring the situation of lone parents at the local (Glasgow) level. Without very large datasets, it is not possible to quantitatively study small groups, such as ethnic minority lone parents, or lone fathers, and to understand how the experience of these groups differs from that of other lone parents. This perhaps supports an argument for improving sources of administrative data such as benefit records (for example by collecting supplementary data about recipients), in order to obtain wider coverage and a larger sample size.



### ***The financial position of lone parents***

Analysis of survey data suggested that lone parents have a lower average household income than couple parents, and are more likely to report being unable to afford key basic household items. Lone parents are more likely to live in the 15% most deprived areas according to the Scottish Index of Multiple Deprivation.

Although not all lone parents are in poverty, the focus of the qualitative research on lone parents who were on out-of-work benefits meant that almost all of the sample were on Income Support or Jobseeker's Allowance, and therefore on a low income. The lone parents reported struggling on the amount they received; the general feeling is that it is just enough but no more, and there is rarely anything to spend on non-essential items. Some were happy with their house and area, although some raised issues of overcrowding (insufficient bedrooms) and bad neighbourhoods. After meeting the costs of household bills, food and other basic needs, respondents reported having little left over to spend on children, take them on trips, and so on. It is notable that, for the most part, they saw this level of income as meeting their basic needs, when in fact this level of income falls far below what has been defined in other research as a 'minimum income standard' (Bradshaw *et al.*, 2008; Hirsch, 2013). Many of the items that respondents seemed to consider non-essential are in fact items that fall within what this research has established as necessary expenditure to fully participate in society.

### ***Wellbeing***

Quantitative analysis suggested that lone mothers are more likely to report poor health than couple mothers, although this difference disappeared after controlling for the presence of an earner in the household. Having an earner in the household was associated with improved health. Data from a cohort study suggested that lone parents were substantially more likely to have experienced domestic violence than couple parents.

The qualitative research explored more fully the strength and role of social networks in lone parents' lives. There was considerable variation in social networks, some have strong networks, while others reported being relatively isolated. However, even for those with strong networks, these are rarely a source of regular childcare; they might have a relative who can pick up older children from school, or take them for a day or an evening on occasion, but not the kind of regular day-to-day childcare that they would require to move into work. Some of the lone parents had no recourse to informal childcare, and would be completely reliant on formal childcare if they moved into work.

### **Looking for and being in work**

#### ***Employability***

The quantitative analysis suggested that lone parents are less likely to have post-school qualifications, and more likely to have no qualifications, than couple parents, although almost a quarter of lone parents in Scotland have post-school qualifications. Lone parents are less likely to be in work and more likely to occupy lower status occupations – and this was found in regression models to be the case even controlling for qualifications and other factors such as age and number

of children. Other factors associated with a lower likelihood of being in employment were: having no qualifications; having younger children (under five years old); having more children (especially more than two); and being under 25 years old.

All but two members of the qualitative sample were unemployed, and all had patchy employment histories, although this varied from never having a paid job to having had a job until having to leave to care for children. All of the sample wanted to be in work, and some felt ready, but others struggled with a combination of few qualifications, a patchy employment history, and a lack of confidence, making applying for jobs and moving into work a daunting prospect.

### ***External barriers to employment***

Lone parents in the qualitative sample varied in their optimism about local job opportunities, but most complained of a lack of jobs in their local area, or specifically of jobs that fit around childcare responsibilities. Lack of childcare emerged as a major issue, and even where childcare was available, the way in which this is funded (i.e. tax credits available once you are in work) makes it difficult to get childcare without a job, but it is also difficult to accept a job without first securing childcare. There is also a barrier to the labour market created by an almost universal insistence by employers on CVs and online applications, even for basic positions; this makes the job market difficult to access for those with little to put on their CV, and poor IT skills or lack of access to a computer.

### ***The challenges of reconciling work and care***

Most of the lone parents in the sample were reliant on public transport to get around, and this can make it very complex and time consuming – and potentially quite expensive – to get between home, nursery and/or school, and work. It also limited the potential range of jobs that the parent could look for or take up. Those who manage it usually had some support, such as someone to pick up children from school; those without access to this kind of support particularly struggle to balance work and care.

### ***The benefits and challenges of work***

The lone parents in the sample saw a number of advantages to being in employment: the financial benefit of having more money, and being able to buy the things they wanted their children to have; the personal benefits of greater independence and an opportunity to get out and interact with other adults; and the opportunity to set an example to their children that work was important. Some had previously been in jobs they had enjoyed and were keen to return to these, others had not particularly liked their previous jobs but had enjoyed having the income and the independence and wanted to have this again. Some had had negative experiences in employment; employers who were not understanding about their childcare responsibilities, or the stress of trying to reconcile the demands of their job with caring for their children. However none were put off by the potential challenges, and all wanted to be in work.

The combination of low employability and external barriers to employment make it highly challenging for lone parents to get into, and stay in, employment. Even if they manage to stay in employment, this may not be enough to move out of poverty, given high levels of in-work poverty

among lone parents; 17% of children with a lone parent who works full-time and 31% with a lone parent who works part-time live in poverty (i.e. an equivalised household income of less than 60% of the median). The quantitative research presented here showed that lone parents are disproportionately likely to occupy low-skilled, low-status jobs that do not pay a sufficient wage to allow them to move out of poverty. They may also struggle to work enough hours; underemployment (being in paid employment but wanting to work more hours) has increased since the start of the economic downturn in 2008, and is particularly common among low-skilled occupations (of whom 23% are thought to be underemployed) (Office for National Statistics, 2013e). These difficulties lone parents face in securing a job and a sufficient income are key challenges for an anti-poverty strategy such as the Scottish Government's framework *Achieving Our Potential*, which promotes getting into and progressing in work as a route out of poverty.

## **The welfare regime and welfare reform**

### ***Experiences of the current welfare regime***

The lone parents who had been moved onto Jobseeker's Allowance identified a number of issues with the current policy regime.

#### *It acts as the wrong kind of 'push'*

It does not act as a push to seek work, as most are looking for work anyway. However, it potentially acts as a push to apply for jobs that the claimant is not suitable or qualified for, and to accept the first job offer that appears without considering whether it is sustainable or possible to reconcile with caring responsibilities. There are supposed to be flexibilities in place for lone parents regarding the type of jobs they are obliged to apply for or accept, including the ability to limit the hours they can work, and leave or refuse a job if no suitable childcare is available. However, this research suggested that these are not applied consistently.

#### *The move onto JSA comes slightly too early for some*

Most of the lone parents considered their youngest child reaching primary school age as a good age to go back to work. However, some children turn five several months before starting school, and it is difficult to fulfil job-seeking requirements while still having to look after children full-time.

#### *The Jobcentre is not providing enough support to help lone parents into work*

The Jobcentre was felt to offer insufficient help with fundamentals such as CV-building and filling in applications, seeming to assume that claimants are already capable of doing this. Lone parents complain that advisors fail to appreciate the care responsibilities they have and the impact these have on their ability to work. The phasing out of dedicated lone parent advisors seems to have been accompanied by a loss of knowledge and expertise and understanding of the range of issues faced by lone parents seeking work. Most of the lone parents attending fortnightly signing on sessions at the Jobcentre find these unpleasant, with a suspicious and punitive atmosphere that erodes their confidence and does not enable them to ask for the help they need. Lone parents for whom the Jobcentre support is not adequate rely on other specialist or dedicated employment support services.

The findings of this research with regard to lone parents' experiences of the Jobseekers Allowance regime are consistent with other studies, in which lone parents have reported feeling pushed into applying for or accepting jobs they did not want (Coleman and Riley, 2012), that lone parents who are some distance from the labour market do not find the Jobseekers Allowance regime helpful in getting them into work (Casebourne *et al.*, 2010), and that lone parent flexibilities have been inconsistently and inadequately applied by Jobcentre Plus advisors (Gingerbread, 2012b; Lane *et al.*, 2011).

### ***Future change***

In terms of the changes that are due to happen in the coming months and years, there was a lack of awareness among the lone parents about Universal Credit and its implications. Concern was expressed about the requirement to apply online for those without good IT skills, and about the move to a monthly payment; most said that they would find it harder to budget, and some said that it will lead them into difficulty, although others thought they will be able to manage.

In terms of what needs to change, the main message from lone parents is twofold; childcare and employment support. Access to affordable childcare is paramount, not just once they are in work, but also in order to be able to engage in job-seeking activities and be able to accept a job offer with confidence that suitable childcare arrangements will be in place. Greater support is also needed with the process of getting ready for work and getting into work, and this should not be available only to those who happen to hear about external organisations providing these services, but to all lone parents.

Other research has not been optimistic about the impact of Universal Credit on lone parents. Simulations of the likely effect on incomes have suggested that, although on average, working-age families will be better off, this is not the case for lone parent families, for whom mean income is projected to be slightly lower under Universal Credit (De Agostini and Brewer, 2013). However there is some variation within this, with low-earning single parents predicted to be slightly better off, while non-working lone parents or those earning more than the minimum wage seeing their mean income reduced (Ibid.). It is also anticipated that a lone parent working full-time will need to earn in excess of the median income in order to reach the 'minimum income standard', with Universal Credit alone reaching just 60% of this standard for out of work lone parents (Hirsch and Hartfree, 2013). Concern has been also expressed that the lone parent flexibilities for Jobseeker's Allowance claimants – already inconsistently applied – may be eroded or disappear entirely under Universal Credit, creating an even more punitive regime for lone parent jobseekers (Gingerbread, 2013b).

## 5.2. Policy recommendations

### *Helping lone parents to move into work*

- Obligations to take up work need to consider the sustainability of the job for a lone parent – the job needs to be something the lone parent is suitable for and is able to reconcile with their caring responsibilities. There are a lack of opportunities in the current labour market with the shorter hours and flexibilities that lone (and other) parents require, and this needs to be recognised by those in Jobcentre Plus imposing employment-related requirements on lone parent job-seekers.
  - Local action: Jobcentre Plus should ensure that the flexibilities that exist for lone parents are fully extended to them.
  - UK policy level: active labour market policies should aim to help clients into employment that is suitable and sustainable.
  
- Jobcentre Plus should be more sensitive and appropriate in demands on lone parents during the period from when their youngest child turns five until they start full-time school in August. During this period they are likely to have near full-time childcare responsibilities.
  - Local action: Jobcentre Plus should take into consideration the additional childcare responsibilities during this interim period.
  - UK policy level: lone parents should be able to defer moving onto JSA until their youngest child is in school full-time.
  
- Job-seeking support for lone parents needs to be improved. Many Jobseeker’s Allowance clients will be those who have recently lost a job, and need relatively little support to find work, but lone parents often need much more than this. Lone parents require both assistance with the process of searching for a job, and support to address the inter-related issues of low skills, long periods out of work, and a lack of confidence. Greater support is needed for lone parents to improve their skills and career prospects through skills development and education. Dedicated lone parent advisors who understand lone parents’ specific circumstances are likely to be more effective in understanding and supporting lone parents. This kind of support is currently provided to some lone parents through external organisations, but it should be available to all lone parents obliged to seek work after being moved onto JSA. Lessons from the Scottish Government’s former Working for Families Fund, on the importance of flexible, holistic, key worker support, should be considered.
  - Local action: Jobcentre Plus should provide more specialised support for lone parents, in conjunction with third sector organisations supporting lone parents.
  - There is a role for the Scottish Government in funding employability and other support services for lone parents, beyond what is offered to them as JSA claimants.
  - UK policy level: the allocation of a dedicated lone parent advisor to lone parents on Income Support should also be extended to those on JSA.
  
- Childcare needs to be improved and affordable – suitable, affordable after-school and summer holiday care needs to be more widely available, and lone parents need to have

access to improved childcare in order to spend time on job-seeking activities, attending interviews, and so on.

- Local action: Local authority early years and education services and Community Planning Partnerships should continue to work towards the development of a childcare service that is accessible, affordable and flexible enough to allow lone parents to take up employment.
  - There is a role for the Scottish Government in funding sufficient provision of childcare.
- Improved transport should be considered for job-seekers, and perhaps for a period of time after starting work, including subsidised travel during job-seeking and after starting a job, to address the high cost of public transport for those on a limited income and the barrier this creates to finding and sustaining work. The reduced availability of public transport outside of peak hours should also be taken into account in determining the requirements upon those reliant on public transport to take up a job.
    - Local action: co-operation between local councils, transport providers, and Jobcentre Plus to address high transport costs as a barrier for some jobseekers.
    - There is a role for Transport Scotland to consider the needs of jobseekers and the recently employed in their concessionary travel schemes.

#### *Future welfare reform*

- Some facility to spread payments rather than receive a lump sum monthly would help those who will struggle to budget under Universal Credit. At the very least, the ability to pay for large items such as rent directly and timeously from the account where the lone parent receives their benefits is essential. Financial and budgeting advice should be available. Intensive support should be given to improve the financial capability of lone parents generally, but especially before the switch to monthly payments.
  - Local action: financial and budgeting advice should be provided by financial inclusion advice services and/or local authorities to all those who require it in advance of a move to monthly payments.
  - UK policy level: the desire to create parity with employment through monthly payments should be weighed against the potential inability of the most vulnerable recipients to cope with this change.
- Support needs to be in place for those with a lack of IT skills or access to computing facilities when the move to an online application system under Universal Credit occurs.
  - Local action: adequate access to IT facilities should be provided by Jobcentre Plus and/or library services, education facilities etc.
  - There is a role for voluntary sector organisations or Housing Associations already providing IT training and support to extend this, with funding through the Scottish Government.

- The flexibilities currently available to lone parents on Jobseeker’s Allowance (regarding the number and type of jobs they are obliged to apply for and accept) must continue to exist under Universal Credit.
  - Local action: Jobcentre Plus should implement these flexibilities.
  - UK policy level: entitlement to lone parent flexibilities should not be lost in the transition to Universal Credit.

*Other issues around the lone parent experience raised by the research*

- Issues of economic disadvantage and poor health need to be tackled simultaneously and in an integrated manner. The quantitative research demonstrated the relationship between these two outcomes and lone parenthood, and co-ordination is needed between health, social, early years and employability services to address both (see for example the Healthier Wealthier Children initiative, which creates referral links between money and welfare advice services and the health service workforce (Naven & Egan, 2013)).
  - Local action: Community Planning Partnerships should consider the need to co-ordinate and facilitate partnership working between services addressing ostensibly different (but in fact often highly related) outcomes.
- Better data is needed to better understand issues of ethnicity and lone parenthood, as currently not much is known about cultural variations in the lone parent experience. This type of data is likely to be needed from the census, or possibly administrative sources, in order to provide data with sufficient numbers of ethnic minority lone parents to draw robust conclusions.
  - Local action: Local authorities should seek out the data they need to plan services that meet the needs of all ethnic groups, and commission this data if it does not exist.
- There should be a greater attempt to counter and reduce the stigmatisation of (some) lone parents in the media, as this has a negative impact on all lone parents.
  - Government and voluntary organisations have a role to play in challenging inaccurate or distorted information when it appears in the media.
  - The Scottish Government could consider a campaign targeting attitudes towards lone parents (as well as other stigmatised benefit recipients, such as those claiming disability benefits), as it has done in the past on other issues such as mental health (the ‘See me’ campaign).

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## Appendix 1: Detailed methodology

### Quantitative analysis

Major social survey datasets were examined for their relevance to the research questions. Consideration was given to a number of factors: the variables in the datasets and whether these were a good match for the research questions; sampling coverage, method and size; rates of item and person non-response; and date of data collection and publication. No single dataset was ideal across all criteria; the four datasets chosen for use in this analysis represent a compromise, but between them a considerable amount of information can be obtained about lone parents in Scotland.

Most of the analysis consisted of univariate or bivariate cross-tabulation of variables. The dataset depositors supplied population weights (to correct for non-response and so on), and these were applied for the calculation of percentages and means (although not medians), while all bases given are unweighted. Where bivariate associations are shown, statistical tests were performed to establish the significance of these. For categorical variables (e.g. urban-rural, qualifications), a Chi-squared test was used to establish significance, and for continuous variables (where the mean of each category was reported – e.g. mean age) a Wald test was used. An association was considered to be significant where the obtained p-value was less than 0.05.

Some regression modelling was also carried out. As the outcome variables in question were dichotomous, binary logistic regression models were used to estimate the impact of the predictor variables on the logged odds of the outcome variable. This impact is expressed in the results as an odds ratio. An odds ratio of 1 indicates that a predictor variable has no impact on the odds of the outcome. An odds ratio of less than 1 indicates that the predictor has a negative impact on the odds (likelihood) of the outcome, while an odds ratio of more than one indicates a positive effect. The impact of an odds ratio is multiplicative; i.e. an odds ratio of 1.3 on a predictor variable means that a unit increase in that variable increases by 1.3 times the odds of the outcome variable taking the value 1. This can also be understood in percentage terms; i.e. an odds ratio of 1.3 implies a 30% increase the odds of the outcome variable taking the value 1.

The significance of the odds ratios obtained in the regression model was established using Wald tests. Several measures of overall model quality were also obtained. The significance of the overall model (i.e. whether we can reject the hypothesis that all coefficients are 1) was established with a likelihood ratio test (a Chi squared test to determine whether the log likelihood value obtained in the full model is significantly different from that of an intercept-only model). The proportion of the variance in the outcome variable explained by the predictor variables was estimated with the pseudo-R squared test.

All data preparation and analysis was carried out using Stata IC/12.0.

## Qualitative analysis

The desired characteristics of the qualitative sample were:

- lone parent (i.e. has dependent children and no resident partner).
- is currently, or has recently been, in receipt of Income Support or Jobseeker's Allowance.
- ideally with a youngest dependent child who has turned five, or is about to (but also lone parents with children younger than this who are seeking work).
- living in Glasgow City Council area.

Participants were recruited through lone parent support groups run by a third sector organisation. Eight lone parents took part in a focus group, and seventeen lone parents took part in an in-depth interview. Table A1.1 shows the final characteristics of the interview and focus group samples.

**Table A1. Characteristics of the interview and focus group participants.**

Characteristics	Sample	
	Interview	Focus group
<b>Gender</b>		
Female	N=16	N=8
Male	N=1	N=0
<b>Age</b>		
Range	21-44	26-43
Mean	30	33
<b>Children</b>		
Age range	1-19	4-14
Mean number	2	2
<b>Employment status</b>		
In employment	N=1	N=1
Not in employment	N=16	N=7

The focus group took the form of a group discussion around a number of topics relating to the issues of seeking work and combining work and childcare responsibilities as a lone parent, and experiences of the Jobseeker's Allowance regime. The topic guide for the session is reproduced in Appendix 5.

The interviews were partially structured by a topic guide (also reproduced in Appendix 5). Some questions were shorter and sought specific information about the respondent, while others were more open and allowed the respondent to relate their experiences and opinions. Interviews lasted approximately 30 minutes on average.

The proposed fieldwork was discussed beforehand with the research advisory group, and approved by the Edinburgh Napier University Business School Research Integrity Committee. Informed consent was obtained from respondents prior to participation, and respondents were free to decline to answer any particular question, or to withdraw altogether. The nature of the research topic required

the interview to explore potentially sensitive issues such as income and relationship breakdown; care was taken to handle personal issues with sensitivity, and to restrict personal questions to only those most relevant to the aims of the research.

## **Appendix 2: Data and variables**

This appendix presents some information about the dataset used in the quantitative analysis, and definitions of key variables used.

### **Annual Population Survey Household Dataset**

The Annual Population Survey (APS) combines key variables from four consecutive quarters of the Labour Force Survey, the English Local Labour Force Survey, the Welsh Labour Force Survey, and the Scottish Labour Force Survey. These labour force surveys are administered to a cross-sectional sample of participants once per quarter for five consecutive quarters. The Office for National Statistics funds and collects the data from the main quarterly Labour Force Survey, while the regional survey boosts are sponsored by the Scottish and UK Governments and the Welsh Assembly. The APS household dataset includes key family and household level variables, to facilitate analysis at these levels. Topics covered include; household composition and relationships, housing tenure, ethnicity, employment and training, workplace and location, and educational background and qualifications.

The key advantage of the APS dataset is its large size and extensive information about the labour market characteristics of its respondents. However the household dataset does not contain information about income, or a great deal of geographical detail.

Table A2 presents and defines the key variables used from the Annual Population Survey in this analysis.



**Table A2. Key variables used from the Annual Population Survey, and their definitions.**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Family type: <i>Lone parent</i>	One parent or guardian, living in the same household as their dependent child(ren) (which are defined as those aged under 16, or aged 16-18, unmarried and in full-time education).
<i>Couple parent</i>	Two parents or guardians, married or cohabiting, living in the same household as their dependent children.
<i>No dependent children</i>	One or more adults, not living with their own dependent children (NB – this could include, for example, a childless adult living in a household with unrelated dependent children, or a non-resident parent).
Multi-family household	Two or more family units living in the same household.
Marital status <i>Married</i>	Living with a spouse, legally married.
<i>Cohabiting</i>	Living with a partner, not legally married.
Housing tenure <i>Social rented</i>	Rented from a local authority or housing association.
<i>Private rented</i>	Rented from private landlord, relative, employer, employing organisation, other organisation.
<i>Own/mortgage</i>	Owned outright or being bought with a mortgage or loan.
Ethnic group	See Table A3 below.
Occupational classification/ occupational skill level	See Table A4 below.
Socioeconomic classification	See Table A5 below.

In order to facilitate analysis, information about ethnic background was collapsed into four broad categories (Table A3).

**Table A3. Composition of broad ethnic groups.**

<b>Category used in analysis</b>	<b>Category in dataset</b>
White	White
Asian	Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Chinese, any other Asian background
Black	Black/African/Caribbean/Black British
Other	Gypsy, Traveller or Irish Traveller, Mixed/multiple ethnic groups, Arab, other ethnic group

In analysing job characteristics, a measure of occupational classification was used, the Standard Occupational Classification 2010 (SOC2010), and a measure of four skill levels (Office for National Statistics, 2010b). These do not correspond completely straightforwardly, and Table A4 shows the correspondence between a more extensive version of the SOC2010, the version used in the analysis, and how this corresponds to skill level.

**Table A4. Correspondence between SOC2010 and skill level.**

<b>SOC2010, major group</b>	<b>SOC2010, sub-major group</b>	<b>Skill level</b>
Managers, directors and senior officials	Corporate managers and directors	4
	Other managers and proprietors	3
Professional occupations	Science, research, engineering and technology professionals	4
	Health professionals	4
	Teaching and educational professionals	4
	Business, media and public service professionals	4
Associate professional and technical occupations	Science, engineering and technology associate professionals	3
	Health and social care associate professionals	3
	Protective service occupations	3
	Culture, media and sports occupations	3
	Business and public service associate professionals	3
Administrative and secretarial occupations	Administrative occupations	2
	Secretarial and related occupations	2
Skilled trades occupations	Skilled agricultural and related trades	3
	Skilled metal, electrical and electronic trades	3
	Skilled construction and building trades	3
	Textiles, printing and other skilled trades	3
Caring, leisure and other service occupations	Caring personal service occupations	2
	Leisure, travel and related personal service occupations	2
Sales and customer service	Sales occupations	2

occupations	Customer service occupations	2
Process, plant and machine operatives	Process, plant and machine operatives	2
	Transport and mobile machine drivers and operatives	2
Elementary occupations	Elementary trades and related occupations	1
	Elementary administration and service occupations	1

Finally, a measure of socioeconomic status, the National Statistics Socio-economic Classification (NS-SEC) (Office for National Statistics, 2010a) was also employed in the analysis. Table A5 shows the correspondence between the 7- and 3-category versions that were used.

**Table A5. Correspondence between 7-category and 3-category NS-SEC.**

<b>NS-SEC 7-category</b>	<b>NS-SEC 3-category</b>
Higher managerial and professional	Higher managerial, administrative and professional occupations
Lower managerial and professional	
Intermediate occupations	Intermediate occupations
Small employers and own account workers	
Lower supervisory and technical	Routine and manual occupations
Semi-routine occupations	
Routine occupations	

### **Family Resources Survey**

The Family Resources Survey (FRS) is a UK government-sponsored study that has been monitoring living conditions since 1992. It is an annual, repeated cross-sectional study that covers private households in the United Kingdom. The survey focuses principally on obtaining detailed information about sources and amounts of income for each individual, family and household. The detail available allows for distinction in the analysis between earnings, means-tested support, and total income from all sources. While most datasets have a considerable amount of missing or inaccurate data on income type variables, the FRS undergoes an extensive cleaning and imputation process, making it a definitive source of such information. The main disadvantage of the survey is that it contains no geographical information below the Scotland level, and its sample size is also small relative to the APS. The key variables from the FRS used in the analysis are defined in Table A6.

**Table A6. Key variables used from the Family Resources Survey, and their definitions.**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Family type: <i>Lone parent</i>	One parent or guardian, living in the same household as their dependent child(ren) (which are defined as those aged under 16, or aged 16-18, unmarried and in full-time education).
<i>Couple parent</i>	Two parents or guardians, married or cohabiting, living in the same household as their dependent children.
<i>No dependent children</i>	One or more adults, not living with their own dependent children (NB – this could include, for example, a childless adult living in a household with unrelated dependent children, or a non-resident parent).
Income from means-tested benefits and tax credits	Income from the following sources: Income Support; Pension Credit; Income-based Jobseekers Allowance and Employment and Support Allowance; Maternity Grant; Funeral Grant or Community Care Grant; Return to Work Credit; Child Maintenance Bonus/Premium; Lone Parent Benefit run-on/Job Grant; Housing Benefit; Council Tax Benefit (NB still existed at this time); Working Tax Credit; and Child Tax Credit.
Measures of financial deprivation	Benefit unit classed as ‘cannot afford’ if they respond to these questions that they cannot afford the item and do not want it.

### **Scottish Household Survey**

The Scottish Household Survey (SHS) is financed by the Scottish Government, and collects information on a range of topics from the people of Scotland. It is an annual, repeated cross-sectional study that covers private households in Scotland. Topics covered include: household composition and tenure; employment and income; health; and cultural participation. Key variables used from the Scottish Household Survey, and their definitions, can be found in Table A7. Note that the ‘family type’ variable is different to that used in the APS and FRS.

**Table A7. Key variables used from the Scottish Household Survey, and their definitions.**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Family type:	
<i>Lone parent</i>	A household with one adult and one or more dependent children (under 16, or 16-18, unmarried and in full-time education).
<i>Couple parent</i>	A household with two adults (NB not necessarily in a relationship – this category could actually be a multi-family household) and one or more dependent children.
<i>No dependent children</i>	A household with one or more adults and no dependent children.
Urban/rural:	
<i>Urban</i>	A settlement with a population of 3,000 or more.
<i>Rural</i>	A settlement with a population of less than 3,000.

## Growing Up in Scotland

The Growing Up in Scotland (GUS) study is a large-scale longitudinal social survey, funded by the Scottish Government, which has followed the lives of three cohorts of children from infancy. The study covers a wide range of topics including; child health and development, housing, eating habits, parenting, and parental employment, health and wellbeing. The variables used in the analysis from this dataset are shown in Table A8.

**Table A8. Key variables used from the Growing Up in Scotland study, and their definitions.**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Family type: <i>Lone parent</i>	Survey respondent (main carer) is not living with a partner.
<i>Couple parent</i>	Survey respondent is living with a partner.
<i>No dependent children</i>	N/A – survey is of families with children only.
Domestic violence: <i>Physical violence</i>	Respondent has experienced any of the following from a partner or ex-partner since study child was born: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Pushed you or held you down.</li><li>• Kicked, bitten or hit you.</li><li>• Choked or tried to strangle/smother you.</li><li>• Used a weapon against you, for example an ashtray or a bottle.</li><li>• Forced you or tried to force you to take part in any sexual activity when you did not want to.</li></ul>
<i>Controlling behaviour</i>	Respondent has experienced any of the following from a partner or ex-partner since study child was born: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Stopped you having a fair share of the household money or taken money from you.</li><li>• Repeatedly put you down so that you felt worthless.</li><li>• Behaved in a jealous or controlling way e.g. restricting what you can do, who you can see, what you can wear.</li></ul>
<i>Threatening behaviour</i>	Respondent has experienced any of the following from a partner or ex-partner since study child was born: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Threatened to hurt you.</li><li>• Threatened to hurt someone close to you, such as your children, family members, friends or pets.</li><li>• Threatened to, attempted to, or actually hurt themselves as a way of making you do something or stopping you from doing something.</li><li>• Threatened you with a weapon, for example an ashtray or a bottle.</li><li>• Threatened to kill you.</li></ul>

## Appendix 3: Additional Tables and Figures

**Table A9. Distribution of family types, and percentage of families with dependent children that are lone parent.**

	Family type				<i>Percentage of families with dependent children who are lone parent</i>
	No dependent children	Couple with dependent children	Lone parent with dependent children	Total	
<b>UK</b>					
%	63.9	26.9	9.2	100.0	25.5
95% CI	[63.56,64.22]	[26.59,27.21]	[9.02,9.40]		[25.03,25.98]
<i>N</i>	65,980	29,926	11,362	107,628	
<b>Scotland</b>					
%	67.3	24.2	8.5	100.0	26.0
95% CI	[66.43,68.22]	[23.38,24.98]	[7.99,9.03]		[24.63,27.45]
<i>N</i>	9,212	3,854	1,344	14,410	
<b>Strathclyde</b>					
%	66.2	23.6	10.2	100.0	30.2
95% CI	[64.76,67.65]	[22.33,24.86]	[9.33,11.14]		[27.93,32.58]
<i>N</i>	3,880	1,618	676	6,174	

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

**Table A10. Testing the significance of geographical differences.**

	<b>UK vs Scotland</b>	<b>Scotland vs Strathclyde</b>
	Chi <sup>2</sup> /Wald ( <i>p-value</i> )	Chi <sup>2</sup> /Wald ( <i>p-value</i> )
Proportion of families with dependent children that are lone parent	0.48 ( <i>p=0.465</i> )	37.1 <b>(<i>p&lt;0.000</i>)</b>
Proportion of lone parent families living in multi-family households	3.8 <b>(<i>p=0.044</i>)</b>	0.54 ( <i>p=0.533</i> )
Gender of lone parent	0.25 ( <i>p=0.621</i> )	0.96 ( <i>p=0.419</i> )
Mean age of lone fathers	5.7 <b>(<i>p=0.017</i>)</b>	0.68 ( <i>p=0.411</i> )
Mean age of lone mothers	0.55 ( <i>p=0.460</i> )	0.90 ( <i>p=0.344</i> )
Proportion of lone parents earning	1.87 ( <i>p=0.168</i> )	3.24 ( <i>p=0.130</i> )
Lone parent total weekly family income	5.9 <b>(<i>p=0.015</i>)</b>	n/a
Lone parent income from earnings	4.8 <b>(<i>p=0.028</i>)</b>	n/a
Lone parent income from means tested benefits and tax credits	3.8 <b>(<i>p=0.050</i>)</b>	n/a
Cannot afford to keep home in decent state of repair	0.12 ( <i>p=0.672</i> )	n/a
Cannot afford to replace worn-out furniture	0.21 ( <i>p=0.571</i> )	n/a
Cannot afford a hobby or leisure activity	0.75 ( <i>p=0.284</i> )	n/a
Cannot afford money to spend on self not family	0.10 ( <i>p=0.149</i> )	n/a
Lone mother has poor or very poor general health	20.6 <b>(<i>p=0.000</i>)</b>	10.1 ( <i>p=0.127</i> )
Lone mother has very poor general health	6.9 <b>(<i>p=0.018</i>)</b>	7.5 <b>(<i>p=0.027</i>)</b>
Mean hours worked per week by lone mothers (full-time employees)	1.1 ( <i>p=0.296</i> )	1.4 ( <i>p=0.240</i> )
Mean hours worked per week by lone mothers (part-time employees)	1.5 ( <i>p=0.224</i> )	0.9 ( <i>p=0.357</i> )
Skill level of lone mothers' jobs	10.0 <b>(<i>p=0.012</i>)</b>	0.50 ( <i>p=0.946</i> )
NS-SEC of lone mother's jobs	3.1 ( <i>p=0.185</i> )	7.0 ( <i>p=0.082</i> )
Lone mothers no qualifications	0.58	3.7



*(p=0.451)*

*(p=0.111)*

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All significant results in bold ( $p < 0.05$ ).

**Table A11. Families living in single and multi-family households, by family type.**

Family type	Household arrangement							
	Not multi-family			Multi-family			Total	
	%	95% CI	N	%	95% CI	N	%	N
<b>UK</b>								
No dependent children	79.5	[79.12,79.88]	54,009	20.5	[20.12,20.88]	11,472	100.0	65,481
Couple with dependent children	95.1	[94.75,95.33]	28,437	4.9	[4.67,5.25]	1,438	100.0	29,875
Lone parent with dependent children	89.4	[88.73,90.05]	10,164	10.6	[9.95,11.27]	1,197	100.0	11,361
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi-squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =3950.5 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )					
<b>Scotland</b>								
No dependent children	83.6	[82.49,84.65]	8,111	16.4	[15.35,17.51]	1,052	100.0	9,163
Couple with dependent children	96.3	[95.43,96.94]	3,726	3.7	[3.06,4.57]	125	100.0	3,581
Lone parent with dependent children	91.3	[89.41,92.95]	1,228	8.7	[7.05,10.59]	116	100.0	1,344
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi-squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =390.0 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )					
<b>Strathclyde</b>								
No dependent children	85.4	[83.6,87.0]	3,471	14.7	[13.04,16.42]	382	100.0	3,853
Couple with dependent children	95.4	[93.81,96.59]	1,559	4.6	[3.41,6.19]	59	100.0	1,618
Lone parent with dependent children	91.9	[89.01,94.07]	619	8.1	[5.92,10.99]	57	100.0	676
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi-squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =114.1 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )					

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A12. Distribution of family type of working-age families in Scotland, by Scottish Government urban-rural classification.**

Urban-rural classification		Family type		
		No dependent children	Couple with dependent children	Lone parent with dependent children
Urban (pop. 3,000+)	%	84.4	81.0	87.6
	95% CI	[83.77,85.08]	[79.90,82.01]	[85.77,89.16]
	<i>N</i>	9,179	4,167	1,232
Rural (pop. < 3,000)	%	15.6	19.0	12.4
	95% CI	[14.92,16.23]	[17.99,20.10]	[10.84,14.23]
	<i>N</i>	2,278	1,239	215
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	<i>N</i>	11,457	5,406	1,447

Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared Chi<sup>2</sup>=46.3 (**p<0.000**)

Source: Scottish Household Survey, 2007-08. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A13. Lone parent families, by gender of lone parent.**

	Gender of lone parent		
	Lone mother	Lone father	Total
<b>UK</b>			
%	91.9	8.1	100.0
95% CI	[91.30,92.51]	[7.49,8.70]	
<i>N</i>	10,505	857	11,362
<b>Scotland</b>			
%	92.4	7.6	100.0
95% CI	[90.45,93.92]	[6.08,9.55]	
<i>N</i>	1,247	97	1,344
<b>Strathclyde</b>			
%	93.1	6.9	100.0
95% CI	[90.23,95.12]	[4.88,9.77]	
<i>N</i>	631	45	676

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

**Table A14. Mean age of lone parents, by gender.**

	Mean age	
	Lone mothers	Lone fathers
<b>UK</b>		
Age	36.7	43.1
95% CI	[36.52,36.94]	[42.33,43.79]
<i>N</i>	10,505	857
Adjusted Wald test	F=267.9 ( <b><i>p</i>&lt;0.000</b> )	
<b>Scotland</b>		
Age	36.5	45.2
95% CI	[35.91,37.11]	[43.46,46.90]
<i>N</i>	1,247	97
Adjusted Wald test	F=87.3 ( <b><i>p</i>&lt;0.000</b> )	
<b>Strathclyde</b>		
Age	36.2	44.4
95% CI	[35.38,37.08]	[41.84,46.96]
<i>N</i>	631	45
Adjusted Wald test	F=35.4 ( <b><i>p</i>&lt;0.000</b> )	

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

All significant results in bold ( $p < 0.05$ ).

**Table A15. Mean age of parents, by gender and family type.**

Family type	Mean age					
	Mothers			Fathers		
	Age	95% CI	N	Age	95% CI	N
<b>UK</b>						
Couple with dependent children	38.5	[38.44,38.65]	30,037	41.0	[40.90,41.13]	29,926
Lone parent with dependent children	36.7	[36.52,36.94]	10,505	43.1	[42.33,43.79]	857
Adjusted Wald test	F=228.8 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			F=29.6 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )		
<b>Scotland</b>						
Couple with dependent children	39.0	[38.73,39.31]	3,863	41.3	[40.94,41.57]	3,854
Lone parent with dependent children	36.5	[35.91,37.11]	1,247	45.2	[43.46,46.90]	97
Adjusted Wald test	F=54.9 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			F=19.5 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )		
<b>Strathclyde</b>						
Couple with dependent children	39.2	[38.72,39.64]	1,627	41.4	[40.95,41.95]	1,618
Lone parent with dependent children	36.2	[35.38,37.08]	631	44.4	[41.84,46.96]	45
Adjusted Wald test	F=36.2 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			F=4.9 ( <b>p=0.026</b> )		

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A16. Mean number of dependent children in lone parent families, by gender of parent.**

	Mean number of children	
	Lone mothers	Lone fathers
<b>UK</b>		
Number of children	1.64	1.45
95% CI	[1.62,1.66]	[1.39,1.50]
<i>N</i>	10,505	857
Adjusted Wald test	F=42.5 ( <b><i>p</i>&lt;0.000</b> )	
<b>Scotland</b>		
Number of children	1.54	1.44
95% CI	[1.49,1.59]	[1.29,1.59]
<i>N</i>	1,247	97
Adjusted Wald test	F=1.6 ( <i>p</i> =0.209)	
<b>Strathclyde</b>		
Number of children	1.57	1.50
95% CI	[1.49,1.65]	[1.26,1.74]
<i>N</i>	631	45
Adjusted Wald test	F=0.32 ( <i>p</i> =0.570)	

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.  
All significant results in bold (*p*<0.05).

**Table A17. Mean number of dependent children, by gender of parent and family type**

Family type	Mean number of children					
	Mothers			Fathers		
	Age	95% CI	N	Age	95% CI	N
<b>UK</b>						
Couple with dependent children	1.79	[1.78, 1.80]	30,037	1.79	[1.78, 1.80]	29,926
Lone parent with dependent children	1.64	[1.62, 1.66]	10,505	1.45	[1.39, 1.50]	857
Adjusted Wald test	F=186.7 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			F=145.5 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )		
<b>Scotland</b>						
Couple with dependent children	1.74	[1.71, 1.77]	3,863	1.74	[1.71, 1.77]	3,854
Lone parent with dependent children	1.54	[1.49, 1.59]	1,247	1.44	[1.29, 1.59]	97
Adjusted Wald test	F=44.0 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			F=15.4 ( <b>p=0.000</b> )		
<b>Strathclyde</b>						
Couple with dependent children	1.73	[1.68, 1.78]	1,627	1.73	[1.68, 1.78]	1,618
Lone parent with dependent children	1.57	[1.49, 1.65]	631	1.50	[1.26, 1.74]	45
Adjusted Wald test	F=12.2 ( <b>p=0.000</b> )			F=3.6 (p=0.060)		

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A18. Mean age of oldest child of lone parents, by gender of lone parent.**

	Mean age	
	Lone mothers	Lone fathers
<b>UK</b>		
Age	10.1	12.2
95% CI	[10.00,10.25]	[11.85,12.59]
<i>N</i>	10,505	857
Adjusted Wald test	F=108.2 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	
<b>Scotland</b>		
Age	10.1	12.3
95% CI	[9.71,10.40]	[11.40,13.26]
<i>N</i>	1,247	97
Adjusted Wald test	F=20.2 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	
<b>Strathclyde</b>		
Age	10.1	12.5
95% CI	[9.61,10.58]	[11.33,13.76]
<i>N</i>	631	45
Adjusted Wald test	F=13.5 ( <b>p=0.000</b> )	

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.  
All significant results in bold ( $p<0.05$ ).



**Table A19. Mean age of oldest child, by gender of parent and family type.**

Family type	Mean age					
	Mothers			Fathers		
	Age	95% CI	N	Age	95% CI	N
<b>UK</b>						
Couple with dependent children	9.5	[9.47,9.62]	30,037	9.5	[9.45,9.60]	29,926
Lone parent with dependent children	10.1	[10.00,10.25]	10,505	12.2	[11.85,12.59]	857
Adjusted Wald test	F=63.9 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			F=191.3 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )		
<b>Scotland</b>						
Couple with dependent children	9.7	[9.49,9.91]	3,863	9.6	[9.48,9.90]	3,854
Lone parent with dependent children	10.1	[9.71,10.40]	1,247	12.3	[11.40,13.26]	97
Adjusted Wald test	F=3.0 (p=0.082)			F=25.6 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )		
<b>Strathclyde</b>						
Couple with dependent children	9.8	[9.50,10.2]	1,627	9.8	[9.47,10.2]	1,618
Lone parent with dependent children	10.1	[9.61,10.58]	631	12.5	[11.33,13.76]	45
Adjusted Wald test	F=0.7 (p=0.409)			F=17.9 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )		

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A20. Marital status of lone parents with dependent children in the UK, by gender and family type.**

Marital status	Family type			
	Lone mothers		Lone fathers	
	%	Mean age	%	Mean age
Single, never married	53.4	32.2	30.0	36.7
95% CI	[52.32,54.55]	[31.91,32.44]	[26.54,33.64]	[35.30,38.01]
<i>N</i>	5,688		266	
Separated	18.6	39.2	20.9	44.4
95% CI	[17.74,19.49]	[38.85,39.62]	[17.89,24.28]	[42.94,45.79]
<i>N</i>	1,896		182	
Divorced	25.0	43.3	38.9	45.2
95% CI	[24.01,25.97]	[43.02,43.58]	[35.05,42.79]	[44.32,46.06]
<i>N</i>	2,498		312	
Widowed	3.0	46.3	10.3	50.4
95% CI	[2.63,3.39]	[45.42,47.17]	[8.18,12.85]	[48.40,52.44]
<i>N</i>	322		89	
Total	100.0	36.7	100.0	43.0
<i>N</i>	10,404		849	

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

**Table A21. Mean number of dependent children, by family type including marital status.**

Family type	Mean number of children		
	No.	95% CI	<i>N</i>
<b>UK</b>			
Married couple with dependent children	1.82	[1.81,1.83]	24,156
Cohabiting couple with dependent children	1.66	[1.64,1.69]	5,770
Lone parent with dependent children	1.62	[1.60,1.64]	11,362
Adjusted Wald test <sup>1</sup>		<b>F=352.8 (p&lt;0.000)</b>	
<b>Scotland</b>			
Married couple with dependent children	1.77	[1.74,1.81]	3,146
Cohabiting couple with dependent children	1.58	[1.52,1.64]	708
Lone parent with dependent children	1.53	[1.48,1.58]	1,344
Adjusted Wald test <sup>1</sup>		<b>F=75.4 (p&lt;0.000)</b>	
<b>Strathclyde</b>			
Married couple with dependent children	1.76	[1.70,1.81]	1,337
Cohabiting couple with dependent children	1.60	[1.50,1.71]	281
Lone parent with dependent children	1.56	[1.49,1.64]	676
Adjusted Wald test <sup>1</sup>		<b>F=19.4 (p&lt;0.000)</b>	

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

<sup>1</sup> Wald test for 'married couple' versus 'cohabiting couple or lone parent'.

**Table A22. Experience of domestic violence, by family type (Scotland).**

Type of domestic violence	Couple parents			Lone parents		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
<b><i>Any domestic violence</i></b>						
%	7.4	92.6	100.0	46.1	53.9	100.0
95% CI	[6.37,8.57]	[91.43,93.64]		[41.94,50.39]	[49.61,58.06]	
N	201	2,785	2,986	237	281	518
<b><i>Physical violence</i></b>						
%	3.4	96.7	100.0	25.6	74.4	100.0
95% CI	[2.69,4.17]	[95.83,97.31]		[21.61,29.98]	[70.02,78.39]	
N	93	2,937	3,030	131	403	534
<b><i>Controlling behaviour</i></b>						
%	5.1	94.9	100.0	39.1	60.9	100.0
95% CI	[4.21,6.13]	[93.87,95.79]		[35.28,43.03]	[56.97,64.72]	
N	136	2,857	2,993	200	316	516
<b><i>Threatening behaviour</i></b>						
%	2.4	97.6	100.0	23.5	76.6	100.0
95% CI	[1.83,3.22]	[96.78,98.17]		[19.81,27.52]	[72.48,80.19]	
N	67	2,958	3,025	118	411	529

Source: Growing Up in Scotland, Sweep 6, 2010-2011.

**Table A23. Working age families with dependent children in the UK, by family type and ethnic group.**

Ethnicity	Family type			
	Couple with dependent children		Lone parent with dependent children	
	Mothers	Fathers	Mothers	Fathers
<b>White</b>				
%	85.4	85.4	83.9	86.8
95% CI	[84.83,85.91]	[84.88,85.96]	[82.94,84.86]	[83.35,89.66]
<i>N</i>	18,938	18,799	6,703	554
<b>Asian</b>				
%	9.5	9.2	3.8	5.2
95% CI	[9.03,9.93]	[8.74,9.62]	[3.33,4.32]	[3.38,7.80]
<i>N</i>	1,979	1,954	273	25
<b>Black</b>				
%	2.4	2.7	8.6	5.8
95% CI	[2.17,2.64]	[2.48,2.99]	[7.90,9.37]	[4.05,8.36]
<i>N</i>	492	522	553	33
<b>Mixed/other</b>				
%	2.8	2.7	3.7	2.2
95% CI	[2.51,3.02]	[2.44,2.95]	[3.21,4.21]	[1.21,3.92]
<i>N</i>	566	538	241	14
<b>Total</b>				
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<i>N</i>	21,975	21,813	7,770	626

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

**Table A24. Mean total family income from all sources, by family type.**

Total weekly income	Family type		
	No dependent children	Couple with dependent children	Lone parent with dependent children
<b>UK</b>			
Mean	£517.69	£962.26	£422.72
95% CI	[505.92,529.45]	[940.12,984.40]	[406.18,439.27]
N	12,887	5,479	2,142
Adjusted Wald test (= lone parents)	F=84.1 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	F=1463.7 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	-
<b>Scotland</b>			
Mean	£486.23	£937.80	£390.00
95% CI	[464.81,507.65]	[891.62,983.97]	[367.50,412.51]
N	2,170	812	306
Adjusted Wald test (versus lone parents)	F=36.9 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	F=437.2 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	-

Source: Family Resources Survey, 2010-11. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A25. Mean total family income from earnings, by family type.**

Mean income	Family type		
	No dependent children	Couple with dependent children	Lone parent with dependent children
<b>UK</b>			
Total weekly earnings (£)	£592.08	£906.31	£306.72
95% CI	[578.45,605.71]	[882.26,930.35]	[287.92,325.52]
N	8,432	4,257	1,136
Adjusted Wald test (= lone parents)	F=580.2 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	F=1482.8 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	-
<b>Scotland</b>			
Total weekly earnings (£)	£550.13	£875.33	£265.08
95% CI	[525.38,574.88]	[826.32,924.33]	[229.75,300.40]
N	1,480	663	173
Adjusted Wald test (versus lone parents)	F=168.0 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	F=392.39 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	-

Source: Family Resources Survey, 2010-11. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

Note: Employees only; excludes self-employed.

**Table A26. Lone parent gross weekly earnings in main job.**

	Gross weekly earnings		
	UK	Scotland	Strathclyde
Earnings	£286.50	£283.64	£279.40
95% CI	[279.52,293.48]	[264.37,302.91]	[249.34,309.46]
<i>N</i>	4,679	608	284
Adjusted Wald test	Scotland = rest of UK: F=0.1 (p=0.765)		Strathclyde = rest of Scotland: F=0.2 (p=0.681)

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A27. Mean total family income from means tested benefits and tax credits, by family type.**

Mean income	Family type		
	No dependent children	Couple with dependent children	Lone parent with dependent children
<b>UK</b>			
Total weekly means tested benefits and tax credits (£)	£99.25	£85.80	£177.07
95% CI	[96.28,102.23]	[81.93,89.67]	[172.44,181.70]
<i>N</i>	2,148	3,202	1,942
Adjusted Wald test (= lone parents)	F=878.3 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	F=767.2 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	-
<b>Scotland</b>			
Total weekly means tested benefits and tax credits (£)	£92.01	£68.42	£163.76
95% CI	[86.18,97.85]	[61.03,75.81]	[153.88,173.64]
<i>N</i>	424	479	280
Adjusted Wald test (versus lone parents)	F=229.8 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	F=150.6 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	-

Note: Figures are for those in receipt of a non-zero amount.

Source: Family Resources Survey, 2010-11. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A28. Indicators of financial and material deprivation, by family type.**

	Ability to afford item							
	Can afford this or do not want it			Cannot afford this			Total	
	%	95% CI	N	%	95% CI	N	%	N
<b>Cannot afford to keep house in decent decorative condition</b>								
<b>UK</b>								
No dependent children	84.8	[84.01,85.6]	8,091	15.2	[14.4,15.99]	1,416	100.0	9,507
Couple with dependent children	86.3	[85.19,87.25]	4,668	13.8	[12.75,14.81]	691	100.0	5,359
Lone parent with dependent children	68.3	[66.00,70.50]	1,373	31.7	[29.50,34.00]	635	100.0	2,008
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =314.0 (p<0.000)					
<b>Scotland</b>								
No dependent children	86.5	[84.67,88.09]	1,408	13.5	[11.91,15.33]	220	100.0	1,628
Couple with dependent children	90.5	[88.20,92.35]	720	9.5	[7.653,11.8]	79	100.0	799
Lone parent with dependent children	67.1	[61.32,72.42]	192	32.9	[27.58,38.68]	94	100.0	286
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =81.3 (p<0.000)					
<b>Cannot afford to replace worn-out furniture</b>								
<b>UK</b>								
No dependent children	74.9	[73.95,75.89]	7,000	25.1	[24.11,26.05]	2,296	100.0	9,296
Couple with dependent children	72.4	[71.00,73.66]	3,964	27.7	[26.34,29.00]	1,398	100.0	5,362
Lone parent with dependent children	42.5	[40.14,44.83]	869	57.5	[55.17,59.86]	1,181	100.0	1,181
Pearson: Uncorrected chi square			chi <sup>2</sup> =733.3 (p<0.000)					
<b>Scotland</b>								
No dependent children	78.7	[76.53,80.66]	1,235	21.3	[19.34,23.47]	338	100.0	1,573
Couple with dependent children	80.6	[77.61,83.26]	634	19.4	[16.74,22.39]	156	100.0	790
Lone parent with dependent children	44.2	[38.4,50.09]	126	55.8	[49.91,61.6]	159	100.0	285
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =146.3 (p<0.000)					

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**Table A28 continued**

<b>Cannot afford to replace broken electrical items</b>									
<b>UK</b>									
No dependent children	80.1	[79.16,80.94]	7,369	19.9	[19.06,20.84]	1,828	100.0	9,197	
Couple with dependent children	81.7	[80.49,82.82]	4,410	18.3	[17.18,19.51]	926	100.0	5,336	
Lone parent with dependent children	50.3	[47.89,52.69]	1,014	49.7	[47.31,52.11]	1,004	100.0	2,018	
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =785.4 (p<0.000)						
<b>Scotland</b>									
No dependent children	82.4	[80.42,84.29]	1,272	17.6	[15.71,19.58]	275	100.0	1,547	
Couple with dependent children	84.8	[82.06,87.23]	667	15.2	[12.77,17.94]	120	100.0	787	
Lone parent with dependent children	51.2	[45.2,57.17]	144	48.8	[42.83,54.8]	132	100.0	276	
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =136.5 (p<0.000)						
<b>Cannot afford a hobby or leisure activity</b>									
<b>UK</b>									
No dependent children	90.8	[90.18,91.34]	10,608	9.2	[8.66,9.82]	1,058	100.0	11,666	
Couple with dependent children	85.2	[84.11,86.23]	4,685	14.8	[13.77,15.89]	768	100.0	5,473	
Lone parent with dependent children	65.9	[63.62,68.07]	1,415	34.1	[31.93,36.38]	716	100.0	2,131	
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			chi <sup>2</sup> =837.3 (p<0.000)						
<b>Scotland</b>									
No dependent children	92.3	[90.97,93.39]	1,822	7.7	[6.613,9.033]	155	100.0	1,977	
Couple with dependent children	88.4	[85.89,90.46]	717	11.6	[9.542,14.11]	94	100.0	811	
Lone parent with dependent children	68.9	[63.31,73.92]	211	31.1	[26.08,36.69]	94	100.0	305	
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =129.7 (p<0.000)						

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**Table A28 continued**

<b>Cannot afford money to spend on self not family</b>								
<b>UK</b>								
No dependent children	83.3	[82.56,84.04]	9,673	16.7	[15.96,17.44]	1,985	100.0	11,658
Couple with dependent children	72.1	[70.81,73.43]	3,994	27.9	[26.57,29.19]	1,481	100.0	5,475
Lone parent with dependent children	45.7	[43.4,48.04]	974	54.3	[51.96,56.6]	1,167	100.0	2,141
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			<b>Chi<sup>2</sup>=1278.3 (p&lt;0.000)</b>					
<b>Scotland</b>								
No dependent children	84.0	[82.25,85.56]	1,657	16.0	[14.44,17.75]	323	100.0	1,980
Couple with dependent children	78.6	[75.55,81.31]	634	21.4	[18.69,24.45]	178	100.0	812
Lone parent with dependent children	49.9	[44.22,55.61]	151	50.1	[44.39,55.78]	154	100.0	305
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			<b>Chi<sup>2</sup>=161.5 (p&lt;0.000)</b>					

Source: Family Resources Survey, 2010-11. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A29. Ability to keep up with bills and regular debt payments, by family type.**

	Keeps up			Does not keep up			Total	
	%	95% CI	<i>N</i>	%	95% CI	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>
<b>UK</b>								
No dependent children	90.1	[89.52,90.69]	10,535	9.9	[9.308,10.48]	1,203	100.0	11,738
Couple with dependent children	91.7	[90.83,92.47]	5,041	8.3	[7.527,9.173]	438	100.0	5,479
Lone parent with dependent children	79.7	[77.76,81.56]	1,712	20.3	[18.44,22.24]	430	100.0	2,142
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			<b>Chi<sup>2</sup>=202.4 (p&lt;0.000)</b>					
<b>Scotland</b>								
No dependent children	88.4	[86.91,89.8]	1,760	11.6	[10.20,13.09]	231	100.0	1,991
Couple with dependent children	92.5	[90.41,94.13]	749	7.5	[5.867,9.586]	63	100.0	821
Lone parent with dependent children	78.0	[72.93,82.43]	239	22.0	[17.57,27.07]	67	100.0	306
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			<b>Chi<sup>2</sup>=38.0 (p&lt;0.000)</b>					

Source: Family Resources Survey, 2010-11. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A30. Indicators of financial and material deprivation, by family type and earning status.**

Family type and ability to afford item		Number of earners in the family					
		At least one earner			No earner		
		%	95% CI	N	%	95% CI	N
<b><i>Cannot afford to keep house in decent decorative condition</i></b>							
Couple	Can afford or do not want this	88.5	[87.49,89.46]	4,485	52.7	[46.73,58.63]	183
	Cannot afford this	11.5	[10.54,12.51]	535	47.3	[41.37,53.27]	156
	Total	100.0		5,020	100.0		339
Lone parent	Can afford or do not want this	77.4	[74.63,79.98]	881	55.9	[52.22,59.56]	492
	Cannot afford this	22.6	[20.02,25.37]	241	44.1	[40.44,47.78]	386
	Total	100.0		1,130	100.0		878
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =89.5 (p<0.000)			Chi <sup>2</sup> =1.1 (p=0.370)		
<b><i>Cannot afford to replace worn-out furniture</i></b>							
Couple	Can afford or do not want this	75.3	[73.93,76.58]	3,860	29.0	[24.04,34.6]	104
	Cannot afford this	24.7	[23.42,26.07]	1,163	71.0	[65.4,75.96]	235
	Total	100.0		5,023	100.0		339
Lone parent	Can afford or do not want this	53.6	[50.44,56.71]	610	27.9	[24.78,31.22]	259
	Cannot afford this	46.4	[43.29,49.56]	531	72.1	[68.78,75.22]	650
	Total	100.0		1,141	100.0		909
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =195.9 (p<0.000)			Chi <sup>2</sup> =0.2 (p=0.715)		

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**Table A30 continued**

<b>Cannot afford to replace broken electrical items</b>							
Couple	Can afford or do not want this	84.9	[83.72,85.94]	4,282	34.6	[29.33,40.36]	128
	Cannot afford this	15.1	[14.06,16.28]	717	65.4	[59.64,70.67]	209
	Total	100.0		4,999	100.0		337
<hr/>							
Lone parent	Can afford or do not want this	64.9	[61.79,67.88]	727	31.1	[27.80,34.54]	287
	Cannot afford this	35.1	[32.12,38.21]	399	68.9	[65.46,72.2]	605
	Total	100.0		1,126	100.0		892
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =222.0 (p<0.000)			Chi <sup>2</sup> =1.5 (p=0.275)		
<b>Cannot afford a hobby or leisure activity</b>							
Couple	Can afford or do not want this	86.7	[85.59,87.69]	4,465	63.6	[57.72,69.06]	220
	Cannot afford this	13.3	[12.31,14.41]	641	36.4	[30.94,42.28]	127
	Total	100.0		5,106	100.0		347
<hr/>							
Lone parent	Can afford or do not want this	73.6	[70.78,76.26]	883	55.8	[52.22,59.31]	532
	Cannot afford this	26.4	[23.74,29.22]	303	44.2	[40.69,47.78]	413
	Total	100.0		1,186	100.0		945
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =113.9 (p<0.000)			chi <sup>2</sup> =6.8 (p=0.026)		

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**Table A30 continued**

<b>Cannot afford money to spend on self not family</b>							
Couple	Can afford or do not want this	74.8	[73.45,76.08]	3,884	33.3	[27.89,39.16]	110
	Cannot afford this	25.2	[23.92,26.55]	1,242	66.7	[60.84,72.11]	239
	Total	100.0		5,126	100.0		349
Lone parent	Can afford or do not want this	57.1	[54.02,60.14]	691	30.9	[27.6,34.32]	283
	Cannot afford this	42.9	[39.86,45.98]	499	69.1	[65.68,72.4]	668
	Total	100.0		1,190	100.0		951
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared				<b>Chi<sup>2</sup>=135.6 (p&lt;0.000)</b>	Chi <sup>2</sup> =0.8 (p=0.466)		

Source: Family Resources Survey, 2010-11. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A31. Indicators of child financial and material deprivation in UK working age families, by family type.**

Family type	Ability to afford item							
	Can afford this or do not want it			Cannot afford this			Total	
	%	95% CI	N	%	95% CI	N	%	N
<b>Cannot afford fresh fruit or vegetables for child every day</b>								
Couple with dependent children	97.9	[97.44,98.3]	5,318	2.1	[1.699,2.563]	105	100.0	5,423
Lone parent with dependent children	93.1	[91.77,94.18]	1,985	6.9	[5.822,8.231]	141	100.0	2,126
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared				<b>Chi<sup>2</sup>=104.0 (p&lt;0.000)</b>				
<b>Cannot afford warm winter coat for child</b>								
Couple with dependent children	98.6	[98.18,98.9]	5,402	1.4	[1.105,1.817]	72	100.0	5,474
Lone parent with dependent children	95.5	[94.4,96.41]	2,047	4.5	[3.59,5.597]	90	100.0	2,137
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared				<b>Chi<sup>2</sup>=62.8 (p&lt;0.000)</b>				
<b>Cannot afford celebration on special occasion for child</b>								
Couple with dependent children	98.4	[98.04,98.74]	5,363	1.6	[1.26,1.96]	92	100.0	5,455
Lone parent with dependent children	94.7	[93.52,95.73]	2,027	5.3	[4.27,6.49]	104	100.0	2,131
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared				<b>Chi<sup>2</sup>=79.8 (p&lt;0.000)</b>				
<b>Cannot afford a hobby or leisure activity for child</b>								
Couple with dependent children	96.4	[95.76,96.88]	5,043	3.6	[3.123,4.237]	186	100.0	5,229
Lone parent with dependent children	90.4	[88.94,91.73]	1,867	9.6	[8.269,11.06]	198	100.0	2,065
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared				<b>Chi<sup>2</sup>=99.2 (p&lt;0.000)</b>				

Source: Family Resources Survey, 2010-11. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A32. Housing tenure of working age families, by family type.**

Housing tenure	Family type		
	No dependent children	Couple with dependent children	Lone parent with dependent children
<b>UK</b>			
<b>Own/mortgage</b>			
%	57.2	73.1	31.2
95% CI	[56.70,57.61]	[72.50,73.69]	[30.80,32.83]
N	39,638	21,814	3,538
<b>Private rented</b>			
%	27.8	14.7	27.0
95% CI	[27.40,28.26]	[14.25,15.21]	[26.01,27.92]
N	14,792	4,133	3,040
<b>Social rented</b>			
%	15.0	12.2	41.2
95% CI	[14.71,15.34]	[11.75,12.61]	[40.19,42.30]
N	10,598	3,653	4,647
<b>Total</b>			
%	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	65,028	29,600	11,225
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =7668.7 (p<0.000)	
<b>Scotland</b>			
<b>Own/mortgage</b>			
%	56.8	79	30.3
95% CI	[55.49,58.07]	[74.36,77.64]	[27.52,33.23]
N	5,733	2,967	434
<b>Private rented</b>			
%	22.4	9.7	20.8
95% CI	[21.25,23.65]	[8.62,10.97]	[18.26,23.57]
N	1,420	332	260
<b>Social rented</b>			
%	20.8	14.2	48.9
95% CI	[19.80,21.82]	[12.95,15.62]	[45.73,52.10]
N	1,925	505	636
<b>Total</b>			
%	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	9,078	3,804	1,330
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi square		Chi <sup>2</sup> =1066.6 (p<0.000)	

*Continued on next page*



**Table A32 continued**

<b>Strathclyde</b>			
<b>Own/mortgage</b>			
%	55.0	74.6	28.5
95% CI	[52.93,57.06]	[71.78,77.23]	[24.65,32.75]
<i>N</i>	2,401	1,258	213
<b>Private rented</b>			
%	18.7	9.4	21.3
95% CI	[16.93,20.61]	[7.66,11.44]	[17.73,25.38]
<i>N</i>	470	129	140
<b>Social rented</b>			
%	26.3	16.0	50.2
95% CI	[24.54,28.13]	[13.84,18.45]	[45.52,54.8]
<i>N</i>	968	223	318
<b>Total</b>			
%	100.0	100.0	100.0
<i>N</i>	3,839	1,610	671
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =428.7 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A33. Distribution of family type in Scotland, by Scottish Index of Multiple Deprivation.**

<b>SIMD</b>		<b>Family type</b>		
		<b>No dependent children</b>	<b>Couple with dependent children</b>	<b>Lone parent with dependent children</b>
Not most deprived 15%	%	83.7	87.4	70.6
	95% CI	[83.00,84.45]	[86.45,88.33]	[68.04,73.00]
	<i>N</i>	9,746	4,776	1,038
Most deprived 15%	%	16.3	12.6	29.4
	95% CI	[15.55,17.00]	[11.67,13.55]	[27.00,31.96]
	<i>N</i>	1,710	630	409
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	<i>N</i>	11,456	5,406	1,447
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =213.8 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )		

Source: Scottish Household Survey, 2007-08. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A34. Mothers' self-reported general health, by family type.**

General health	Couple mothers			Lone mothers		
	%	95% CI	N	%	95% CI	N
<b>UK</b>						
Very good	46.7	[46.04,47.37]	13,683	35.9	[34.82,36.98]	3,710
Good	39.9	[39.24,40.54]	11,826	41.8	[40.66,42.89]	4,187
Fair	10.4	[10.01,10.82]	3,074	15.9	[15.12,16.75]	1,682
Poor	2.4	[2.17,2.56]	743	5.0	[4.55,5.51]	534
Very poor	0.6	[0.56,0.76]	198	1.4	[1.17,1.70]	149
Total	100.0		29,524	100.0		10,262
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =604.9 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			
<b>Scotland</b>						
Very good	51.8	[49.93,53.62]	1,943	39.7	[36.52,43.03]	475
Good	35.3	[33.54,37.05]	1,383	35.4	[32.28,38.61]	442
Fair	9.3	[8.27,10.40]	362	16.6	[14.25,19.17]	206
Poor	2.7	[2.13,3.34]	102	5.9	[4.52,7.59]	75
Very poor	1.0	[0.69,1.45]	37	2.5	[1.52,3.94]	23
Total	100.0		3,827	100.0		1,221
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =113.9 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			
<b>Strathclyde</b>						
Very good	50.0	[46.97,52.93]	780	39.3	[34.66,44.09]	239
Good	35.4	[32.63,38.27]	600	34.5	[29.99,39.23]	217
Fair	9.7	[8.07,11.60]	158	17.6	[14.18,21.65]	108
Poor	3.7	[2.71,5.07]	57	5.0	[3.37,7.44]	36
Very poor	1.2	[0.72,2.13]	18	3.6	[2.05,6.34]	16
Total	100.0		1,613	100.0		616
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =50.1 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

**Table A35. Fathers' self-reported general health, by family type.**

General health	Couple fathers			Lone fathers		
	%	95% CI	N	%	95% CI	N
<b>UK</b>						
Very good	45.9	[45.26,46.59]	13,316	37.7	[33.93,41.67]	303
Good	41.0	[40.31,41.63]	11,990	36.5	[32.78,40.36]	312
Fair	10.2	[9.786,10.58]	3,115	19.6	[16.66,22.99]	160
Poor	2.4	[2.17,2.57]	733	5.0	[3.67,6.89]	49
Very poor	0.6	[0.48,0.68]	184	1.1	[0.57,2.17]	11
Total	100.0		29,338	100.0		835
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =109.9 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A36. Mothers' self-reported general health, by family type and earning status (UK).**

General health		At least one earner		No earner	
		Couple mothers	Lone mothers	Couple mothers	Lone mothers
Very good	%	48.0	41.1	28.2	29.3
	95% CI	[47.30,48.67]	[39.59,42.61]	[25.95,30.63]	[27.76,30.79]
	<i>N</i>	13,119	2,298	537	1,375
Good	%	40.2	44.7	35.6	38.4
	95% CI	[39.50,40.85]	[43.16,46.22]	[33.16,38.06]	[36.74,40.00]
	<i>N</i>	11,093	2,425	709	1,729
Fair	%	9.6	12.4	21.4	20.2
	95% CI	[9.25,10.06]	[11.42,13.41]	[19.37,23.53]	[18.91,21.58]
	<i>N</i>	2,627	715	438	947
Poor	%	1.8	1.6	10.9	9.2
	95% CI	[1.61,1.96]	[1.30,2.09]	[9.40,12.58]	[8.34,10.25]
	<i>N</i>	520	88	221	442
Very poor	%	0.4	0.2	3.9	2.9
	95% CI	[0.34,0.51]	[0.10,0.35]	[3.06,5.04]	[2.41,3.55]
	<i>N</i>	118	13	79	134
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	<i>N</i>	27,477	5,539	1,984	4,627
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =103.5 ( <b>p&lt;.000</b> )		Chi <sup>2</sup> =12.8 (p=.055)	

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A37. Number of earners in the household, by family type.**

Number of earners	Family type					
	Couple with dependent children			Lone parent with dependent children		
	%	95% CI	<i>N</i>	%	95% CI	<i>N</i>
<b>UK</b>						
Dual earner	65.4	[64.78,66.03]	19,394	n/a		
Single earner	28.2	[27.64,28.83]	8,472	56.4	[55.35,57.48]	6,209
No earner	6.4	[6.06,6.69]	1,994	43.6	[42.52,44.65]	5,023
Total	100.0		29,860	100.0		11,232
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi square			Chi <sup>2</sup> =15400 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			
<b>Scotland</b>						
Dual earner	68.9	[67.13,70.60]	2,691	n/a		0
Single earner	25.9	[24.25,27.53]	968	58.6	[55.41,61.72]	795
No earner	5.3	[4.43,6.21]	175	41.4	[38.28,44.59]	533
Total	100.0		3,834	100.0		1,328
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =2115.7 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			
<b>Strathclyde</b>						
Dual earner	66.0	[63.03,68.76]	1,089	n/a		0
Single earner	27.4	[24.8,30.18]	432	56.2	[51.53,60.81]	385
No earner	6.6	[5.20,8.43]	87	43.8	[39.19,48.47]	282
Total	100.0		1,608	100.0		667
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =933.3 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A38. Number of earners in the household, by family type including marital status.**

Employment status	Family type		
	Married couple with dependent children	Cohabiting couple with dependent children	Lone parent with dependent children
<b>UK</b>			
<b>Dual earner</b>			
%	66.9	59.0	n/a
95% CI	[66.22,67.60]	[57.51,60.49]	
N	16,063	3,331	0
<b>Single earner</b>			
%	27.8	30.0	56.4
95% CI	[27.16,28.47]	[28.64,31.41]	[55.35,57.48]
N	6,716	1,756	6,209
<b>No earner</b>			
%	5.3	11.0	43.6
95% CI	[4.97,5.60]	[10.08,11.96]	[42.52,44.65]
N	1,332	662	5,023
<b>Total</b>			
%	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	24,111	5,749	11,232
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =15500 (p<0.000)	
<b>Scotland</b>			
<b>Dual earner</b>			
%	70.9	60.2	n/a
95% CI	[68.94,72.73]	[55.92,64.38]	
N	2,264	427	0
<b>Single earner</b>			
%	25.0	29.8	58.6
95% CI	[23.19,26.79]	[26.05,33.92]	[55.41,61.72]
N	757	211	795
<b>No earner</b>			
%	4.2	9.9	41.4
95% CI	[3.376,5.163]	[7.543,12.97]	[38.28,44.59]
N	112	63	533
<b>Total</b>			
%	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	3133.0	701	1,328
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =2145.7 (p<0.000)	

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**Table A38 continued**

<b>Strathclyde</b>			
<b>Dual earner</b>			
%	68.6	54	n/a
95% CI	[65.41,71.58]	[46.71,61.04]	
N	928	161	0
<b>Single earner</b>			
%	26.7	30.9	56.2
95% CI	[23.82,29.69]	[24.63,37.9]	[51.53,60.81]
N	348	84	385
<b>No earner</b>			
%	4.8	15.2	43.8
95% CI	[3.48,6.50]	[10.41,21.6]	[39.19,48.47]
N	54	33	282
<b>Total</b>			
%	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	1,330	278	667
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		<b>Chi<sup>2</sup>=959.5 (p&lt;0.000)</b>	

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A39. Economic activity in working age families with dependent children in the UK, by gender of parent and family type.**

Employment status		Mothers		Fathers	
		Couple	Lone	Couple	Lone
Full-time employee	%	28.1	22.9	68.2	44.8
	95% CI	[27.47,28.65]	[22.00,23.90]	[67.54,68.77]	[40.95,48.78]
	<i>N</i>	8,516	2,305	20,234	371
Part-time employee	%	35.0	28.4	4.3	8.0
	95% CI	[34.38,35.64]	[27.41,29.42]	[4.00,4.52]	[6.09,10.40]
	<i>N</i>	10,509	2,995	1,298	66
Self-employed	%	7.3	4.2	17.1	13.7
	95% CI	[6.98,7.68]	[3.74,4.65]	[16.61,17.61]	[11.18,16.60]
	<i>N</i>	2,082	419	5,050	114
Unemployed	%	3.2	10.5	4.3	11.7
	95% CI	[2.99,3.45]	[9.82,11.17]	[4.08,4.60]	[9.39,14.38]
	<i>N</i>	1,020	1,119	1,362	104
Looking after family	%	21.0	22.7	1.6	9.4
	95% CI	[20.48,21.55]	[21.80,23.64]	[1.41,1.72]	[7.40,11.89]
	<i>N</i>	6,221	2,435	525	88
Sick or disabled	%	2.5	6.5	2.9	8.1
	95% CI	[2.29,2.69]	[5.99,7.08]	[2.71,3.15]	[6.26,10.45]
	<i>N</i>	824	700	937	72
Student	%	0.9	2.4	0.4	0.8
	95% CI	[0.74,0.98]	[2.12,2.80]	[0.34,0.52]	[0.35,1.95]
	<i>N</i>	258	258	111	6
Retired	%	0.1	0.1	0.3	1.0
	95% CI	[0.06,0.14]	[0.04,0.20]	[0.24,0.38]	[0.50,2.12]
	<i>N</i>	31	8	97	8
Other	%	1.9	2.2	0.9	2.5
	95% CI	[1.77,2.14]	[1.95,2.59]	[0.83,1.08]	[1.54,4.00]
	<i>N</i>	570	251	307	20
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	<i>N</i>	30,037	10,493	29,926	849
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =1575.6 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )		Chi <sup>2</sup> =575.8 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A40. Mean hours worked per week for full-time employees, by gender of parent and family type.**

Hours	Mothers		Fathers	
	Couple	Lone	Couple	Lone
<b>UK</b>				
Hours	35.7	35.7	38.9	39.0
95% CI	[35.31,36.06]	[35.15,36.34]	[38.57,39.15]	[37.16,40.81]
<i>N</i>	6,853	1,973	18,672	340
Adjusted Wald test	F=0.02 (p=0.878)		F=0.02 (p=0.891)	
<b>Scotland</b>				
Hours	34.9	36.5	-	-
95% CI	[33.99,35.90]	[35.08,37.91]	-	-
<i>N</i>	940	260	-	-
Adjusted Wald test	F=3.2 (p=0.074)			
<b>Strathclyde</b>				
Hours	35.0	35.6	-	-
95% CI	[33.56,33.37]	[33.39,37.88]	-	-
<i>N</i>	438	127	-	-
Adjusted Wald test	F=0.24 (p=0.621)			

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A41. Mean hours worked per week for part-time employees, by gender of parent and family type.**

Hours	Mothers		Fathers	
	Couple	Lone	Couple	Lone
<b>UK</b>				
Hours	19.1	19.1	19.2	16.4
95% CI	[18.80,19.30]	[18.68,19.45]	[18.35,20.00]	[13.27,19.51]
<i>N</i>	8,717	2,631	1,189	58
Adjusted Wald test	F<0.00 (p=0.952)		F=2.86 (p=0.091)	
<b>Scotland</b>				
Hours	19.8	19.6	-	-
95% CI	[19.17,20.40]	[18.70,20.54]	-	-
<i>N</i>	1,231	354	-	-
Adjusted Wald test	F=0.05 (p=0.816)			
<b>Strathclyde</b>				
Hours	19.3	19.2	-	-
95% CI	[18.13,20.43]	[17.76,20.60]	-	-
<i>N</i>	464	166	-	-
Adjusted Wald test	F=0.01 (p=0.903)			

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).



**Table A42. Occupational classification in UK working-age families with dependent children, by gender of parent and family type.**

SOC2010		Mothers		Fathers	
		Couple	Lone	Couple	Lone
Managers, directors and senior officials	%	7.7	5.2	16.5	11.8
	95% CI	[7.34,8.18]	[4.61,5.96]	[16.02,17.06]	[9.11,15.10]
	N	1,638	295	4,303	70
Professional occupations	%	24.5	14.5	21.2	15.3
	95% CI	[23.81,25.17]	[13.43,15.61]	[20.60,21.76]	[11.94,19.46]
	N	5,070	765	5,396	69
Associate professional and technical occupations	%	13.1	10.6	15.4	14.0
	95% CI	[12.57,13.63]	[9.71,11.56]	[14.91,15.93]	[11.01,17.64]
	N	2,783	610	4,035	81
Administrative and secretarial occupations	%	18.9	16.8	3.5	4.3
	95% CI	[18.33,19.56]	[15.68,17.96]	[3.28,3.80]	[2.65,6.92]
	N	3,961	933	958	22
Skilled trades occupations	%	1.7	2.2	18.5	20.8
	95% CI	[1.52,1.94]	[1.83,2.74]	[17.92,19.00]	[17.09,25.10]
	N	341	125	5,024	114
Caring, leisure and other service occupations	%	16.3	21.2	2.3	5.1
	95% CI	[15.69,16.86]	[20.01,22.47]	[2.06,2.47]	[3.38,7.60]
	N	3,475	1,246	617	30
Sales and customer service occupations	%	8.0	12.9	3.2	2.7
	95% CI	[7.62,8.47]	[11.93,13.91]	[2.92,3.40]	[1.50,4.63]
	N	1,767	781	854	16
Process, plant and machine operatives	%	1.3	1.4	11.2	13.7
	95% CI	[1.16,1.52]	[1.04,1.75]	[10.79,11.66]	[10.68,17.38]
	N	287	85	3,118	81
Elementary occupations	%	8.4	15.2	8.3	12.3
	95% CI	[7.98,8.85]	[14.15,16.30]	[7.90,8.67]	[9.488,15.9]
	N	1,776	878	2,243	68
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	21,098	5,718	26,548	551
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =61.6 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )		Chi <sup>2</sup> =51.5 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A43. Occupational skill level of mothers' occupations in UK working-age families, by family type.**

	Couple mothers			Lone mothers		
	%	95% CI	<i>N</i>	%	95% CI	<i>N</i>
<b>UK</b>						
Level 4	29.7	[29.02,30.46]	6,168	17.5	[16.31,18.65]	939
Level 3	17.3	[16.71,17.90]	3,664	15.1	[14.07,16.24]	856
Level 2	44.6	[43.78,45.35]	9,490	52.2	[50.73,53.75]	3,045
Level 1	8.4	[7.98,8.85]	1,776	15.2	[14.15,16.30]	878
Total	100.0		21,098	100.0		5,718
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =503.4 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			
<b>Scotland</b>						
Level 4	30.8	[28.82,32.77]	879	14.2	[11.53,17.28]	111
Level 3	17.5	[15.99,19.18]	523	13.2	[10.63,16.26]	100
Level 2	43.9	[41.81,46.01]	1,269	59.1	[54.9,63.23]	428
Level 1	7.8	[6.77,9.01]	225	13.5	[10.81,16.77]	95
Total	100.0		2,896	100.0		734
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =115.4 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			
<b>Strathclyde</b>						
Level 4	32.7	[29.48,36.01]	384	15.0	[10.97,20.13]	52
Level 3	16.2	[13.84,18.82]	205	12.8	[9.29,17.30]	49
Level 2	44.8	[41.37,48.26]	517	59.1	[52.76,65.20]	205
Level 1	6.4	[4.93,8.19]	81	13.1	[9.36,18.08]	46
Total	100.0		1,187	100.0		352
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =59.8 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A44. Socioeconomic classification of parental occupations in UK working-age families, by gender of parent and family type.**

NS-SEC		Mothers		Fathers	
		Couple	Lone	Couple	Lone
Higher managerial and professional	%	12.3	6.0	24.1	16.4
	95% CI	[11.81,12.89]	[5.27,6.77]	[23.49,24.76]	[12.90,20.50]
	<i>N</i>	2,327	311	5,531	74
Lower managerial and professional	%	34.5	27.1	25.9	24.7
	95% CI	[33.68,35.23]	[25.73,28.51]	[25.26,26.54]	[20.57,29.24]
	<i>N</i>	6,842	1,419	6,273	129
Intermediate occupations	%	23.0	22.8	6.5	6.2
	95% CI	[22.31,23.68]	[21.48,24.10]	[6.17,6.90]	[4.2,9.12]
	<i>N</i>	4,533	1,218	1,607	34
Small employers and own account workers	%	7.0	5.5	14.2	15.5
	95% CI	[6.57,7.41]	[4.83,6.28]	[13.68,14.69]	[12.19,19.39]
	<i>N</i>	1,330	292	3,478	84
Lower supervisory and technical	%	3.5	4.8	10.5	13.2
	95% CI	[3.21,3.81]	[4.18,5.49]	[10.04,10.93]	[10.08,16.97]
	<i>N</i>	714	269	2,715	69
Semi-routine occupations	%	13.9	22.5	8.6	10.6
	95% CI	[13.38,14.50]	[21.28,23.83]	[8.25,9.06]	[7.87,14.19]
	<i>N</i>	2,861	1,294	2,184	59
Routine occupations	%	5.8	11.3	10.2	13.6
	95% CI	[5.45,6.22]	[10.38,12.35]	[9.74,10.61]	[10.56,17.28]
	<i>N</i>	1,173	614	2,605	74
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	<i>N</i>	19,780	5,417	24,393	523
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =610 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )		Chi <sup>2</sup> =25.0 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A45. Socioeconomic classification of mothers' jobs, by family type.**

NS-SEC	Couple mothers			Lone mothers		
	%	95% CI	<i>N</i>	%	95% CI	<i>N</i>
<b>UK</b>						
Higher managerial, administrative and professional	46.8	[45.98,47.61]	9,169	33.1	[31.62,34.56]	1,730
Intermediate	30.0	[29.22,30.72]	5,863	28.3	[26.89,29.70]	1,510
Routine and manual	23.3	[22.57,23.94]	4,748	38.7	[37.16,40.17]	2,177
Total	100.0		19,780	100.0		5,417
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =538.6 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			
<b>Scotland</b>						
Higher managerial, administrative and professional	47.8	[45.64,49.98]	1,314	31.4	[27.56,35.58]	225
Intermediate	29.0	[27.05,31.00]	786	26.1	[22.43,30.06]	190
Routine and manual	23.2	[21.47,25.04]	600	42.5	[38.25,46.87]	292
Total	100.0		2,760	100.0		292
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =112.3 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			
<b>Strathclyde</b>						
Higher managerial, administrative and professional	49.4	[45.85,52.97]	564	31.4	[25.69,37.74]	104
Intermediate	30.3	[27.08,33.75]	314	30.2	[24.56,36.41]	107
Routine and manual	20.3	[17.65,23.19]	244	38.4	[32.29,44.98]	129
Total	100.0		1,122	100.0		340
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =54.5 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A46. Highest qualification, by gender of parent and family type (UK).**

Qualification		Mothers		Fathers	
		Couple	Lone	Couple	Lone
Degree level	%	29.3	12.5	28.3	17.1
	95% CI	[28.66,29.87]	[11.81,13.31]	[27.67,28.87]	[14.32,20.38]
	<i>N</i>	8,531	1,224	8,056	136
HE non-degree	%	9.4	7.4	8.0	7.9
	95% CI	[8.99,9.75]	[6.86,8.02]	[7.67,8.38]	[5.91,10.46]
	<i>N</i>	2,961	817	2,552	59
A-level or equivalent	%	9.2	8.6	8.0	7.5
	95% CI	[8.85,9.62]	[8.00,9.25]	[7.67,8.39]	[5.73,9.85]
	<i>N</i>	2,769	905	2,424	65
GCSE or equivalent	%	35.4	44.2	33.4	34.9
	95% CI	[34.79,36.05]	[43.10,45.31]	[32.75,34.00]	[31.31,38.75]
	<i>N</i>	10,664	4,666	9,985	304
Other	%	6.8	11.3	11.0	15.4
	95% CI	[6.51,7.17]	[10.58,11.98]	[10.62,11.44]	[12.82,18.32]
	<i>N</i>	2,067	1,171	3,415	139
None	%	9.9	16.0	11.3	17.1
	95% CI	[9.52,10.30]	[15.19,16.79]	[10.90,11.72]	[14.43,20.23]
	<i>N</i>	3,045	1,722	3,494	139
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	<i>N</i>	30,037	10,505	29,926	857
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared		Chi <sup>2</sup> =1424.1 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )		Chi <sup>2</sup> =74.1 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )	

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

**Table A47. Mothers' highest qualification, by family type.**

Qualification	Couple mothers			Lone mothers		
	%	95% CI	<i>N</i>	%	95% CI	<i>N</i>
<b>UK</b>						
Post-school	38.6	[37.99,39.27]	11,492	20.0	[19.08,20.87]	13,533
School	44.6	[43.98,45.30]	13,433	52.8	[51.69,53.91]	19,004
Other	6.8	[6.51,7.17]	2,067	11.3	[10.58,11.98]	3,238
None	9.9	[9.52,10.30]	3,045	16.0	[15.19,16.79]	4,767
Total	100.0		30,037	100.0		40,542
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =1279.6 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			
<b>Scotland</b>						
Post-school	48.9	[47.02,50.70]	1,869	24.8	[22.13,27.61]	338
School	37.5	[35.76,39.30]	1,477	51.6	[48.26,54.83]	634
Other	5.4	[4.59,6.31]	200	6.8	[5.21,8.76]	77
None	8.2	[7.30,9.30]	317	16.9	[14.51,19.61]	198
Total	100.0		3,863	100.0		1,247
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =244.8 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			
<b>Strathclyde</b>						
Post-school	48.3	[45.35,51.28]	794	23.7	[19.99,27.90]	162
School	35.8	[33,38.63]	591	49.2	[44.43,54.01]	314
Other	5.5	[4.27,7.16]	87	8.2	[5.76,11.47]	44
None	10.4	[8.70,12.36]	155	18.9	[15.33,23.08]	111
Total	100.0		1,627	100.0		631
Pearson: Uncorrected Chi squared			Chi <sup>2</sup> =119.9 ( <b>p&lt;0.000</b> )			

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011. All significant results in bold (p<0.05).

## **Appendix 4: Regression models**

The analysis presented in Chapter 3 suggested that lone parents may face employment inequality; they are less likely to be in employment, less likely to be in higher status jobs and more likely to be in lower status jobs. However, it was also discovered that they are younger and less qualified on average, which may negatively affect their labour market outcomes. Regression models can begin to suggest some of the mechanisms by which the disadvantage operates. If the disadvantage is caused by lone parenthood itself, then a lone parent would have worse outcomes than a couple parent with otherwise identical characteristics. However, it could also be the case that lone parents have poorer labour market outcomes because their characteristics differ in some salient way, for example that they have poorer skills or educational qualifications. These characteristics may of course themselves be related to the constraints they experience as lone parents, for example if they have been unable to complete school or pursue further or higher education because of their childcare responsibilities.

Logistic regression models were used to predict the probabilities of three outcomes for parents: being in employment versus not in employment; being in a professional or managerial job versus a job of a lower status than this; and being in a routine or manual job versus a higher status job than this. The variables included to explain these outcomes in the models were: being a lone parent or not; highest qualification obtained; number of dependent children; age of youngest child; and age of parent. The sample is for the UK as a whole, but the model includes a variable indicating if the person is living in Scotland or not. Separate models were estimated for mothers and fathers. Table A48 shows the models that were estimated; all of the independent variables were entered against each dependent variable in turn, for fathers and mothers (i.e. six models in total). Tests for collinearity between the independent variables did not suggest any problematic correlation between the variables.

**Table A48. Variables used in the regression models.**

Variable	Categories	
<b>Dependent variables</b>		
<b>In employment</b>	1 = Employee or self-employed, full-time or part-time	
	0 = Not employee or self-employed	
<b>In a professional or managerial job</b>	1 = NS-SEC 1 (Higher managerial and professional) or 2 (Lower managerial and professional)	
	0 = NS-SEC 3 (Intermediate) or below	
<b>In a routine or manual job</b>	1 = NS-SEC 5 (Lower supervisory and technical), 6 (Semi-routine) or 7 (Routine)	
	0 = NS-SEC 4 (Small employers and own account workers) or above	
<b>Independent variables</b>		
<b>Lone parent</b>	1 = Lone parent	
	0 = Couple parent	
<b>Highest qualification</b>	1 = Post school (Degree or higher education non-degree)	
	2 = School (A level or GCSE, or equivalent)	
	3 = None	
<b>Number of dependent children</b>	1 = One	
	2 = Two	
	3 = Three or more	
<b>Age of youngest child</b>	1 = Infant (0-2)	
	2 = Nursery (3-4)	
	3 = Primary school (5-11)	
	4 = Secondary school (12-18)	
<b>Age of parent</b>	Fathers:	Mothers:
	1 = Under 25	1 = Under 25
	2 = 25-39	2 = 25-34
	3 = 40-50	3 = 35-44
	4 = Over 50	4 = Over 45
<b>Lives in Scotland</b>	1 = Lives in Scotland	
	0 = Does not live in Scotland	



**Table A49. Regression results (odds ratios): Parents in employment.**

	Fathers	Mothers
<b>Lone parenthood status</b> (Reference category = Not lone parent)		
Lone parent	0.2 ***	0.6 ***
<b>Highest qualification</b> (Reference category = School)		
Post school	1.8 ***	1.7 ***
Other	0.6 ***	0.6 ***
None	0.3 ***	0.2 ***
<b>Number of dependent children</b> (Reference category = One)		
Two	1.1 n.s.	0.8 ***
Three or more	0.6 ***	0.3 ***
<b>Age of youngest child</b> (Reference category = 0-2)		
3-4	1.1 n.s.	1 n.s.
5-11	1 n.s.	1.5 ***
12-18	1.1 n.s.	1.9 ***
<b>Age of parent (fathers)</b> (Reference category = 25-39)		
Under 25	0.3 ***	
40-50	1.2 ***	
Over 50	0.6 ***	
<b>Age of parent (mothers)</b> (Reference category = 25-34)		
Under 25		0.4 ***
35-44		1.4 ***
Over 45		1.2 ***
<b>Lives in Scotland</b> (Reference category = Lives in rest of UK)		
Lives in Scotland	1.2 **	1.1 **
<b>Measures of model fit</b>		
LR Chi <sup>2</sup>	1913.2 ( <i>p</i> <.000)	6875.3 ( <i>p</i> <.000)
Pseudo-R <sup>2</sup>	0.09	0.14

Significance levels: n.s. = not significant, \*=*p*<0.05, \*\*=*p*<0.01, \*\*\*=*p*<0.001

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Table A49 shows the odds ratios<sup>28</sup> obtained from a logistic regression model predicting the probability of being in employment. All of the explanatory variables were found to be significant, with the exception of the age of the youngest child in the case of fathers, and the direction of the effects was largely as might be expected. Measures of model fit show that the overall model is significant (i.e. the full model is a better fit than an intercept-only model without the explanatory variables), and that the degree of variation in the dependent variable that is explained by the model is relatively low, but higher for mothers than for fathers.

Educational level has a positive impact on the probability of employment; relative to those with school level qualifications (A-levels, GCSEs, or equivalents), those with post-school qualifications are more likely to be in employment, and those with other qualifications or no qualifications are less likely. The magnitude of these differences is very similar for mothers and fathers; having no qualifications reduces the odds of being in employment by 70-80% compared with those with post-school. In other words, the odds of being in employment for a mother with no qualifications are only 20% as high as mothers with school-level qualifications, and 30% as high for fathers.

The impact of the number and age of dependent children varies by gender. For fathers, having two children rather than one makes no difference to the odds of employment, although having three or more reduces the odds somewhat, by around 40% (i.e. for fathers with three or more children, the odds of being in employment are only 60% of the odds of being in work for those with one child). For mothers, employment becomes increasingly unlikely the more children there are in the family, and having three or more children reduces the odds of employment relative to having only one child to around 30%. The impact of age of youngest child is different for males and females. For fathers this makes no significant difference at all. For mothers, the odds of being in employment start to increase after their youngest child turns five, and increase further for those with children over 12.

The age of the parents themselves was found to have a significant effect on the odds of being in employment, with parents under 25 having lower odds of being in employment than those over 25. Living in Scotland, relative to living in the rest of the UK, was also found to have a positive impact, with women in Scotland around 10% more likely to be in employment and men 20% more likely.

Even after controlling for all of these factors, being a lone parent was found to have significant and negative impact on the probability of employment. This therefore provides some evidence that differences in employment rates are not simply due to demographic or human capital differences between lone and couple parents, although this small model is unlikely to have controlled completely for all the salient differences between them. The effect of lone parenthood is much

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<sup>28</sup> The odds ratio is the odds of an event occurring in the presence of some condition, divided by the odds of it occurring in the absence of this condition. For example, the odds ratio on 'Lone parent' in Table A49 is the odds of being in employment if a parent is a lone parent, divided by the odds of being in employment if a parent is not a lone parent. If lone parenthood did not affect the odds of being in employment, then the odds ratio would be 1, because the odds of employment for lone and couple parents would be identical. If lone parenthood had a positive effect on the odds of employment, then the odds ratio would be greater than 1, because the odds of a lone parent being in employment would be greater than the odds of a couple parent being in employment. However, in this case lone parenthood has a negative impact on the odds of employment, and the odds ratio is less than 1, so the odds are that a lone parent will be less likely to be in employment.

larger for fathers; this is likely to be due to the fact that couple fathers have a very high probability of employment, and the relative difference between couple and lone fathers is larger than the difference between lone and couple mothers.

In addition to considering the probability of employment, two further models were estimated to investigate the impact of lone parenthood on job status; one estimating the probability of being in a professional or managerial job, and another estimating the probability of being in a routine or manual job. Looking at predictors of job status addresses two questions that are related, but not necessarily the same; what is holding lone parents back from professional jobs, and what is keeping them trapped in routine and manual jobs.

Table A50 shows the odds ratios obtained from a logistic regression model predicting the probability of being in a professional or managerial job. Measures of model fit show that the model is significant, and that around a fifth of the variation in the dependent variable is explained by these predictor variables. From the coefficient estimates it is clear, unsurprisingly, that qualifications are the driving factor in whether a person is in a professional or managerial job; the odds are six or seven times higher for those with post-school qualifications relative to those who have obtained only school-level qualifications. However, the significance of other variables in the models shows that, even among those with post-school qualifications, other factors influence their probability of being in a professional or managerial job. The odds decrease for mothers the more children there are in the family, although the same is not true of fathers, who are most likely to be in a professional job if they have two children.

Age of child is insignificant for fathers, but for mothers it is significant and the direction of the effect is perhaps initially surprising, as the odds decrease with age of youngest child, suggesting that those with a youngest child aged 0-2 are most likely to be in a professional job. This may seem counter-intuitive, but it may be because those in professional jobs are most likely to be able to afford the childcare to return to work, which is most expensive when children are in this age group, as staff ratios are at their smallest and it is before the free part-time entitlement begins.

The age of the parent themselves is significant, and unsurprisingly the odds of being in a professional job increase with age. Living in Scotland relative to living in the rest of the UK was found to decrease the odds of being in a professional job by around 20% for both mothers and fathers.

The impact of lone parenthood itself is significant, negative, and the same size for both mothers and fathers, reducing the odds of being in a professional job by around 30%.

**Table A50. Regression results (odds ratios): Parents in a professional or managerial job.**

	Fathers	Mothers
<b>Lone parenthood status</b> (Reference category = Not lone parent)		
Lone parent	0.7 **	0.7 ***
<b>Highest qualification</b> (Reference category = School)		
Post school	6.4 ***	7.0 ***
Other	0.3 ***	0.6 ***
None	0.3 ***	0.4 ***
<b>Number of dependent children</b> (Reference category = One)		
Two	1.2 ***	0.8 ***
Three or more	1.0 n.s.	0.7 ***
<b>Age of youngest child</b> (Reference category = 0-2)		
3-4	1.0 n.s.	0.8 **
5-11	1.0 n.s.	0.7 ***
12-18	1.0 n.s.	0.6 ***
<b>Age of parent (fathers)</b> (Reference category = 25-39)		
Under 25	0.3 ***	
40-50	1.4 ***	
Over 50	1.5 ***	
<b>Age of parent (mothers)</b> (Reference category = 25-34)		
Under 25		0.3 ***
35-44		1.7 ***
Over 45		1.8 ***
<b>Lives in Scotland</b> (Reference category = Lives in rest of UK)		
Lives in Scotland	0.8 ***	0.8 ***
<b>Measures of model fit</b>		
LR Chi <sup>2</sup>	6975.9 ( <i>p</i> <0.000)	6867.3 ( <i>p</i> <0.000)
Pseudo-R <sup>2</sup>	0.20	0.20

Significance levels: n.s. = not significant, \*=p<0.05, \*\*=p<0.01, \*\*\*=p<0.001.

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

Table A51 shows the odds ratios obtained from a logistic regression model predicting the probability of being in a routine or manual job. Although the model is significant, the pseudo-R<sup>2</sup> value suggests that this set of predictor variables is not as strong as they were at predicting being in a professional job. As with the previous model, level of qualification was found to be important, but the magnitude of impact was less. Age was also important, with those under 25 considerably more likely to be in routine or manual jobs. Having three or more dependent children increases the odds for mothers,

while for fathers number of children does not make a huge difference, but the odds of being in a routine or manual job are slightly lower for those with more than one child. Age of youngest child is not significant for fathers, but for mothers, the odds of being in a routine or manual job are higher for those with children of primary or secondary school age relative to those with younger children. This may be because, as established above in the model predicting employment participation, mothers are more likely to work when their youngest child starts school; those entering the workforce at this stage may be more likely to be moving into a routine or manual job. Both mothers and fathers living in Scotland are more likely to be in a routine or manual job relative to those elsewhere in the UK.

The impact of lone parenthood on the odds of being in a routine or manual job is significant and positive for both mothers and fathers. The effect is twice as strong for mothers; lone parenthood increases the odds by 60%, compared to 30% for fathers.

**Table A51. Regression results (odds ratios): Parents in a routine or manual job.**

	Fathers	Mothers
<b>Lone parenthood status</b> (Reference category = Not lone parent)		
Lone parent	1.3 *	1.6 ***
<b>Highest qualification</b> (Reference category = School)		
Post school	0.2 ***	0.2 ***
Other	2.3 ***	2.8 ***
None	2.1 ***	4.1 ***
<b>Number of dependent children</b> (Reference category = One)		
Two	0.8 ***	1 n.s.
Three or more	0.9 *	1.3 ***
<b>Age of youngest child</b> (Reference category = 0-2)		
3-4	1.0 n.s.	1.1 n.s.
5-11	1.1 n.s.	1.4 ***
12-18	1.1 n.s.	1.6 ***
<b>Age of parent (fathers)</b> (Reference category = 25-39)		
Under 25	2.7 ***	
40-50	0.6 ***	
Over 50	0.6 ***	
<b>Age of parent (mothers)</b> (Reference category = 25-34)		
Under 25		2.3 ***
35-44		0.5 ***
Over 45		0.5 ***
<b>Lives in Scotland</b> (Reference category = Lives in rest of UK)		
Lives in Scotland	1.2 ***	1.3 ***
<b>Measures of model fit</b>		
LR Chi <sup>2</sup>	4861.7 ( <i>p</i> <0.000)	4877.8 ( <i>p</i> <0.000)
Pseudo-R <sup>2</sup>	0.16	0.16

Significance levels: n.s. = not significant, \*=p<0.05, \*\*=p<0.01, \*\*\*=p<0.001.

Source: Annual Population Survey Household Dataset, 2011.

## Appendix 5: Interview and focus group questionnaires

### Interview topic guide

#### 1. Family situation, childbearing and partnership history

##### 1.1. Your household now

Who do you live with? (*Prompt: number of children and ages. Any other adults and relationship to respondent*)

Do you have caring responsibilities for anyone who does not live in your household? (*Prompt: Someone else's child(ren)? Another adult – family member, friend, neighbour?*)

(If yes) What care do you provide? (*Prompt for activities and how much time spent per week*)

##### 1.2. Entry into lone parenthood

How old are you now?

How old were you when you had your first child?

Were you in a relationship with the child's father at this time? (If not married) Were you living with the child's father?

(If not lone parent from the start) When did you become a lone parent for first time?

Since becoming a lone parent for the first time, have you had any spells of not being a lone parent? (*Prompt for details of repartnering, subsequent separations, etc.*)

(If yes) When did your current spell of lone parenthood start?

Does/do your child/children have contact with their father? If so what is the nature of this contact? (*Prompt for frequency, type, overnight stays*)

How would you describe your relationship with the child(ren)'s father?

##### 1.3. Accommodation and neighbourhood

Do you live in a rented property or do you own/mortgage it? (Or tenure of parents if living with them). If rent – who do you rent from? (*Prompt: a housing association, the council, or a private landlord or letting company*)

(If not lone parent since birth of first child) Did you move home when you became a lone parent?

Was it to the same size, or a bigger or smaller house?

How many times have you moved house since your (first) child was born?

(If has moved) What were the main reasons for this/these move(s)? Was this/were these move(s) to a different neighbourhood/city/area/country? What impact did this have on your life?

Are you happy with where you're living now? (*Prompt: property and area*)

Do you have family within walking distance? What about friends? Do you have neighbours that help you out? (If neighbours don't help) Do you speak to your neighbours?

(optional) What is your postcode? (*Can provide this minus last two letters if preferred.*)

## **1.4. Health**

Do you have any problems with your health? (*Prompt for chronic/long-standing conditions and disabilities, mental health as well as physical, if treatment received*)

(If yes) How do these affect your life? (*Prompt: what activities does it stop you doing, what kind of work can/can't you do, have you ever had to refuse or give up a job because of it?*)

Does/do your child/children have any problems with their health? (*Prompt for severity/impact on family life and ability to work*)

## **2. Employment**

### **2.1. School**

When did you leave school?

Did you get any qualifications at school? Have you gained any since school? Are you doing any kind of education or training at the moment?

Did you want to gain (better) qualifications at school? What might have helped you to obtain (better) qualifications at school?

Do you feel differently about qualifications and training now? Are you currently undertaking any training or doing any qualifications? (If not) What might help you to obtain qualifications/undertake training now?

### **2.2. Employment status and history**

Since leaving school, how many paid jobs have you had?

(For each job) What did you do? (*Prompt for job title/description, hours, location.*) What did you like/dislike about it? How long did you work there for? What was your main reason for stopping working there? Would you want to return to this kind of work in the future?

(If worked since having kids) How easy was it to reconcile this job with looking after children? Was it part-time and/or flexible hours? (If mentioned partner at some point) Did you have a partner at this point and did that make a difference?

### **2.3. Attitudes and barriers to work**

Has having children changed the way you feel about working and about the kind of job you might like to do? Do you feel differently now your children are getting older than you did when they were very young? When do you think the time is right for you to go back to work?

What are the advantages of being in work (perceived or from experience of work if present)? (*Prompt for financial, personal, social, other*)

How important do you think it is to be in work? (*Prompt: depends on age of children, other things?*)

What kind of work would you like to do in the future and why? (*Prompt for specific job as well as more general things like desired hours and other conditions*). Do you think you will find this kind of job?



(If does not think they will find the kind of job they want) Why do you think you will not find the job that you want? *(Prompt for personal characteristics – qualifications, experience, confidence – and practical limitations – childcare, transport)*

How far would you be willing to travel for a job you wanted? Do you have access to a car? How reliable and affordable is the public transport around where you live?

Do you think that there are jobs available in your local area that you could do?

(If they are available) Would anything stop you from taking these jobs? What help might you need to get these jobs?

(If no jobs available) If a job came up in your local area, what would stop you from taking it? What help would you need?

Do you think the government does enough to help lone parents overcome the difficulties they might have in getting into work?

Do you think that people who are not lone parents understand the barriers that lone parents face in reconciling work and care? Do you think this comes across fairly in media coverage of lone parents?

#### **2.4. Job seeking activities**

Have you been looking for work?

(If so) For how long? How have you looked for work? Is anyone helping you to look for work?

(If friends/family etc.) How do they help? How useful do you find this support?

(If formal services) Which employment services have you used *(Prompt for JCP, Work Programme, OPFS/Gingerbread programmes, other specific lone parent schemes, Glasgow Works/JBG programmes, other general employment services)*? What support did they offer you? What did you find useful? Did you feel that the people who designed or provided these services understood your needs as a lone parent looking for work? What could have been improved? After accessing these services how (much more) likely did you feel it would be to get a job?

(If currently participating in a programme that places them under some conditionality) What obligations to look for work do you have as part of your participation in JSA/Work Programme? What impact have these obligations had? Is meeting these obligations a source of stress, or a source of motivation, or both?

(If not used any formal services) Why not? *(Prompt: not been offered, been offered but decided it wasn't for you, other reasons)*

(If no employability services) What about basic skills classes or other types of support aimed at parents (might have mentioned this before when asked about training)? Have you done anything like that? (If used) Have you found it helpful? *(Prompt: building confidence, improving literacy, etc)* Has it made you feel differently about work?

#### **2.5. Childcare**

Has your youngest child started school?

Do you use any childcare (outside of school if started)? *(Anything from a babysitter to formal daycare, and including summer schemes and after-school – prompt type, hours and cost)*

(If never used) Why not? *(Prompt reasons: cost, availability, inadequate hours/flexibility, doesn't meet requirements, child doesn't want to go, I don't want/need to)*. What might make you want to use childcare?

Do you think the current childcare system meets the needs of lone parents?

### **3. Managing financially**

#### **3.1. Income adequacy**

How would you say you are managing financially? (*Prompt: ok, struggling but getting by, really struggling...*)

Do you have trouble meeting housing costs like rent and bills?

Do you struggle to afford basics like food and clothes?

Do you have debts that you are struggling to pay? (If so) What kind of debt do you have?

Are there things you think your children should have but you cannot afford?

And (how) has being a lone parent changed your financial situation?

Do you find that securing a sufficient income is a source of anxiety to you?

Do you feel that you would be financially better off in work?

#### **3.2. Sources of income**

What different sources of income does your household have? (*Prompt: benefits and tax credits, maintenance, help from family, other*)

Have you had any other sources of income in the past?

Have you had any changes to your sources of income recently? (*e.g. bedroom tax, benefit cap, switch from IS, changes to incapacity benefits*)

Do you think that the current system of financial support for lone parents meets your needs?

What if any are the main problems with the way that the government supports lone parent households?

### **4. Concluding**

Is there anything that we have not talked about today that you feel is important with regard to your experiences of work, looking for work or being on JSA?

## Focus group topic guide

### 1. Looking for work

#### 1.1. Job-seeking

We'd like to know about your experiences of looking for work as a lone parent.

How do you look for work?

Who helps you and how?

What services have you used that help you find work or increase your chances of getting a job, e.g.:

- Jobcentre Plus or the Work Programme
- Jobs and Business Glasgow Adult Employability Service or other employment service
- placements such as Marks and Start, etc.
- training to develop basic or vocational skills

Have you found these useful?

Where did/can you go to find out about the help that is available to you in finding a job?

#### 1.2. Barriers to work

How optimistic are you about finding a job?

Personal barriers:

If a job came up in your local area, and childcare was available etc., what would stop you from taking it? (*Probe for qualifications, experience, confidence, health, etc.*)

Situational barriers:

Do you think that there are jobs available in your local area that you could do?

How far would you be willing to travel for a job you wanted? Do you have access to a car? How reliable and affordable is the public transport around where you live?

What is the childcare provision like in your area – is there enough, is it affordable, do you use it, if not why not?

What sort of job are you looking for? (*Probe for particular job, working hours, location, etc.*)

Has having children changed the way you feel about working and about the kind of job you might like to do?

Do you feel differently now your children are getting older than you did when they were very young?

When do you think the time is right for you to go back to work?

### 2. The JSA regime

(For those who are about to move onto JSA) What are you expecting when you move onto JSA?

Do you think it will make you more likely to move into work?

(If anyone has moved onto JSA) We'd like to know about how you have found moving onto JSA:

- Are your advisor interviews helpful? Does your advisor understand your situation?
- Are the obligations you have about looking for work achievable? Were these relaxed because you are a lone parent (e.g. right to restrict hours to part-time)?
- Have you had any experience of sanctions?

### **3. Reconciling work and care as a lone parent**

(If anyone has worked as a lone parent) How easy did you find it to reconcile work and care? What were the main difficulties? What did you like about being in work?

(For all – perceived or known benefits/challenges) What do you think are the benefits of being in work? (*Probe for financial, social, personal, good for children, other*)

What do you think the main challenges are/would be?

What support would you need/rely on to help you balance work and care? (*Probe for both formal services and informal help from family, friends, etc.*)

### **4. Final thoughts**

Would you say it is hard to manage as lone parent on Income Support?

Do you feel that you would be better off financially in work?

How could the support available to lone parents be better?

Do you think the government does enough to help lone parents overcome the difficulties they might have in getting into work?