

DETERMINANTS OF PATERNITY LEAVE IN MALAWI PUBLIC SERVICE

MASTER OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT THESIS

GILBERT ADZAFUNIKA KAPONDA

UNIVERSITY OF MALAWI

SEPTEMBER 2021



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MASTER OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT THESIS

By

GILBERT ADZAFUNIKA KAPONDA

B A (HRM) and B.Ed. – University of Malawi

Submitted to the Faculty of Social Science in partial fulfilment of the requirements of
an award of the Degree of Master of Public Administration and Management

University of Malawi

September 2020

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned hereby declare that this thesis is my own original work which has not been submitted to any other institution for similar purposes. Where other people's work has been used, acknowledgments have been made.

Full Legal Name

Signature

Date

CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

The undersigned certify that this thesis represents the student's own work and effort and has been submitted with our approval.

Signature _____ Date _____

Mustafa Hussein, PhD (Associate Professor)

First Supervisor

Signature _____ Date _____

Dan Banik, PhD (Professor)

Second Supervisor

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my three children: Christina, Angel, and Orama, abbreviated as Tiangelo (meaning little angels), my wife Kettie, Mum (Bertha) and Dad (M^c Donnell) who always trust me. Thank you that you believed in my project on paternity leave and the need to have it in the family-work life policies and practices. I know that you are all proud of this. I also know that I denied you the life of enjoyment and merry because of my concentration on this project in the past two years. All that denial was simply to achieve this goal of earning this Master's degree. Thank you that you gave me the chance. To God Almighty, who gives wisdom and knowledge! Thank you, my friend and my energy for being my Pillar of Fire. God, you guided my way out when I got lost and frustrated due to the pressures of this project. God! You are my anchor and source of my success.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

“Many incredible people deserve more than just verbal recognition” (Rosa, 2010).

My supervisors; Associate Professor Dr. Mustafa Hussein and my Professor Dan Banik truly and honestly demonstrated profound mentorship and academic companionship. They have been patient with me. They positively and constructively advised me all the way through. Their wisdom and nurturing hearts carried me through. Thank you! Vote of thanks should go to the Head of Department and all the Senior Lecturers in the post-graduate teaching team in the Department of Political and Administrative Studies (PAS) of the University of Malawi-Chancellor College. The same should extend to the Secretary Ms. Kalidozo.

I would also like to thank the Heads of my research sites. They were supportive by providing me the consent to interact with them. I utilized their official staff records. Especially, I thank The Speaker and Clerk of the Parliament of Malawi, and Mrs. Banda (HRMO - Parliament of Malawi). These wonderful people quickly recognized the need to undertake this study on paternity leave that could feed into the social policy debate. Thanksgiving should go to The Ombudsman and Miss Ellen Chakuamba, the Principal of Chancellor College (University of Malawi), the Chief Executive Officer and Tessah Phoya Lipanda of Southern Region Water-Board. From Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources, my vote of thanks should go to the Registrar, Mrs. Phiri (Secretary), and Dr. Felix Maulidi (Senior Lecturer). I recognize the mentorship of Dr. Esmie Kainja (Chief Director -Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development).

ABSTRACT

The paper highlights that despite paternity leave missing in the legal and policy documents in Malawi, there are variations in uptake and implementation within public sector institutions. Being a developed countries' concept in its orientation, some developing countries and other public sector institutions see pursuance of paternity leave as an important gender-justice debate. This mixed-method's study utilized rational choice and gender theoretical frameworks. A population of 1,138 working fathers (those with their own biological or adopted children) was targeted across five purposively sampled institutions namely: Chancellor College, Southern Region Water Board, Office of the Ombudsman, Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources and Parliament of Malawi. Forty-five (45) systematically sampled non-paternity leave takers, eight (8) paternity leave takers and eight (8) human resource officers were sampled for the study. Primary data was therefore collected using semi-structured self-administered questionnaires. The analysis revealed that the legal and policy frameworks decrease paternity leave uptake by not being clear on leave duration, pay arrangements, and provision of awareness. Socio-economically, there are income inequalities (measured using the Gini Index and Lorenz Curve) that indicate that officers on lower cadres did not see the importance of paternity leave. However, paternity leave promoted family bonding, and workplace productivity. However, low paternity leave uptake was amongst many reasons, challenged by selective policy administration and pre-occupation of officers.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

EU	European Union
HRM	Human Resource Management
MK	Malawi Kwacha
NIPECD	National Integrated Policy on Early Childhood Development
PAS	Political and Administrative Studies

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter sets a background to the study on determinants of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service. It provides the context and scope of the research on paternity leave. The research background and problem statement are offered in this chapter. Later, the aim and specific objectives of the study are given. Lastly, the study provides a justification for undertaking this project, followed by an outline of the thesis and its conclusion. The birth of the child in a family is a crucial moment in the crystallization of gendered parental responsibilities (Nkatane, 2017; Castro-Garcia and Pazos-Moran, 2015). Parents have to aptly balance family and workplace responsibilities. Such responsibilities compel one to provide financial, physical, emotional, social, and material support. These tasks search deeply into the availability and involvement of both parents in sharing childcare responsibilities. Birth or adoption of a child challenges parents' employment-related arrangements such as taking paternity and maternity leave. For working mothers, taking maternity leave, is more obvious, originally intended for the physical healing (Ryder, 2014). Such intention obviously, does not apply to fathers. However, male involvement at this moment is paramount as a way of offering the support to both the new born child and the mother (Kululanga et al. 2012). Paternity leave implies time-off from paid work by a male employee immediately after the birth or adoption of a child (Dearing, 2016). However, there are variations in the way fathers patronise paternity leave. Moss (2014: 10) lamented that "fathers' take-up

of childcare leave is still very low”, though childcare uptake has not been enumerated in Malawi from literature so far consulted.

1.2 Background

Historically, men had been associated with workplace responsibilities while the home and child-care tasks were considered as belonging to women (Gislason, 2010). Such stereotypes postulated that women only were primarily entrusted with childcare while men were entitled to breadwinning. Govender (2015: 5) highlighted that “the focus has been on providing women, as primary caregivers, with measures to combine work and care. Less focus has been on finding legislative means to assist fathers with the combination of work and care.” Drew et al. (2003) and Hatchell (2010) argued that the customary role played by fathers in the 21st Century is that of the breadwinner. By its rudimentary premise, the breadwinner theory suggests that men should be at work and earn a sufficient wage to support a family while women should engage in unpaid labour and care. Based on that thinking, men have been given a significant consideration on how to support their families.

In an attempt to implode the stereotypes that usher male and female into their gender confinements, many labour policies and legislative reforms have been employed (Unterhofer and Wrohlich, 2017). Labour force practices and policies promote traditional norms within the male breadwinner model (Australian Government, 2017). Govender (2015: 5) noted that “legislative change in many countries has made progress in redressing gender inequality in the labour market arising from caregiving responsibilities”. Australian Government (2017: 3) reports that “women’s increasing workforce participation and the decline of the male breadwinner model” is likely

changing the gender-specific specializations around unpaid care like caring for the newly born child and paid work”. Australian Government (2017) further highlights that more women are joining the workforce, hence providing for the family depends on both parents. “Research on time use shows that as women have taken on more responsibilities outside the home, particularly in the labour force, men’s participation in care work and domestic work has for the most part, not kept up” (Mencare Advocacy, 2015: 35). A family therefore, needs to make a rational decision or choice in order to provide enough support for the child's growth. The whole idea is to agitate an adoption of gender equity in childcare.

Today’s family-care responsibility is a task for both fathers and mothers in line with what is called quality of work life. Limani (2019: 4) explains that “quality of work life is the favourableness or un-favourableness of the total job environment for employees. It is a process of achieving a balance between work and job demands so that both personal needs of the employee and organisation goals are mutually achieved.” Limani (2019) brings in a crucial debate of work-life balance which, from literature so far consulted, suffers scholarly and policy support in Malawi. Therefore, quality of work life seeks to develop jobs and work conditions that are excellent to the employee, their family, and the organisation.

The Charter of Fundamental Social Rights in SADC (2003), highlights that “member states shall create an enabling environment consistent with ILO Conventions on discrimination and equality...so that...reasonable measures are developed to enable men and women to reconcile their occupational and family obligations” (Smit, 2011: 3). Yet, no clear guidelines or directives are given to assist member states in achieving

this objective nor are there any mechanisms in place to assess whether member states are indeed making progress in terms of policy formulation and implementation.

The Constitution of the Republic of Malawi (1994) in Section 13 (a) (i) and (iii) indicates that “the State shall actively promote the welfare and development of the people of Malawi by progressively adopting and implementing policies and legislation aimed at achieving gender equality for women with men through the implementation of policies to address social issues”. Examples of social issues highlighted in the Constitution of the Republic of Malawi (1994: 11) include “domestic violence, security of the person, lack of maternity benefits, economic exploitation, and rights to property”. However, a mention of paternity leave or its corresponding benefits is missing in this section and the whole Constitution of the Republic of Malawi. Such missing can be noticed as well in the Malawi Labour Law (1996), Workman’s Compensation Act (2006), and the Employment Act (2000). Such absence in Section 13 of paternity benefits to match those of maternity benefits, is a clear departure of the Constitution from its own dictate of non-discrimination that “the implementation of the principles of non-discrimination and such other measures as may be required” (Constitution of the Republic of Malawi, 1994: 11).

It is clear that another issue missing in the Constitution of Malawi is paternity leave. The National Gender Policy (2015) asserts that gender equality is the basic human rights and developmental issue. The notion of gender equity in childcare is a debate on work-life balance. Such notion emerged from an overarching gender order which attached masculinity and femininity to distinct spheres of home and workplace orientations. Paternity leave is often discussed as a measure to encourage greater gender

equality both in the family and the labour market. However, fathers' involvement affects children in much the same ways that mothers' involvement does (UNICEF, 2018; and Levto et al. 2015). UNICEF (2018) and Mencare Advocacy (2015) sink well with what Axelsson (2014) contends that although leave policies are important instruments for changing attitudes and practices related to social problems such as family-work balance, there are still unequal gender relations.

1.3 Problem Statement

Malawi is among developing countries and, is a member of SADC. She is amongst the poorest countries, both globally and among developing countries (The Heritage Foundation, 2019). Based on the recent ranking, Malawi is positioned at number 34th out of 47 Sub-Sahara African countries (The Heritage Foundation, 2019). This ranking shows that her economic freedom has been held back by many factors amongst which is gender inequality. Her overall score is below the regional and world averages. Such decisions are therefore reflected in the way both men and women value work-family life experiences and subsequently implement corresponding work-family policies and practices. All this evidence affirms that income is not enough to support a household in family needs including care for children and relatives.

International Monetary Fund Country Report, (2017: 13) further contends that “50.7 percent of the population lives below the poverty line and 25 percent living in extreme poverty”. This means that a large part of Malawi's population, whether employed or unemployed, are poor. Malawi remains an outlier in terms of income poverty even when compared to its peers that are geographically and demographically similar, and were at a similar stage of development in 1995 (International Monetary Fund Country Report,

2017). Recent reports indicate that the economic situation in Malawi has greatly worsened (The Heritage Foundation, 2019: 286). Mussa and Masanjala (2015: 10) lamented that “nationally, wealth inequality has worsened over time and is worse than inequality in consumption”.

Income facilitates choices that an individual can make in the face of available alternatives. Agbenyo et al. (2017) expounded that income remains an important measure of economic access to goods and services. Though there has been an increase in the disposable amount of money per household in a year, the change and its corresponding amount is very minimal to sustain a family. The economic enablement of a working man or woman has a bearing on any decision on how to support their families. Disposable income varied significantly between 2004 and 2011 thereby widely opening a gap between the rich and the poor. “The richest 10% of Malawians spent 34 times more than the poorest 10%” (Mussa and Masanjala, 2015: 9). World Bank Report (2018) indicates that in 2010, the basket value indicator of rural Malawi was MK37, 000. The report further highlighted that half of the population was classified as poor using a basic needs basket per person per year in a household of 4 members. In 2015, the cost of living in both rural and urban areas had risen (Danish Trade Council for International Development and Cooperation, 2016) such that many workers were receiving less than MK 44,000 per month (US\$62). Such a wage was far lower than the basic food basket of a household with an average size of five members. Just recently, a 2018 Population and Housing Survey for Malawi conducted by the National Statistics Office revealed that K71, 277 (US\$101) is an income available for a household with an average size of 4.5 members (Government of Malawi, 2018).

Globally, there has been an evolution in labour-market trends. Moss (2014: 3) attests that despite the global economic downturn, work-life balance continues to be of great importance for societies because more and more countries women's labour force participation has increased. Many women now join the labour force (Unterhofer and Wrohlich, 2017). Smit (2011: 4) recognizes that "during the past three decades the female labour market participation rate has remained above 60 per cent ... trend also prevails in the SADC countries in particular. The average labour force participation rate of women in the SADC region being at 66 per cent in 2008. Therefore, some men decide taking time-off the job. One of such time-off the job arrangement is paternity leave.

Separate studies by Govender (2015) and, Kanyongolo and Mangani (2011) offered an impetus for researching on paternity leave in Malawi as a work-life balance project. These authors noted that there are very few or no legislated work protected leave policies for fathers within Southern African Development Community (SADC)'s countries like Malawi. The following developing countries like "Mozambique, Tanzania, the Democratic Republic of Congo, are the only SADC member states which have legislation granting men short-term job-protected paternity leave (Smit, 2010). In Mozambique, fathers have the right to take one day paid leave following the birth of a child, while men in the DRC and Tanzania are granted three days' paternity leave. "... only three other countries on the African continent make provision for paid paternity leave, i.e. Algeria; Rwanda; and Tunisia" (Smit, 2010: 15). In South East Asia, Philippines and Indonesia are examples of countries that offer legislated paternity leave (Addati et al. 2014; Smit, 2010). In extension to the debate on the lack of paternity leave, more research on paternity leave policy has been done in developed countries than in developing countries. Literature shows that more research on paternity leave

policy has been done in developed countries than in developing countries. Mun and Brinton (2015) concluded that policies to render employment and family more compatible have been adopted in many post-industrial countries like those in the United States of America and in the Scandinavian region. Few countries in the developing world provide paternity leave (Govender, 2015; Smit, 2010). Smit (2010: 3) is very particulate by emphasizing that “although SADC has various protocols on matters such as firearms, health and education, there is however, little effort to address policy matters which may support working parents”.

Having paternity leave is considered as a workplace’s benefit. Such a notion is also advanced by Motaung et al. (2017: 10) that “paternity leave is ... only utilised as a benefit within the family responsibility leave category for fathers.” However, for a long period, there has been an absence of the paternity leave provisions in the Malawi’s Employment Act (2000) and, the Republican Constitution (1994). The policy statement granting paternity leave is missing because, as Kanyongolo and Mangani (2011) noted, there aren’t any specific legislated paternity leave provisions in Malawi. Instead, paternity leave is being practised in some Malawian public institutions as a type of leave within workplace conditions of service. Kululunga et al. (2012) posit that paternity leave does not enjoy much support in Malawi than maternity leave. Lack of paternity leave can be considered as discriminatory against men (Marius, 2013).

There are institutional differences that are visible in the adoption and implementation of various policies and other legal documents in Malawi. Despite the silence of Malawi Public Service Regulations and the 2000 Employment Act, other institutions still provide paternity leave. Such is a paradox that exists related to paternity leave in

Malawi, and is the basis for this research paper. Institutions differently arrange their own collective agreement as enshrined in their conditions of service. Addati et al. (2014: 58) enunciates that “fathers in a number of countries enjoy paternity leave provided through collective bargaining agreements instead of, or in certain cases, beyond legislated provisions.” It is of value to understand factors that determine implementation of paternity leave in these institutions. What are the causes of men taking or not taking paternity leave? Could they be administrative, socio-economic, political or cultural factors? How has taking paternity leave affected the work and family life experiences of family members and other employees?

1.4 Aim of the Study

The aim of this study is to understand the determinants of paternity leave in Malawi’s Public service. The idea is to come up with a full understanding of the factors driving the decision of providing, taking or not taking paternity leave. In the process, life experiences are known at the workplace and family level after the birth or adoption of a new child.

1.4.1 Specific Objectives

This study is being conducted against the foregoing research objectives and research questions:

1. Assess factors that influence men in taking or not taking paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service.
2. Assess the effects of paternity leave practice on workplace and family life of Malawi’s public servants.

3. Analyse the legal/policy framework governing leave administration in the Malawi Public Service.
4. Analyse challenges affecting the implementation of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service.

1.4.2 Study questions

The umbrella and guiding question this research seeks to answer is: What determines paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service? What is the evidence for the assertion that there are differences in the provision and access of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service? In order to handle this research, four specific questions are considered. These questions include the following;

1. Which factors influence men to take or not take paternity leave in Malawi's public service?
2. How does paternity leave affect the workplace and public servants' family lives in Malawi?
3. How does the legal and policy framework govern the administration of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service?
4. How has implementation of paternity leave been challenged by management and workmates of institutions in the Malawi Public Service?

1.5 Justification

Burgeoning literature suggests an increase in paternity leave in developed countries (ILO, 2010). However, literature so far consulted from developing countries does not clearly give the extent of intake of paternity leave. Furthermore, factors that drive the

decision to take or not take paternity leave are not clearly coming out. Therefore, this study will provide some evidence on determinants of taking or not taking paternity leave within the Public Service in Malawi.

Malawi has many laws, policies and workplace practices. These include; the Malawi National Gender Policy, the Employment Act (2000) and various workplace's conditions of service. So, do these instruments and workplace-related policies advance a space and provision in terms of paternity leave? Do men take part in childcare immediately after birth or adoption of a new baby? These questions probe into the legal and policy framework while making an analysis of the policy-practice inter-relatedness. These questions search into the relationship between family /work-life policies and practice in developing countries such as Malawi. This project is conducted in order to provide new insights into how to re-engineer public administration practices that adequately support work-life balance, especially paternity leave in developing countries.

Understanding the determinants of paternity leave is critical in driving gender equity even in work-life balance policies and practices like paternity and maternity leave. It adds value to the gender equality debate within work-life balance scholarship. A contribution to gender-sensitive good parenting practices is made in order to change the gender order in child-caring responsibilities. The study questions the institutional readiness, workplace conditions of service, and organizational culture to embrace work-life balance through the provision of paternity leave.

1.6 Organization of the Thesis

The thesis contains five chapters. Chapter one has since introduced the whole study. Chapter two covers literature review which highlights the scholarly and institutional documents which are relevant to paternity leave policy. In chapter three, a research methodology for this study is provided. Study findings and discussions of the process of data collection are provided in chapter four, whilst chapter five is the conclusion of this study.

1.7 Chapter Conclusion

The chapter has introduced the debate on determinants of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service. It has highlighted the background work-family responsibilities focusing at theoretical, socio-economic and policy considerations on paternity leave. In the process, the chapter has shown the research gap that compels this study to be undertaken, by emphasizing that implementation of paternity leave is varied amongst public servants and institutions in Malawi. Another paradox indicated in this chapter is that despite the absence of clear policy and legal backing, some public institutions provide their staff with paternity leave. Therefore, the chapter has outlined objectives and questions which the subsequent chapters will endeavour to answer in order to understand what determines paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service. The rationale behind this study is to add value in gender-responsive parenting for equal involvement of parents in child and family care. The other justification for conducting this study that touches on work-life balance is to re-engineer organizational practices, culture, and policies.

The debate on determinants of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service has been introduced in order to add value to male participation in childcare responsibilities. Workplace conditions of services and regulations are expected to offer a time-off the job which is called paternity leave to married male employees to provide support to a newly-born or adopted child and mother. This is an effort to address work-family life balance demands for equal involvement in child and family care. The quest for shared childcare responsibility questions the legal, policy, organisational and family boundaries as to whether they determine the taking of paternity leave or not. While it is acknowledged that paternity leave is a social policy phenomenon that is advancing gender equity, a lot of organisational reform and study has been done in developed than developing countries. Although Malawi is poor economically, some of its public service institutions provide paternity leave to its employees. As noted already that firstly, majority of Malawians are poor, authors like (Swartz et al. 2011: 3) have concluded and warned that “poverty and joblessness may separate men from their families”. Beyond that, there is another warning that “strategies to alleviate poverty focusing solely on women and children may treat men as marginal to families and inadvertently reinforce gender stereotypes” (Swartz et al 2011:3). Therefore, many countries have introduced paternity leave to encourage men’s participation in the care and education of their children. As such, this study seeks to analyse factors that influence taking or not to take paternity leave in these public service institutions in Malawi. It is an attempt to agitate a social policy change that focuses at work-life balance, and gender-responsive soft human resource management.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a review of literature on paternity leave policies, practices, and benefits in general. Literature review provides a critical analysis by using studies previously done elsewhere across the world. The review seeks to appreciate the global scholarly impetus on paternity leave. It also offers a theoretical model for debating paternity leave. It then identifies the right tools and methodologies that previous studies used which could be useful in the study. Literature review starts by providing the definition of terms that are pinnacles to this study. Furthermore, the chapter offers a review of literature in broader categories such as: factors influencing paternity leave, and effects of taking paternity leave in the workplace (where one is engaged in a form of employment) and family-life. Other categories are: experiences with the legal and policy frameworks and, challenges affecting paternity leave's implementation. A conceptual framework that suits the study on determinants of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service will be developed. Then, the research objectives will be operationalized in light of the conceptual framework.

2.2 Definition and Scope Associated with Paternity Leave

The chapter commences with definition of key terms. Firestone (1987) as cited in Creswell (2009: 40) argued that offering definitions of terms adds precision to a scientific study since with everyday language, words are rich in multiple meanings.

2.2.1 Paternity Leave

While it is difficult to come up with one common definition (Schulze and Gergoric, 2015), paternity leave is commonly understood as the leave taken by fathers, mostly in parallel with maternity leave. Furthermore, Schulze and Gergoric (2015: 16) construe paternity leave as a short period of leave specifically for the father, immediately following birth or adoption of a child. Dancaaster and Cohen (2015) endeavoured to offer a comprehensive definition arguing that paternity leave is the terminology commonly associated with a specific entitlement to leave for fathers at the time of the birth of their child. In a number of countries paternity leave is recognized as a distinct, ‘stand-alone’, gender –specific period of leave available only for fathers. The main purpose of taking paternity leave is to allow the father spend some time with the new child and his wife. This definition strongly agrees with Moss’ (2014: 2) definition that paternity leave is “leave generally available to fathers only, usually to be taken soon after the birth of a child, and intended to enable the father to spend time with his wife¹, new child, and older children”. Based on these two definitions there is a common feature where paternity leave is apportioned to a father when faced with a circumstance which is, in this case, the birth of a new child. Despite that, these definitions do not clearly stipulate the time the father should acclaim in staying at home on leave. It is from the fluidity on time limit in the definition that Moss (2014: 13) observed that paternity leave differs from maternity leave on period’s consistency, hence he calls it a “narrow definition”. As a result, organizations are so fluid (discretionary) in providing the requested number of paternity leave days according to the organization’s policy or conditions of service.

¹ In a heterosexual context of a marriage, a biological woman is the one who is considered to have the ability of giving birth to a child. However, the researcher is also mindful of the homosexual couples where one is social constructed as “wife” can have a child for their family by way of adoption. This is a fertile ground for yet another study I can embark on.

Gislason (2013) observes that paternity leave is short-term job-protected leave available to fathers in the time immediately after the birth/adoption of a child. That leave makes it possible for fathers to spend more time with their families. The definition by Gislason (2013) further notes that paternity leave allows men to spend more time outside employment. This definition is similar to that of Gislason (2010), which recognizes that the paternity leave is offered within employment conditions. The definition by Gislason (2013) focuses on employment specific type of leave and particularly the idea of job-protection. However, in another definition, O'Brien (2009) understands paternity leave as a statutory entitlement to enable a father to be absent from work when a child is born. These authors seem to agree by recognizing the fact that the leave has to be agreed based on regulations (in the form of a policy, law, or workplace practices) at the workplace. However, this definition by O'Brien fails because it does not recognize the issue of adoption which could concern the father as well. Furthermore, the definition does not stand the test of gender equality because childbirth only precludes people of same sex.

All the definitions offered so far seem to hinge on the following important elements which are; modality of implementing the leave, duration of leave (short), sector-specific (employment: public or private), and purpose with a focus on inclusiveness. The idea of purpose purports to emphasize a need to have a father at home in order to assist with childcare. Here, Jugovic (2016) argues that the purpose of paternity leave is to provide support for the spouse and the new child. However, these definitions have striking differences that widen further the debate for paternity leave. Firstly, definitions by Schulze and Gergoric (2015; and Jugovic (2016) limit paternity leave to heterosexuals because of childbirth. On the other hand, the definition by Gislason (2013) is

exhaustive. It combines the global transformations and gender issues since it recognizes the issues of adoption by homosexual couples.

2.2.2 Fatherhood

Fatherhood is viewed as the state of being a father (Longman Dictionary, 2020). Nhlanhla Mkhize writes in one of the articles that, “fatherhood is an identity project. It is intertwined with the process by which men come to an understanding of who they are ... Fatherhood does not occur in a vacuum: it is a socio-moral process informed by the dominant discourse of what it means to be a man in one’s society” (Mkhize, 2004: 3). Fatherhood focuses at “providing economically and otherwise for one’s children as a defining feature for being a man” (Mkhize, 2004: 7). Fatherhood does not only apply to biological fathers, but also social fathers who may have adopted the child (Langa, 2014). A social father could be any man who is involved in supporting the life of the child such as, the uncle, the grandfather, a brother and the men in the neighbourhood (Richter, et al. 2013).

A social father can provide not only finances, but also role modelling and other forms of support (Richter, et al. 2013). Related to fatherhood is the term fathering. Flouri (2005) and Williams (2008) noted that fathering is the presence and involvement of fathers in their children’s and family’s lives. It also involves social, developmental and economic participation in the child’s life.

2.2.3 Family

There are various definitions of family. Other authors have attempted to offer the meaning of family. “Family is a contested concept, with different cultural traditions and understandings of family prevailing within and across countries”, Bray, et al. (2015: 11) construe. Furthermore, a South African White Paper defines family as a “societal group that is related by blood (kinship), adoption, foster care or the ties of marriage (civil, customary or religious), civil union or cohabitation and goes beyond a particular physical residence” (Department of Social Development, 2012: 11). A global definition of family would be so challenging to provide due to the social constructivism of the terminology. Sociologists identify different types of families based on how one enters into them.

2.2.4 Public Service

Dube and Danescu (2011) acknowledge that the term public-sector can sometimes be ambiguous. “public sector consists of governments and all publicly controlled or publicly funded agencies, enterprises, and other entities that deliver public program’s goods, or services” (Dube and Danescu, 2011).

Republic of Malawi (2018: 2) defines and qualifies public service as “any service that is provided by government directly or indirectly using public resources or nay public interest activity that is under the authority of government.” The Constitution of the Republic of Malawi (1994) in Chapter 20 recognizes the public sector as consisting of the civil service and institutions that are established by the Act of Parliament. Though public sector was established by the Act of Parliament to offer goods and services, there are certain services that are not clearly coming out, such as offering paternity leave to

working fathers, By extension, the policy highlights that in Malawi, public service comprises institutions like: “the National Assembly or the Parliamentary Service, the Judiciary or the Judicial Service, the civil service which comprises all Government Ministries and Departments ... any corporation, Council, Board, Committee, University ...” (Republic of Malawi, 2018: 2). The public sector is the implementing agency of the state, arguing that it is a body responsible for the delivery of goods and services by or for the state (Tambulasi and Kayuni, 2013). This literature suggests that whether services are delivered or not, is credited to the state. Tambulasi and Kayuni therefore portray that the state is obliged by law to offer a set of goods and services to the people as a welfare state. Such sentiments postulated by Tambulasi and Kayuni, therefore are in tandem with the various literature and what other previously cited authors have shrewdly highlighted.

The Malawi Public Sector has many Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs). The public sector in government has Ministries, Departments, Services, Central/Provincial/Local administrations, and other institutions. Amundsen and Andrade (2009) considers the public service as comprising two core elements which are the political institutions and the administrative institutions. These two authors contend further that such two tiers of public service allow policy formulations at political level and the implementation part is left in the jurisdiction of the administrative realm of government. It is this administrative level which is also called the civil service. What is unique and thinly distinguishing the political and administrative levels is the discretionary powers which are an embodiment of bureaucracy. Such discretion is seen in the choice of policies to take, and which policies to implement as required (Amundsen and Andrade, 2009: 10).

Furthermore, public service as defined by a preliminary report of the population, housing and census (Government of Malawi, 2018), includes government institutions and their employees. But such a definition is broad as it portrays an encompassing range of “services that are provided by government directly or indirectly using public resources or any public interest activity that is under the authority of government” (Government of Malawi, 2018:8). It comprises institutions and staff that work therein. They include the National Assembly or the Parliamentary Service, the judiciary or the Judicial Service, the civil service which comprises all Government Ministries and Departments, the Defence Force, the Police Service, Local Government Authorities, and any Corporation, Council, Board, and Committee.

2.3 Determinants of paternity leave taking or not taking

A large body of research has examined the determinants of fathers’ parental leave use and gender division of the household tasks and employment inside the family. For example, (Mussino et al. 2017) compiled a number of determinants of parental father’s leave. In their study, these determinants of paternity leave were analysed on three levels. These levels were micro, meso, and macro. Micro level factors included individual and family-related socio-economic dynamics of the household which encompass income and education of the father and spouses (see Mussino et al. 2017; Sundström and Duvander, 2002). On meso-level, Mussino et al. (2017: 5) highlighted factors such as employer and co-workers’ attitudes and perceptions at the father’s workplace to an extent that in workplaces with a small-male dominance, there is a potential hindrance in the use of paternity leave (see also Brandth and Kvande, 2002). In terms of macro-level factors, numerous studies have concluded that national policy systems, socio-cultural norms of fathering and gender issues affect paternity leave take-

up (e.g. Mussino, 2017, and Valarino et al. 2015). Interestingly, Valarino et al. (2015) postulated that leave preferences mostly vary at the macro (national) level rather than at the micro (individual) level which reflects the difference in the policy schemes.

2.3.1 Socio-economic Considerations in Leave Provisioning

Parents' preferences for leave-taking do not occur in a vacuum (Wall and Arnold, 2007; Rehel, 2014; and Jugovic, 2015). Literature research emphasised that leave provisioning can be triggered by social and economic considerations.

As regards compensation measures (as economic elements) in dual-earner families, Belle (2015) argues that the level of compensation affects the financial logic where the lowest earner who in most cases, a mother. Eventually, the study found a very important revelation that providing adequate income compensation also reduces social inequalities: under lower compensation levels, paternity and parental leave is predominantly taken by highly-educated fathers working in middle- to high-income jobs. Taking time away from work is more difficult and often unaffordable for fathers in low-income families.

A research study by Sundström and Duvander (2002) found that the father's income ceiling had a negative impact since this does not influence fathers to take the leave. Income inequalities are real in influencing the marginalized or those with little wage to seek paternity leave (Sundström and Duvander, 2002). Connected to study the by Sundström and Duvander (2002) agrees with Baird's (2006) in emphasising the issue of pay as a means of incentivising uptake of paternity. She argued that "by providing paid maternity (or paternity) leave, the organisation sends a powerful signal to its

workforce and to recruits that it values the same things the employee values - the wellbeing of the employee and his or her family” (Baird, 2006: 5). Of course, one would debut a worldview that unpaid leave is somehow intriguing motivationally, However, it has a potential of perpetuating tendencies of men (fathers) sneaking out on the basis of going to support the wife in caring for the new born child.

Under social considerations, there are many elements that have been researched. Social elements include gender, perceptions, attitudes, and class differentials. Jugovic’s (2015) study, for instance, identified two factors namely gender and beliefs as suspects in influencing fathers’ preference for taking paternity leave. Gender is a social construct that defines and differentiates the roles, rights, responsibilities, and obligations of women and men. Literature is showing that there is no divorce of gender equality from paternity leave policy and practice. One of the major contributions of research on parental leave has been an assessment of the connections between parental leave and gender equality such that equality in working life is difficult to establish without equality in family life (Wall, 2014; Eydal et al, 2015). In most societies, gender roles establish inequalities between women and men in terms of responsibilities assigned, activities undertaken, access to and control over resources, and decision-making opportunities. It is this idea of choice-making without being constrained by stereotypes, rigid social roles and/or prejudices that can compel men equally as women, to start thinking about taking paternity leave and share their role in childcare. Of course, different feminist authors have questioned whether policies directed at both mothers and fathers really could break down gender barriers in the working life, family life, and parenthood (see Axelsson, 2014).

A study by Ibrahim et al. (2000: 1) indicated that “gender equality is an international norm that stipulates the equal right of women and men to access services, opportunities, and resources, irrespective of their gender or the sex with which they were born.” This study further found out that the economic aspects of parental leave policies were correlated to gender equality. For instance, the income of both the mothers and fathers is crucial but also determined enough in influencing paternity leave uptake.

The state’s policies can affect gender relations, either contributing to the perpetuation of gender inequality or developing gender equality (Brandth and Kvande, 2009). In view of this, Raub et al. (2018), Eydal et al. (2015) and, Wall (2014) postulate that gender-neutral shared leave or family entitlements to leave are not enough to ensure that men take paid parental leave. Valarino (2014) argues that gender roles and responsibilities have a space in determining paternity leave-taking and utilization. Using a multilevel and mixed methods approach and multiple datasets, Valarino (2014)’s study aimed at addressing the issue of parenthood and gender equality in Switzerland. This quest was driven by the emergence of parental leave policies. Her study was driven by two major theories: the welfare-state and, the gender equality perspectives. She argued that the welfare-state regime allows state-market-family nexus which organizes paid and unpaid work within families. Furthermore, this nexus agrees well with gender in which welfare states also shape gender relations through the way social policies regulate access to resources and social benefits. Therefore, gender equality demands a shared responsibility, whether one or both parents are employed or not.

A study by Jugovic's (2015) focused on perceptions and beliefs of men who take paternity leave within a given society. On beliefs, it was found that perceptions of working men also influence their decision towards paternity leave. Brandth and Kvande (2015) also found that employers' attitudes on paternity leave applicants affected actual implementation of this policy. Those that were heavily affected with such employers' attitude were fathers who wanted to take more leave days. Workers often face tension in balancing their roles as workers and parents, since there can be adverse consequences to prioritizing family over work or work over family. Furthermore, a study by Rehel (2014) concretised the findings of Jugovic (2015) which noted that personal attitudes affect fathers' decisions related to paternity leave. Rehel (2014)'s comparative study was conducted on 85 employed fathers (N=85) in the same multinational company but living in three different cultural and policy contexts (the US, English-speaking Canada and the French-Canadian province of Quebec). The study examined the influence of structural factors on men's leave uptake decisions, like design of the policy, concerns about reactions from supervisors, and financial limitations. Results revealed that fathers who took at least three weeks of leave participated significantly more in childcare tasks. The study also revealed that having good childcare attitude helped employers and employees to develop co-parenting style, instead of manager-helper style of parenting.

Brandth and Kvande (2015) found that class differential as an example of social elements, was key in influencing paternity leave. Here, the working middle-class fathers are associated with taking the traditional parental leave. Brandth and Kvande (2015) further claimed that the position of the mother at their workplace is key in influencing a father to seek paternity leave. This means that for women with high decision-making positions, have challenges to take more time-off the job. This therefore

compels or makes their spouses to take paternity leave. This is an attempt to share childcare responsibilities. Gender roles vary according to socioeconomic, political and cultural context.

2.3.2 Political Elements Affecting Leave Provisioning

Maund (2001) noted that paternity leave is frustrated by budgetary overindulgence of employers. His mixed-methods study revealed that there is a strong organizational culture that believes that parental leave drains the resources of the organization. The argument is that by taking leave, the firm does not focus on profit-making or service delivery orientation. Further evidence is offered by Rehel (2007) that the political will of Bill Clinton's administration to fund parental leave policies like paternity leave did not yield results because neither employer in private firms nor the state were ready to fund leave provisioning.

A discourse analysis study of 51 low-income African-American women conducted by Haney and March (2003) also revealed that the policy-makers' constructions prioritized the form of men's paternal relations over the content of those relations defining fatherhood in terms of men's biological, institutional, or financial connection to their children. By contrast, the low-income women we interviewed prioritized the content of men's paternal relations over their form conceptualizing fatherhood in terms of men's identification with and participation in paternal activities.

2.3.3 Cultural Dynamics in Leave Provisioning

The research project undertaken by Belle (2015) on some European countries regarding paternity and parental leave policies, established a number of causes of uptake among fathers. She observed that wider cultural beliefs drive fathers to take and utilize paternity leave. Firstly, culture and attitudes about gender underlie parents' behaviour.

As regards organizational culture, Ben-Galim (2008) observed that the gendered nature of the organization may provide or obstruct opportunities to develop gender equality in the organizational context. In support of this assertion, Acker (1990) argues that organizational practices contribute to creating gender divisions such as those between paid and unpaid work and occupational segregation, and therefore a systemic gender analysis of organizations is required. These gendered processes include implicit and explicit dimensions where gender stereotypes and images may be invented, reproduced and disseminated.

2.4 Effects of paternity leave on workplace and family life

Father-child relationships in all communities and at all stages of a child's life, have profound and wide-ranging impacts on children that last a lifetime, whether these relationships are positive, negative, or lacking (Levtov et al. 2015). These authors further argue that fathers matter and so is their participation as caregivers which also matters tremendously for women's lives. The aim of paternity leave is not only to give fathers the possibility to build an early connection to the newborn child, but also to allow them present and available for assistance when the mother returns from the hospital (Haataja, 2009). Ryder's (2014) research provides that there are links between the fathers' leave, men take-up of family responsibilities, and child development.

Fathers who take leave, especially those taking two weeks or more immediately after childbirth, are more likely to be involved with their young children. This can have positive effects on gender equality in the home and at work and may indicate shifts in relationships and perceptions of parenting roles and prevailing stereotypes.

Leave policies are known to transform the division of labour within the family (Ciccia and Verloo, 2012). Axelsson (2014: 1) noted that “leave policies may have transformative effects on women’s and men’s life courses, within gender relations – especially if they also encompass men/fathers”. There is testimony on the multiple benefits of leave policies, citing among others that they are important instruments for changing attitudes and practices related to social problems such as discrimination and unequal gender relations. Karr (2017: 225) highlights that if a father takes paternity leave “children benefit greatly from bonding time with their fathers.” O’Brien (2009) observed that in countries where the leave is paid, fathers continue contributing economically to the household. As such, the concept of father-care-sensitive leave is adopted. This signifies that the leave period allows fathers being away from the workplace to undertake child and partner care obligations rather than engage in economic breadwinning functions.

2.5 Legal and Policy Frameworks Governing Leave

Numerous studies provide evidence on how the legal and policy framework influence men (fathers) in taking paternity leave and other family caring responsibilities (Axelsson, 2014: and Raub, et al. 2018). Of interest to this study is the way paternity leave has been governed legally and in terms of policy. There are both international and national legal documents that govern child caring responsibility.

2.5.1 International Legal and Policy Framework

There is diversity of social policies across developed and developing countries, especially associated with work-family life balance. For instance, Olivetti and Petrongolo (2018) have observed that family policy is complex. They argued that “while all developed countries now have in place some form of parental leave policy and family transfers, the path to policy adoption has differed widely across countries.” Even in these developed countries, the policy and legal framework is not that uniform. Lack of uniformity is understandably so because of various dynamical differences like culture, politics, social and economic factors. Despite all these variations, Olivetti and Petrongolo (2018) argue that it is important to bear in mind that the introduction of parental leave rights and family-related subsidies has often been accompanied by or has followed changes in a country's social norms and attitudes towards gender roles in the home and the market. Therefore, there are many international legal instruments that are supporting family policies more especially giving impetus into paternity leave and childcare in the immediate months after childbirth. These include the UDHR, CRC, CEDAW, and ILO Convention 156.

The 1948 UDHR, under article 25 (2) points to the fact that motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. The convention advises member states to provide social security to every citizen corresponding to their resources. This covenant, the UDHR has also recognized the importance of fatherhood in family responsibility and more childcare in particular. It stipulates that: all children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection. What this article implicitly provides is that there is an invisible hand, providing the special care to assist both the child and the mother. As such, fatherhood and the environments around them should be more

allowing in the provision of care and assistance. In this regard, the invisible hand must ensure that there is a guaranteed provision and enjoyment of social protection given to the mother and the child.

In essence, this social protection begins right away from 0 (zero) years up until the child becomes independent of themselves. What this UDHR is therefore enunciating is that the legal and policy framework is more compelling on fathers to take a role in childcare and assistance to the mothers. However, the UDHR is not clearly stressing on maternity and paternity leave. Based on this weakness of the UDHR for not directly indicating the need for paternity leave as a complement to motherhood, the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) was introduced. The CRC is the first legally binding international instrument to address specifically children's rights comprehensively. In the interest of the CRC, Article 18 (3) is of paramount importance as it compels workplaces to recognize and consider working parents. The Article compels member states and working institutions, arguing that: "state parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that children of working parents have the right to benefit from childcare services and facilities for which they are eligible".

In agreement with the CRC, is the African Charter on Rights and Welfare of the Child. This Charter sprung out of a concern that "the situation of most African children, remains critical due to the unique factors of their socio-economic, cultural, traditional and developmental circumstances, natural disasters, armed conflicts, exploitation and hunger, and on account of the child's physical and mental immaturity he/she needs special safeguards and care. It is from this understanding that the Charter further calls upon all member states, according to Article 20 (2) (a) and (b) to assist parents and

others responsible for the child in the performance of child-rearing and ensure the development of institutions responsible for providing care of children; and to ensure that the children of working parents are provided with care services and facilities. This is the ground for the advancement of the institutionalization of work-family policies such as paternity leave so that male employees can ably take days off job to assist in the welfare of the wife and newly born child.

In pursuit of equality, the CEDAW is concerned with the welfare of women. Article 11 condemns the discrimination of women in social security benefits. The Article recognizes the peculiar circumstances women find themselves in by prohibiting management from the withholding benefits due to pregnancy. Generally, the Article calls for equal provision of benefits between male and female employees. While taking recognition that the campaign for the elimination of discrimination according to CEDAW, is more focused on advantaging women, the danger with it is that there is a perpetuation of discrimination of men. At the same time, the battle for de-gendering childcare is never won. For instance, Ben-Galim (2008: 196) argues that the tendency to ignore men in the process of caring for children through offering paternity leave is because “gender is often equated with women, with work-life balance policies understood to be about 'women's issues’”.

In the first place, the ILO to which Malawi is a member; provides a plausible platform for equal voices of the employees, employers and governments so that the views of social partners are made known to work-related issues. One of such issues that require attention is paternity leave. However, Ryder (2014) noted quickly that “no ILO standard

exists concerning paternity leave...” Further to this argument, Govender (2015) and Ryder (2014) seem to agree on work-family reconciliation measures concerning both men and women by advancing that governments must develop adequate policies for a better balance of work and family responsibilities, to include paternity and/or parental leave, with incentives for men to use them...” (Govender, 2015: 12). The idea for incentivizing paternity and parental leave is to encourage fathers stay close to their newborn child or adopted child, or support their wives during maternity leave. This is a direct recognition that both men and women have to take part in the care of the child. Therefore, the family-work policies have to be well aligned so as to attract men in making a proper choice of taking and utilizing these opportunities.

The ILO’s Convention C156 is also directly associated with workers with family responsibilities. This legal framework of job protection clearly recognizes the importance of having a job-protected leave policy which is more directly linked to family responsibilities. It argues that “not only does every country now have some maternity protection legislation. Many others also have measures to support workers with family responsibilities” (Ryder, 2014: 2). This convention presses more emphasis on women and maternity leave. Such emphasis though, is in itself a deficiency on encouraging gender-neutral family responsibility. In counteracting C156, there is Convention 183. Convention 183 promotes the fundamental principles and rights at work by ensuring that countries ratify and implement their work/family-related policies and practices (Ryder, 2014). Convention 183 urges countries to provide favourable working environment. However, it is lacking where the guidelines in relation to the type of environment being desired are not clearly mentioned. Also, Convention 183 is very

silent on the role of fathers in fostering this environment at the time of pregnancy and beyond in relation to paternity leave provisions by the workplace.

2.5.2 National legal/ policy framework and campaigns

Domestically, there is evidence of laws, policies and institutional conditions of services (Rules and Regulations of Institutions) that have partially included a segment related to paternity leave. In the beginning, the National Gender Policy (2015) sets a clear position that gender equality is the basic human rights and developmental issue (Government of Malawi, 2015). The purpose of this policy is to mainstream gender in the national development process to enhance the participation of women and men. Within this policy, gender equality relates to gender equity as an attempt to offer fairness of treatment for women and men, according to their respective needs. However, the same National Gender Policy (2015: 20) quickly recognises that “at the household level, a strong tradition persists of maintaining the low status of girls and women ...” The policy fails to recognise male involvement in childcare through paternity leave.

As a member state of regional and global agreements, Malawi has domesticated a number of instruments in line with the welfare of the people. There has been a lot of policy learning, transfer and even formulation, however, little implementation has occurred. Despite the domestication of various legal and policy instruments, Malawi does not have a stand-alone paternity leave policy. However, most of these instruments have not clearly attempted or zeroed in on addressing paternity leave or parental leave policies. One of the challenges leading to failure to have this stand-alone policy is lack of coordination among policies. Here, Olivetti and Petrongolo (2018) have since warned of the resulting complications when policies are analysed in isolation. Provision

of paternity leave, therefore, has been cited or included as a mere paragraph, or in some instances, completely missing in vital documents.

The Constitution of Malawi (2004) has a position on family involvement and childcare. For instance, the principles of national policy oblige the state to adopt policies and legislations that will help achieve gender equality. According to this law, women share equal rights and protections as men regardless of their marital status (The Constitution of Malawi, 2004: Art 24). In view of this, both women and men have the same rights to be the legal guardian (Child Care, Protection and Justice Act, 2010) such that they have an equal duty to provide for their family, both financially (proportionate to their income) and non-monetarily (such as child-rearing). This realization means that taking paternity leave in order to support the wife and the newly born child is full recognition of the dictates of the law. Furthermore, the Employment Act (2000) is a legal employment framework in Malawi. However, it has given more weight on maternity, sick/medical, and annual leave, while clearly neglecting paternity leave. The Employment Act 2000 highlights a minimum of 8-week job-protected maternity leave but nothing as regards paternity leave. Specifically, the Employment Act (2000) recognises that during maternity leave, all benefits, entitlements and contractual rights shall continue uninterrupted. Such conditions even include pay. However, there is no provision that clearly stipulates for paternity leave and related duration of time off the job with similar job-protection as those given for maternity leave. Lack of paternity leave in the major pieces of law and policies makes the leave policies gender-insensitive and discriminatory. Karr (2017: 230) also shares the same position by contending that “a policy that affords women employment leave to provide family care while denying such leave to men perpetuates gender-based employment discrimination and

stereotyping and improperly impedes the ability of men to share greater responsibilities in providing immediate physical and emotional care for their families”. Due to the difference and lack of clarity of the clauses above, there are high chances that officers can use other types of leave to stand for paternity leave.

The National Integrated Policy on Early Childhood Development (NIPECD) is a policy that highlights the guidelines to child care. This policy recognizes the role of parents in child development. More also, it endeavours to promote father’s involvement in child care by agreeing with what Palkovitz and Hull (2018) noted that fathers have been a forgotten contributor to child development. National Integrated Policy on Early Childhood Development (Government of Malawi, 2017) is an instrument that recognizes the need for male involvement in childcare and need to provide enabling conditions even to working fathers to take time off the job and engage themselves in childcare. Fathers are important as we understand and explain how they manage components of cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects with their families. Levto et al. (2015: 15) recognise that “fathers matter. Father-child relationships, in all communities and at all stages of a child’s life, have profound and wide ranging impacts on children that last a life-time, whether these relationships are positive, negative, or lacking.” The author goes on to emphasise that “the involvement of fathers before, during and after the birth of a child has been shown to have positive effects on maternal health behaviours ... newborn health services, and fathers’ longer-term support and involvement in the lives of their children” (Levtov et al. 2015: 19). Karr (2017: 225) specifically, note that “children benefit greatly from bonding time with their fathers”

2.6 Challenges affecting paternity leave's implementation

Firstly, poverty and economic instability often mean that poor men need to spend more time and effort focusing on their roles as financial providers (Levtov et al. 2015). Levtov et al argue that “migration for work takes many men away from their families, removing them from daily caregiving even as they contribute financially to their families’ survival” (p. 45). Restrictive agendas embraced by governments around the world have cut ever deeper into any sense of collective responsibility for care. The twin ideologies of “individual responsibility” and “reduced government” have been used to justify cutbacks in social services, healthcare, and childcare, and to limit the expansion of parental leave. Conservative ideologies, even make it harder to promote public policies that advance the agenda for collective caring responsibility.

Levtov et al. (2015) argues further that in countries where most people are employed in the informal economy or subsistence agriculture, and in countries that lack policies or social and financial mechanisms to help families thrive, it is even harder to eradicate these inequalities. The global economic crisis has in some countries, exacerbated pre-existing gender inequalities and highlighted the need to have both men and women at work. This implies that fathers’ involvement and inclusion in the job-protected leave benefits when the wife gives birth is in greater recognition that men have a pivotal space in family caring responsibility. Therefore, the law and related statutes must advance such equality and agenda inclusive family caring responsibility.

The institutions and structures that shape the lives of women and men continue to resist full equality in terms of care work. The deeply entrenched structures of the workplace and economy present persistent obstacles. As state and corporate actions erode (Levtov

et al. 2015), provisions that facilitate care for children or other family members are diminished. Levto et al. (2015) appreciates that traditional gender norms also continue to stand in the way. Becoming an involved father means challenging attitudes, stereotypes, and behaviours that are deeply entrenched. Additionally, rigid gender norms are tied to essentialist beliefs about the nature of men and women, that their roles are defined by their biology rather than socially constructed. Also, discriminatory stereotypes and deep-rooted patriarchal attitudes continue to dictate the roles and responsibilities of women and men in the household and in society at large (CEDAW, 2015; OECD, 2019). For example, in many communities in Malawi, unpaid care work is commonly performed by volunteer caregivers, mainly women (Joint Malawi Civil Society Organizations, 2015).

2.7 Conceptual Framework

The literature so far consulted has indicated that gender equality, household division of labour theory, household bargaining theory and rational choice theory are central in fathers taking or not taking paternity leave. They are instrumental in conceptualizing paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service.

2.7.1 Rational Choice Theory

Rational choice is defined to mean the process of determining what options are available and then choosing the most preferred one according to some consistent criterion. The rational choice theory is a paradigm that offers an opportunity to make or not take action over a set of actionable elements. Studies consulted in the previous sections in this chapter have either directly or indirectly shown use of choice in coming up with a decision to take or not take paternity leave (Levmore, 2002; Parr, 2012;

Brandth and Kvande, 2015). A decision that one makes requires a thorough analysis of good and bad sides of the matter at hand, and the effects thereafter. Rational choice theories attempt to explain human behaviour as resulting from rational choices (Hooker, 2011). Rational choice theory provides two dimensions which are: the payoff maximization, which is a reward from a choice that has an explicit expected worth (such as monetary reward like pay), and the second dimension of utility maximization. With utility maximization, there is a concern for the greatest good for the greatest number. With utility maximization, the family as a unit or, a man himself as an individual makes a rational sense out of the matter being considered. Utility maximization is not necessarily payoff maximization unless there is a monotonic relation between utilities and payoffs (Smith, 1982).

This theory, therefore, is linked to the objective where the study determines the causes for men taking or not taking paternity leave. Rational choice theory therefore, is directly related to Gary Becker's two theory that concern family or household's life since childcare is about taking a decision on rewards and costs if support is provided or not. Theories of Gary Becker are instrumental in this study since they look at childcare as primarily being a task that starts in the family and cascading to the workplace (Hein and Cassirer (010). Gary Becker (1991) therefore, developed a number of theories, two of which are used in this research hand in hand with the rational choice theory. These theories include Gary Becker's household division of labour and Gary Becker's household bargaining theory.

The first theory of Gary Becker is called the household division of labour's Theory (Becker, 1991). This is a theory of household utility maximization that regards the

household as one unit, where the members of the household have a shared utility function. Given biological differences in the contribution to the production of children between genders, women would have a comparative advantage in household work. Since the household is treated as a utility-maximizing unit, the spouse with a comparative advantage in market work will allocate their time there, whereas the spouse with a comparative advantage in household production would allocate their time to this. In other words, this is the division between household and market production (Becker, 1991). In this case, by utility maximization and division of labour, a working needs to demonstrate his labour market productive advantage when his wife has a new child out of her household productive advantage. It is from this recognition of the role of the advantages that a man would query the time off the job as a benefit from the labour market, in order to share the family's childcare roles. In this case, parental leave can be considered as oscillating in a continuum between household production and labour market production. According to this theory, the spouse with the lower wage is therefore assumed to specialize in household production. With this side of the continuum, this spouse would influence the man's decision of processing paternity leave. This framework therefore offers an explanation of the actual reasons why the man would apply and take paternity leave as to whether because it is a desire for division of labour for utility maximization. At the same time, the theory questions the roles that the partners would contribute to the family as originating from their productive sides. Therefore, the theory portrays that taking paternity leave from one's work has been just a rational decision in contribution to the household division of labour.

Second theory by Gary Becker (1991) is called household bargaining theory. This theory also supports the rational choice theory and more also support the household's division of labour theory. In this theory, the households' decisions are the outcome of internal bargaining within the household after recognizing separate utility functions of family members. The outcome of such bargaining would, in turn, be dependent on the bargaining power of each spouse, which usually is accounted for as the ability to incentivize the man to process time off the job, negotiate the provision of necessities at home, and share schedules in childcare. Of course, there is an acknowledgment that social safety nets and social expectations such as gender roles would also affect the bargaining power of the spouses (Lundberg and Pollak, 1996). This is why there is yet a gender theory in the subsequent section, in order to support Gary Becker's (1991) theories already discussed.

2.7.2 Gender Theory

Gender theory is a potential paradigm to explain Malawi's paternity leave provisioning. Gender is actually a social construction. Feminists have looked at the gendering of organizations and organizational practices to comprehend how inequalities between women and men continue in the face of numerous attempts to erase such inequalities (Acker, 2006).

Gender roles "reflect a division of responsibility based on gender ... people's empirical expectations or descriptive norms of how others will act are often based on their perception of gender roles" (Marcus and Harper 2014: 10). A debate on gender-change touches on the sensitive nature of gender roles related to culture, social norms, values and beliefs within the rational choice and rational decision-making debate (Marcus and Harper, 2014). A change in the unequal gender division of labour would only be

obtainable when the role of women's paid work and the role of men's caring responsibility are balanced". Therefore, changing gender dynamics brings to light issues that are normally unnoticed, and may be difficult to deal with.

Globally, paternity leave has been accepted as never a father-alone task, but rather a gender equality debate. Traditionally, childcare services have focused on women, with very little male involvement. Such traditional view has tended to see and analyse childcare involvement from a perspective that considers women as the main carers. With more women joining the labour market, it is true that gender dynamics have to change so that family care becomes a shared responsibility. Since childcare is a shared responsibility, the involvement of both parents (if both are present) is paramount. Such involvement searches deep into what each partner contributes into the care. The importance of joint caring responsibility cannot be over-emphasized. As much as the task of giving birth to a child becomes a private affair in the family, however, caring responsibility remains both a private and a public issue. Malawi has a good number of national and workplace statutes that advance gender equality.

Also, the gender theory seeks to change gender stereotypes that have glued men in the workplace and ignore the family responsibilities, while making women more of childcare specialists. The gender equality debate is an attempt to commodify the labour market (Esping-Andersen, 1990), by giving more opportunity and time for fathers to adequately take time off the job and have family responsibilities. Issues about gender equality were placed on the public agenda, mainly by women against a categorization by Beauvoir (1949) which is guilty of all the injustice and discrimination of women, but more recently now, on men.

This theory will address both objectives on the causes of paternity leave-taking, and the effects of taking leave on work and family-like experiences.

2.8 Theoretical Framework

This study jointly utilizes both the rational choice theory and the gender theory. This is so because these theories, according to this study are interrelated. A husband's decision to take or not take paternity leave, manifests the rational choice and a consideration of gender and what the society makes out of it. There is a belief that whatever the individual does in a household or at work is a manifestation of the rational decision making. As a father (husband) in the household, a decision to take or not take paternity leave when the wife has a new-born child is perceived rational. This comes upon after considering a number of factors. Such a decision affects or is affected by factors like social, economic, cultural, political, administrative and legal which can manifest themselves both at organizational (family or institutional), group or individual levels. As such, other theories like household division of labour, household bargaining theory, and the gender theory all feed into the rational choice theory.

2.9 Operationalization of the Study

The research will be operationalized along with rational choice and gender theory. The evidence so far reviewed in the previous section indicates that parenting in general and childcare through taking or not taking paternity leave is a matter of choice and involves many gender dynamics. Research has pointed out on various best practices and innovations that seek to increase uptake of paternity leave globally.

2.9.1. Good paternity leave practices in developing Countries

As point of departure, it must be mentioned that literature from Africa regarding paternity leave has been scanty and scarce, at least from the consultations made. What is being presented here is the literature reviewed from the few authors that have endeavoured to open ground in this area in Africa. That scarcity of literature already suffices to justify that there is a fertile ground to research on, pertaining to paternity leave in developing countries, and more also in Africa. Firstly, the institutional decisions, policies, practice and arrangements on whether to provide or not provide paternity leave centre around rational choices that are made at the micro, through to macro-systemic levels. Parenting decisions on having both fathers and mothers sharing, caring responsibilities require working men sacrificing their time off the job on leave because the first days of the child count especially when both parents are sharing the child-caring roles.

Therefore, the conceptual framework adopted for this study will bring out preferential factors and conditions associated with choices that families, societies and work institutions make that can be easily associated with father either taking or not taking paternity leave. At the same time, the chosen conceptual framework here will present the cause-effect relationship of taking or not taking paternity leave based on rational choice models of causality.

2.9.2 Good paternity leave practices in developed countries

The debate behind having better or good paternity leave practices hinges on acknowledging a comparison of which policies organizations and countries have. Baird and Litwin (2005: 385) appreciate that “family-friendly policies (which may include

maternity, paternity, parental, and carers' leave, flexible working hours, and child and elder care) now vary markedly between organizations and countries". A lot of studies have been done focusing on such policy and practical differences in organizations and countries.

The first good practice being done in the Nordic countries is provision of quotas. In Nordic countries, quota for fathers for the sake of paternity leave is 10 weeks. The idea of quota is an allocation of period in a year, deliberately designated when a father can access a holiday specifically in attending to paternity issues. Brandth and Kvande (2016: 276) highlight that in "Norwegian parental leave in general, the father's quota is generously compensated". Evertsson et al. (2018: 35) considers that "quotas for fathers have encouraged fathers to spend time as sole daytime caregivers of young children". Fathers' quota is a symbol of the Nordic gender equality model (Eydal et al. 2015, as cited in O'Brien and Wall, 2017). On the benefit of advocating for father's quota, Rege and Solli (2010) concluded that "... paternity leave has the expected positive effect on long-term father involvement" p. 39. Within the understanding of quota for fathers is a substantially good package of support in terms of money which the father is allowed to have when he is going out for leave of office on paternity grounds. This arrangement of generosity is the one that entices fathers to stay off the job, knowing that he (they) can ably attend to family demands that require money.

Another better practices developed countries in the Nordic countries is non-transferability of paternity leave. In fact, the men are challenged with what Brandth and Kvande (2016: 276) call "take-it or leave-it". The challenge is to ensure that men (fathers) have an interest to stay at home in caring for the new-born child together with

the mother. ILO (2014) as cited in O'Brien and Wall (2017: 2) posits that “non-transferable leaves of fathers are generally seen to strengthen men’s ties to unpaid work by involving men in care work, promoting father-child bonds and allowing men to increase their ability to reconcile work and family life”.

Flexibility in the conditions of take-up of paternity leave is yet another best practice that is being utilised elsewhere. Flexibility can be important for the reconciliation of work and family (CDEG, 2005). The author believes that flexibility would be of particular benefit in some European countries where leave is relatively shorter and there are scant public resources for childcare provision (CDEG, 2005: 39). This position on flexibility as highlighted by CDEG (2005) could be replicated in developing countries because it is where resources are rally scarce and scanty. A big question and debate therefore hinges on whether Malawi dwells in this connotation of flexibility according to this study. With flexibility, some parents might choose to take all their parental leave together as a block while others might seek it on a piecemeal.

2.10. Chapter Conclusion

While studies conducted so far recognize the need for gender neutral in childcare and family responsibility, there is a bigger question on whether paternity leave falls under private and public sphere. What is coming clear though, is that choice prevails. Also, gender is a key notion that offers a drive to men, women within the family and workplaces for men to fathers to decide taking paternity leave or not. This choice comes with a number of decisions as to whether support the leave with pay or no pay, whether to have more days or short days, and whether to attach some conditions to be rigid or flexible. Due to this debate, providing paternity leave in developed countries has been

seen as a welfare state responsibility which is part of the social-democratic regime and corporatist regime. This regime defeats the male breadwinner thinking where males were associated with works to provide income for the family while women were predominantly associated with the home and childcare.

However, depending more on the public sphere in paternity leave provisions frustrates implementation in developing countries. This is so because income levels of developing countries are not strong to support welfare to the employees. As such, institutions and governments have a choice to change certain variables associated with paternity leave. This is where other scholars have argued that paternity leave-taking is under the private sphere. Despite all this, a consideration of men and women working together with family responsibilities is key to affect the workplace and family policies. Therefore, gender is crucial in affecting the choice of taking paternity leave. In order to understand these dynamics, many theories have been considered which include the rational choice theory in which there is the Gary Becker (1991) household's division of labour, and Gary Becker's (1991) household bargaining theory.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses how the research objectives were operationalized. It further explains the research design. The chapter highlights on the sample size and sampling techniques of the study which were used. The ethical considerations for protecting human subjects are included. The context of the study is presented which involved providing a description of the population and selected research sites. The chapter further includes components that specifically describe the procedures applied in data collection, data analysis, and limitations.

3.2 Research Paradigm

Rosa (2010) argues that a paradigm provides a conceptual framework for seeing and making sense of a research. Therefore, paradigms shape how researchers perceive the world around them. Though an old definition, Kuhn's (1962) research presented a better way of understanding a paradigm where it was noted that this worldview characterizes an integrated cluster of substantive concepts, variables, and problems that are attached to corresponding methodological approaches and tools that are used in the research process. In this case, there are various types of research paradigms such as positivism and post-positivism, constructivism, advocacy and participatory, pragmatism, interpretive, and dialectic.

This study, therefore, utilizes the dialectical perspective. This dialectical perspective is used “in order to best fit the world view of mixed methods research.” The dialectic research paradigm has different paradigms in it. Rosa (2010) noted that mixed-methods research has both pragmatism and transformative-emancipatory paradigms. Interest in this paradigm is pragmatism which is typically associated with mixed-methods (Creswell and Plano, 2007). As regards transformative-emancipation, there is “use of research method that produces results that promote greater social justice for marginalized groups” (Rosa, 2010: 156). This paradigm is more situated in an attempt to generate determinants of paternity leave as a ground for social justice and gender equity.

3.3 Research Design

A research design is a plan or procedure for the research that spans the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2009). In this case, selecting a design is an important step into the whole research undertaking. This study adopted a mixed-methods approach. Wisdom and Creswell (2013:1) contended that in research, “mixed methods refers to an emerging methodology of research that advances the systematic integration, or mixing, of quantitative and qualitative data within a single investigation or sustained program of inquiry”. Silverman (2010) noted that the basic premise of this methodology was that such integration permits a more complete and synergistic utilization of data than do separate quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis”.

Johnson, et al. (2007: 113) states that “mixed-methods research is a synthesis that includes ideas from qualitative and quantitative research”. Burton et al. (2008: 146) acknowledged that “whilst qualitative evidence is most often associated with the interpretive paradigm and quantitative with the positive/normative, which may suggest that the evidence collected will be of one form or the other, in many cases research evidence will be a combination of both forms.” However, it predominantly takes a quantitative approach in operationalizing the research objectives. As a mixed methods approach, there were two types of data collected. Quantitative data also called numerical data arises from counting, measuring or from any mathematical operation (Doane and Seward, 2007). An appreciation of the qualitative methodology was made through documents analysis.

Mixed methods design, as Creswell (2009 argues, tests the objective theory by way of examining the relationship between variables. In this regard, these variables are tested or measured using instruments so that the coded data can be analysed using statistical procedures like Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS and Excel Spreadsheet. On the other hand, qualitative research design explores and understands the meaning individuals or groups have towards a social or human problem (Creswell, 2009). In this case, a good example is this phenomenon of taking paternity leave. Below in **Figure 1**, is a research matrix this study adapted and utilised from Johnson et al. (2007) and Creswell (2009). The matrix provides how sampling was done from the study sites, data analysis, and interpretation. The matrix portrayed the reliance of raw and secondary data. Such data which was both qualitative and qualitative was processed and analysed in order to draw the evidence for this study.

This study however, though being mixed-methodical, it was predominated quantitatively on both data collection and analysis. There was a minimal tilt towards qualitative analysis with focus on document analysis.

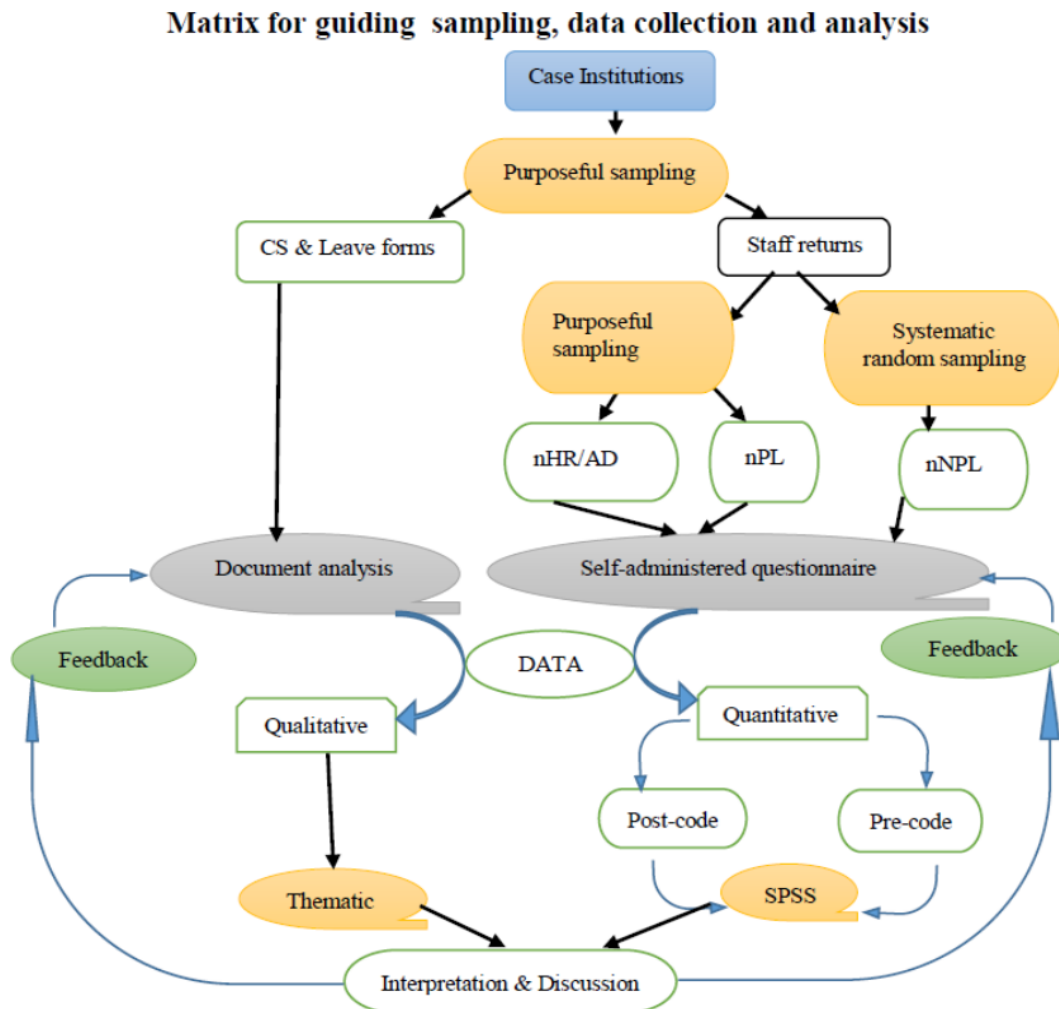


Figure 1: Showing matrix for sampling, data collection and analysis

Source: Author's creativity (June, 2018)

3.4 Population

This section highlights and presents the context of the study. It defines the population of the study sites which were used. Descriptions of the sample size, sampling technique, and background of the study sites are made. A population of male employees was

targeted. An accumulative population of 1, 138 male employees were targeted across the five institutions. This population was split into elements/basic units from which samples were drawn. These basic units were: (1) paternity leave takers, and (2) non-paternity leave takers. The condition for participation was being a working father (by having their own biological or adopted children). The third unit of participants to this study was for HRM/Administration officers of the study organizations. This had no distinct size.

3.4.1 Sampling

Sampling of the participants for this study was through systematic and purposeful means. In order to generate a homogeneous sample of married officers (widowers inclusive) for category of non-paternity leave takers (n_{NPL}), systematic sampling was done. It was important to use the systematic random sampling in order to avoid bias and personal interests in the study (Wisker, 2001; Chasukwa, 2010: 36). The sampling frames allowed officers of all job categories ranging from clerical, custodial and managerial. Custodial officers according to this study, are technical officers by way of their primary job descriptions. The samples were ordered according to the way they appear in the Staff Returns. Only married (including widowers², with exceptions) employees were given a chance to participate in this study.

²Widowers were considered to ably participate in this category if they had children with their wife. Hence their marital status now could not be a barrier.

Table 1: Showing results of the systematic random sampling

Research site	CHANCO	SRWB	LUANAR	OOO	Parliament of Malawi
Component					
Sample Size (n)	20	20	20	20	20
Population (N)	480	210	268	40	140
K-th Number	24	10	13	2	6
Starting point	346	184	152	14	109

Source: Authors excel data entry (July, 2019).

In **table 1** above, the row denoted as sample size (n) was the ideal number of sampled participants to the study. As it has been depicted on the title, the samples were reached upon through systematic sampling. Firstly, when each study site was consulted and permission being given, total number of all men (N) was requested from either the electronic or manual-based human resource management's registry (database). So, each site provided their total number of employees as indicated in the row for population. Now, individual members (n) from N-institutions were given equal opportunity in the study.

Purposeful sampling was used to identify a sample of paternity leave takers (nPL), HRM/Administration officers (n HR/AD), and the study sites themselves. According to Palinkas et al. (2015), purposeful sampling refers to the sampling procedure where the researcher chooses the sample based on who they think would be appropriate for the study. Palinkas et al. (2015: 12) further contend that the advantage of this sampling

procedure is that “only those respondents who bear rich information are consulted since the selected stakeholders are specialists”. Associated with purposive sampling is convenience sampling.

3.4.2 Sample Size

A sample is “a set of elements taken from a larger population” (Edriss, 2003: 35), Respondents were drawn from different institutions as homogenous groups, and two different categories (paternity leave takers and non-paternity leave takers with heterogeneous membership). The ideal total sample size was 10 (with 20 non-paternity leave takers, 10 paternity leave takers, and 4 HRM/Administrative officer from each institution, in their respective categories). Eventually, a total sample size for respondents that participated in this study was 61. Therefore, this was a real sample size reached upon as the actual respondents to the study. This represented forty-five (45) married male officers (five from each institution) for paternity leave takers ($n_{NPL}=45$) as category 1.

Respondents for the category of non-paternity leave takers were drawn from the Employee Records ‘database of the study institutions, combined. Depending on the size of the population, jumps called the K-th number were made in choosing the next possible member, a process which varied institutionally. In systematic sampling, the **k**-number was determined independently across institutions through excel spreadsheet’s calculation, see the summary in Table 1, above. The **k**-th number varied significantly depending on the population of male employees in a given institution. As a result of having the K-th number, different starting points were obtained as it can be seen in the row titled “K-th number”. Eight ($n_{PL}=8$) married men who processed paternity leave.

These belonged to category 2. These paternity leave takers were snowball rolled from the Human Resource Officers who were pivotal in flagging out the names from their records of officers who went on leave. There were also eight (n HR/AD =8) Human Resource/Administrative officers.

3.5 Data Collection: Pre-testing and full-scale collection

Two data collection methods were used in both the pre-test and full data collection. These methods included interviews using questionnaires, and document review. In this study, pre-testing was done in one of the chosen institutions before rolling out into the other institutions according to the research design. The pre-test was done in order to gather evidence on duration in obtaining approval for data collection, tool moderation, and responsiveness to the survey. Hurst et al. (2015) define pretesting as a simulation of the formal data collection process on a small scale in order to identify practical problems with regard to data collection instrument, sessions, and methodology. Hurst, et al. (2015) further contended that pretesting adds value by detecting errors in word ambiguity by discovering possible variable measurement flaws. The study was pre-tested at Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources in Bunda Campus. Pre-testing was important in order to confirm the availability of data and the viability of the tools to be used in the full study. Ten (10) non-paternity leave taker men were drawn using simple random from the staff register in the Human Resources Office. Out of the sample information was shared about the paternity leave takers from the institution. These were later followed through snowball rolling. Two (2) human resource officers were used in order to respondent to the pre-test tool.

By conducting the pre-test, some readiness was given in how much waiting time can be anticipated. Also, the pre-test helped in validating extent of consistency of the items and the wording of the whole tool. As noted by Nkatane (2017) and Babbie and Mouton (2001), pre-testing allows room for amendment of the questions so that they are suitable to the participant. The outcome of this pre-test led to some questions being dropped, while others were refined. Amidst doing this, the objectives were intact. The pre-test research design was maintained in the main study. Number of days taken in the pre-test stretched up due to strict bureaucracy from an anticipated 14 days for approval to be granted, to actually the whole month (30 days) which management at the pre-test site took in order to grant the approval for the study. Similarly, it took up to 16 days for individual respondents took in order to complete attempting the tool, instead of the anticipated 9 days. Of course, the completion time stretched due to the design of the questionnaire as self-administered. The conviction of this researcher in having the design of the tool was that that there could be flexibility in the respondents on when to respond to the tool. However, the pre-test revealed that there was more exaggeration on the freedom to attempt filling of the tool. Rachmawati (2009) warned that bureaucracy is leadership power which should be balanced with representation functions. In this case, the public office is meant to offer its services to the public with a balance of its bureaucracy. Therefore, conducting research at a public institution required some flexibility since the office bearers are representatives of the public themselves.

The pre-test also revealed an important element regarding response and return rate. As many respondents kept on skipping questions on the tool and equally kept on rejecting the interview, there was a high chance to have a non-representative sample. This is very dangerous to research since can affect the reliability and replicability of the study.

Therefore, in order to have a good and representative sample and off-set the low return rate, the size of case study institutions was increased from the previous two to five institutions, and the sample size increased as well.

3.5.1 Semi structured questionnaire: Self-administered

Primary data used in this study was collected using semi-structured self-administered questionnaires. Semi structured framework of questions was used for this study. The semi-structured questionnaires contained both closed and open-ended questions (Flick, 2009). Kumar (2014: 178) proponents that a questionnaire is a written list of questions the answers to which are recorded by respondents. By using questionnaire, respondents read the questions, interpret what is expected and then write down the answers. A good question, Kumar (2014) further argues, is the one which is developed in an interactive manner where questions are easy to read and the layout is so appealing so that the respondent feels as if someone is talking to them. Close-ended questions were largely used for quantitative data analysis.

Quantitative data was obtained by choosing the relevant pre-coded responses from the close-ended questions on the questionnaire for both paternity, and non-paternity leave takers. However, qualitative data was obtained using open-ended questions within semi-structured questionnaires because such questions gave respondents more opportunity to fully express themselves on a given point. Open-ended questions also helped the researcher to probe for additional information and clarification which were important in making the study clearer. Furthermore, Kumar (2014: 178) highlighted a number of ways a questionnaire can be administered. He emphasised that the “selection of a particular method of administration depends upon the ease in assessing your

respondent population and your impression about how they would prefer to participate in your study”.

Questionnaires were self-administered on the respondents within the three groups of respondents (see Appendix 1, Appendix 2, and Appendix 3) in all the institutions where the research was being done. For instance, at Chancellor College and Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources, data collection was done when the school session was in progress. At Parliament of Malawi, data collection coincided with sitting of ³Parliament. With all these events, administering the questionnaire by the researcher was problematic against the busy schedules of respondents. Therefore, questionnaires were being left for the respondent to attend to them at their free time within a space of two (2) working days.

3.5.2 Public Documents

A document is “like an untrustworthy witness” which must be cross-examined and its motives assessed (Gilbert, 2008: 286). Many questions must be put across it in order to generate the truth. In order to obtain qualitative data, a number of documents were reviewed. Though it has strong affinity to field work than surveys or questionnaires, documentary research is valuable as part of triangulating qualitative and quantitative data. Gilbert (2008) further acknowledges that documents are things that we can read and that relate to some aspect of the social world. He notes that these could be intended to record public matters as well as personal and private records. In this study, public documents like booklets of the conditions of services and Leave Forms were used.

³Parliamentary Sitting is the time when Members of Parliament deliberate on matters of National interest such as the Budget and policy formulation.

These leave forms were obtained from all the five institutions. However, the booklets on conditions of service were sourced from four institutions after consent was sought from the heads of the institutions. Copies of these conditions of services were availed for researcher's consumption at the time when consent was being granted. Consent forms were used in soliciting approval to conduct or participate in this. Office of the Ombudsman did not provide their own arguing that copies of printed conditions of services were out of stock hence they could not release electronic copies since these could not be formal.

3.6 Data Analysis

Zikmund et al. (2010) posit that data analysis is the application of logic and reasoning to refine the collected data. These questionnaires had a lot of variables which were statistically analysed by using SPSS and where applicable, using Excel spreadsheet. Data analysis involved examining, sorting, categorizing, evaluating, comparing, synthesizing, and contemplating the coded data. Such steps occurred either by directly relying on the coded responses from close-ended questions, or by way of making transcriptions and in some cases post coding responses from thematic analysis. Creswell and Plano-Clark (2007) noted that one of the procedures for mixed-methods data analysis is related to concurrent data analysis in which both qualitative and quantitative data are merged. Merging came in by complementing qualitative with quantitative data. Below, is Table 2 which shows how merging was done in this study according to the benchmark set by Creswell and Plano-Clark (2007), and Rosa (2010).

Table 2: Showing an outline of the protocol of data analysis

STAGE 1		
Separate qualitative and quantitative analyses		
Qualitative Data Analysis 1. Prepare the data: enter in open-ended questions. 2. Explore the data: organize into themes. 3. Analyse the data: Thematic and document analysis. 4. Represent the results		Quantitative Data Analysis 1. Prepare the data: fill the pre-codes. 2. Explore the data: data clean and post-code. 3. Analyse the data: Use SPSS models and Excel spreadsheet. 4. Represent the results
STAGE 2		
Merge the data sets		
1. Transform the data 2. Relate and compare the data 3. Compare the results		

Source: Adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) and Rosa (2010).

In analysing the research findings, I was aware that some of the responses especially those captures through open-ended questions could come as perceptions articulated by respondents as acceptable narratives. Therefore, the analysis and interpretation of paternity leave and its determinants in this thesis was done by attempting to differentiate mere opinion from deeply held attitudes or values.

These questionnaires had a lot of variables which were statistically analysed by using SPSS and where applicable, using Excel spreadsheet. Quantitative data which the study collected, was eventually organized, analysed and presented through descriptive statistics (Hawkes and Marsh, 2005). Data was disaggregated by considering and comparing inequalities of respondents within each participating institution, or in groups of non-paternity leave takers or paternity leave takers. Data on individual respondent's salary was arranged in an excel spreadsheet table in order to find the income equalities amongst the respondents of the study sites of interest in this research. Analyses also included comparison of means, correlation, regression (using SPSS), and display of outputs from excel spreadsheet. Linear and binary logistic regressions were used in this study in order to establish causality in the analysis. The dependent variables used are also called regressand, while independent variables are called regressors.

Regression estimates were used to describe data and to explain the relationship between one dependent variable and or more independent variables. In doing the regression analysis, there was a task of fitting a single line through a scatter plot. Qualitative data was obtained using open-ended questions within the semi-structured self-administered questionnaires. Qualitative data entered as narratives in these open-ended questions was arranged into emerging groups of themes. Such themes were quantified in order to indicate the response margins. In the qualitative analysis, direct quotations from respondents were used, either obtained from the sound recording or from open-ended questions. Questions of particular interest here focused on: kind of job of respondent, education background of both the respondent and wife, income and source of livelihood, number of children of the respondent. All the quantitative data was entered into the SPSS template. The other data was entered in the Excel spreadsheet 2013

depending on the specific data being referred to. Three different datasets were developed for the SPSS processing. Correlation tables were produced in order to show the relationship of variables in explaining a particular determinant of paternity leave according to this study. At the same time, tests of causality were used in certain applicable situations. Such causality was analysed using comparison of means, and regression tables.

Qualitative data was sorted into themes and post-coded where necessary. On one occasion, the clarification on an open-ended question was sound-recorded and transcribed. Qualitative data was captured as string data in the SPSS template. Such qualitative data eventually was put in categories or themes and quantified. In certain peculiar cases, such qualitative data was quoted as narratives or quoted verbatim (and later transcribed if an audio recorder was used) and used according to the issue at hand. Chapter four presented the full details of the analysis and the discussion of the findings.

Every respondent amongst the 45 non-paternity leave takers and 8 paternity leave takers was required to attempt questions 27 to 30 (for paternity leave takers), and question 28 through question 31 (for non-paternity leave takers) depending on their questionnaire. The income inequalities of non-paternity leave taker-respondents from Southern Region Water-Board, Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources, and Chancellor College were different. When data on income from all the 53 distributed questionnaires (45 non-paternity leave takers and 8 paternity leave takers) within an institution, or across institutions was analysed, the Gini Indices were produced on excel spreadsheet.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

Burton et al. (2008) emphasised that there has been a growing awareness of ethical issues in relation to practitioner research particularly action research. Consent, confidentiality and privacy were ethical issues that were covered in this study.

Confidentiality and privacy entail securing the identity of the respondents with some anonymity unless the consent of disclosure is given voluntarily. The study queried participants form Staff Returns which is a confidential database of any work institution. As a way of enhancing privacy and confidentiality, encryption and creation of pseudo-names was utilized (Flick, 2009). Here, identifiers were indicated as “Respondent’s ID). The ID is important in identifying the respondent and assuring them of keeping their identities confidential. Respondents have sensitive information which the study tool ought to inquire on, such as income/salary amount. An assurance was made of the “future use of the material, whether being available in the public domain” (Burton et al. 2008: 51)

On the issue of consent, respondents were requested for their freedom to participate in the study. Seeking consent was done on two folds: formal and informal consent. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process because it empowers the participant to be knowledgeable about the research and make an informed decision to be part of the research process. This consent, especially informed consent (Flick, 2009; Burton et al. 2008) is where participants have to agree to partake a study on the basis of information given to them by the researcher. What Burton et al. (2008) emphasized on was that “participants’ consent may be implicit by return of self-completion, but will have to be explicit in the case of interviews, etc.” (p. 57). On the other hand, formal

consent is when a formal written document will have to be presented to the authority to conduct the research to be granted. This authority can be on behalf of the sampled audience, institution or individual respondent. In this study, consent was sought from the Authorizing Officers of sampled institutions and from the sampled respondents. Consent across the institutions was sought through formal response or verbal communication to the researcher after a formal submission of a letter of request to conduct academic research and an introductory letter from the PAS Department.

3.8 Study Areas

The research was carried out in five institutions which included Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources (Bunda campus), the Office of the Ombudsman (Headquarters), Southern Region Water-board (Zomba Offices), Parliament of Malawi (Lilongwe Office), and Chancellor College (University of Malawi).

Case studies institutions were obtained out of convenience. Choice of these institutions was purposive and based on a tip that these institutions have the Conditions of Services that provide for paternity leave. For example, the choice of the study institutions like Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Office of the Ombudsman and Parliament of Malawi were done driven by the proximity of the institutions to the workplace of the researcher in Lilongwe. However, choice of Chancellor College (University of Malawi) and Southern Region Water-board was purposive in order to provide comparison in terms of the actual take-up of paternity leave according to the interest of this study. Parliament of Malawi is one arm of Government according to the structure of governance systems in Malawi. Malawi Public Service Management Policy (2018: 2) provides that public service “includes all the three branches of Government

namely the Executive, the legislature and the Judiciary.” Choice of Parliament of Malawi was on the basis that such institution is where policies and laws are formulated by Members of Parliament. The main aim was to have a comparative analysis in terms of governance of policies as formulated by parliament and implemented by the executive arm of government. As such, other research sites were drawn from the executive branch of government, of course with a number of considerations as well. However, the other arm of government: the judiciary was not considered in this study (as comparison (probably this could be a gap for further research as a comprehensive comparison), due to study limitations like time.

3.9 Research Limitations⁴

Two categories of limitations were considered in this research. The ideal (expected limitations) and the real (actual limitations encountered). The following limitations were considered.

Firstly, lack of literature within Malawi and around most of developing countries. There is an acknowledgment that more research on paternity leave policy has been done in developed countries than in developing countries (Mun and Brinton, 2015). Some literature pointed out that very few developing countries have the policy on paper with little or no implementation (Haataja, 2009; Sonke Gender Justice, 2015). Smit (2010: 7) found that “very few developing countries have legislation granting parental leave. Furthermore, Govender’s (2015) study also indicated that there are very few, if any, legislated work-protected leave policies available at, or around the time of the birth of

⁴ The limitations were in two types: ideal (which were anticipated) before the study was conducted, and the real limitations (which were encountered during the actual field activity of data collection and analysis).

their children for fathers working and living in the Southern African Development Community (SADC). Mokomane (2014) highlights that only 12 countries in the SADC region provide fathers at least some time off work. However, only three countries: Mauritius, Uganda, and Tanzania recognise paternity leave in its 'pure' form. It was therefore not surprising that literature from Malawi, and of course from Africa broadly, was seriously scarce.

One other visible limitation experienced was on the incongruent work-plans between those of the study areas against researcher's work-plan to complete the research study. The mismatch came in because the sampled institutions had key functions at the same time data for this study was intended to be collected. Unfortunately, this was problematic to reconcile and skew the plan towards the researcher's side since an attempt to do the same could have risked the whole data collection process in terms of respondents' willingness to share the data.

There were extreme bureaucratic lines that retarded or negated data collection from other institutions or individuals. The Weberian bureaucracy has normally been linked to the rule-based personnel management. This implies that by all means, employees stick to the written down code of doing things: the dictation of the rules of the institution without being critical about them (Jarvalt, 2012). This is a form of traditional bureaucracy that lacks flexibility and a contrary application of other guidelines that support the common good. However, Itika (2011: 16) offers a solution to extreme bureaucracy arguing that; "... Fast-tracking a change in an organizational environment requires the ability to take prompt decisions and take the right measures before it is too

late. Flexibility and adaptation seeks to reduce bureaucracy and inflexible working rules and regulations. What matters most is not how the job is done, but what is achieved. There was tendency from other respondents to conceal information. Most of the information that was concealed was about salary or source of income of both respondent and the wife. The reason being put across to the researcher by the respondents was that their information on salary or income was not a public matter. However, when collecting the questionnaire, probing was made so that the respondent could disclose the actual salary. Also, an assurance that the information on salary was only usable for academic purposes in this research. There was also a worrisome tendency of respondents to deny giving consent for the researcher to conduct face-to-face interview with their wives. As such, some crucial primary qualitative data through narratives by wives of respondents was missing. Further research with predominance in qualitative design could target spouses of these respondents in order to appreciate other dimensions of paternity leave taking and usage.

To the worst, other respondents returned the whole questionnaire without attempting it. The challenge though was that respondents could just fill anyhow, or other questions being left not responded to. The tendency of not filling the questionnaire arose on a number of fronts as reasons. On one hand, other respondents showed that their work made them busy hence could not spare time to attempt the questionnaire (of course such situation happened despite three call backs to collect the tool). The other reason was that sampling was systematically random without replacement (of course a methodology which could be changed to be sampling with replacement, if a further study is taken. On the extreme end, other sampled officers just returned because they simply did not want to participate in the study. Such officers, just sent away the

researcher or kept the questionnaire only to return it unfilled on the last day of data collection. In trying to resolve the challenges encountered in the filling and returning questionnaires, heads of institutions were consulted in order to offer guidance on how best to collect the data from retained questionnaires, however compliance to attempt the questionnaires was still a challenge. Now, since every component of the study had a time frame for completion, any further extension in data collection could have affected subsequent steps. Therefore, there was need to curtail the exercise though with many unfilled questionnaires that were returned.

3.10 Chapter Conclusion

Chapter three outlined the study of determinants of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service used a mixed-methods design. Predominantly, according to the mixed-methods design typology (Creswell et al. 2003; and, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004), the research used quantitative methods followed by a qualitative method. The research will be conducted in five institutions which are: Parliament of Malawi and Lilongwe University of Agriculture of Natural Resource chosen purposefully due to factors of convenience. However, sampling of respondents was both purposive and using simple random from the staff returns of these institutions, especially on non-paternity leave takers. On the other hand, spouses of leave takers, key informants from the DHRMD and officials from HR/Administration who administer leave policies, will be purposefully sampled. During analysis, the quantitative data was processed using SPSS and MS Excel. The qualitative data was analysed thematically.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

Chapter four presents and discusses study findings from quantitative and qualitative data which was collected using the semi-structured self-administered questionnaires as indicated in the previous chapter. The aim of this study, as mentioned earlier on, is to understand determinants of paternity leave in Malawi Public Service. The chapter is organized in a manner that section one presents and discusses causes of men taking or not taking paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service. Section two further presents and discusses the effects of paternity leave practice on workplace and family life of public servants. The analysis of the legal/policy framework governing leave administration in the Malawi Public Service, is made. Finally, section four presents and discusses the findings on challenges affecting the implementation of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service.

4.2 Debating determinants of paternity leave

Objective 1: assess factors that influence men in taking or not taking paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service. The objective was assessed alongside a question: *which factors influence men to take or not take paternity leave in Malawi's Public Service?* The objective was tackled by considering the following major thematic areas: socio-

economic elements, organizational culture (politics and decision making) and, culture and ethnicity.

4.2.1 Socio-economic elements

Socio-economic well-being was assessed on whether it determined uptake of paternity leave or not. In this study, these variables included: income, occupation, gender, education, culture and ethnicity, perceptions (attitudes and preferences),

4.2.1.1 Income: Pay inequalities and institutional support

“A key economic indicator for measuring poverty is income” Agbenyo et al. (2017: 1). Income inequality was assessed amongst respondents. The Gini index and the Lorenz Curves were used in assessing and analysing income inequalities amongst respondents. Any variations in terms of income of the respondents, affected the outlook of the Gini index and the Lorenz curves. Gini index and Lorenz Curve, according to this study are the primary measures of income inequalities in a group. The analysis depended on data generated using questionnaires of non-paternity leave takers from question number 28 up to question 30. Also, there was dependency on the data from questions 27 through question 30 out of the questionnaires of paternity leave takers. The intention was to collect close-ended responses. The Gini index of 0.40848 for the Office of the Ombudsman was realised in this study, see Table 3.

Table 3: Showing the Gini index for respondents from Office of the Ombudsman

					Cumm	Cumm	
Institution	Income	Population	% income	% population	% income	% population	Gini
	0	0	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
Office of the Ombudsman	0	1	0.00	0.20	0.00	0.20	0.00
Office of the Ombudsman	0	1	0.00	0.20	0.00	0.40	0.00
Office of the Ombudsman	107000	1	0.32	0.20	0.32	0.60	0.03
Office of the Ombudsman	109000	1	0.33	0.20	0.65	0.80	0.10
Office of the Ombudsman	114000	1	0.35	0.20	1.00	1.00	0.17
							0.30
						Area A =	0.20
						Gini =	0.40848

Source: Data from Office of the Ombudsman (October, 2019).

Such Gini index was slightly below the middle margin. The study therefore meant that an inequality index of 0.409 from the group of paternity leave takers alone which was slightly below the mid-point on a continuum of the Gini index scale. Table 5 also provided the actual salaries disclosed by respondents which depicted the individual respondent's income. Data analysis also revealed that by having salaries that were close or similar to each other among respondents, the Gini index moved close to "0" than close to "1". Having a relatively small Gini index, meant income levels were almost similar. The closeness of salaries meant that there was a fairly income equality amongst non-paternity leave taker-respondents from the Office of the Ombudsman. However, when data for the non-paternity leave takers was analysed separately, a Gini index of 0.612 was registered, see **Annex 1** below explains that as the Gini index moves towards 1, the income inequality as well increases.

Findings on income inequalities obtained in this study agree with those of Porter (2017). This author noted that "Southern Africa has the highest levels of inequality than any region in the world and is expected to see an increase in inequality over time". Furthermore, when data on income for these non-paternity leave respondents in each institution was analysed, the following Gini indices were recorded enlisted as: 0.548

for Southern Region Water-board, and 0.456 for Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Parliament of Malawi had a Gini index of 0.282. The Gini index had implications on the behaviour of the Lorenz curve. The type of oscillation of the readings of Gini coefficient affects the budging of the Lorenz curve. Such budging translates into an economic inequality amongst respondents within the group being analysed as it was depicted by a Lorenz curve, see Figure 2 and Figure 3 below.

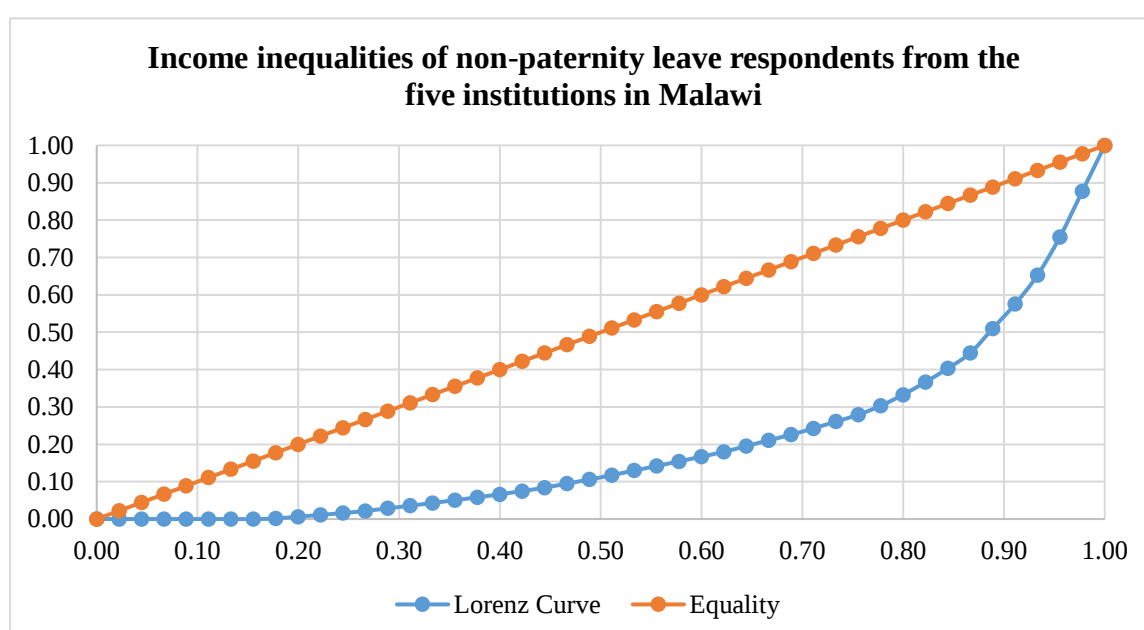


Figure 2: Showing the Lorenz Curve of non-paternity leave takers from Ombudsman

Source: Excel dataset (October, 2019)

Such budging as indicated in Figure 2 above, means that there was inequality skewing slightly towards some perfect inequality of '1'. Respondents who concealed their salaries were responsible for the movement of the Lorenz Curve on the x -axis (zero-margin). Also, an analysis of the inequalities amongst paternity leave takers was made. Below in Figure 3 is the Lorenz curve of the same.

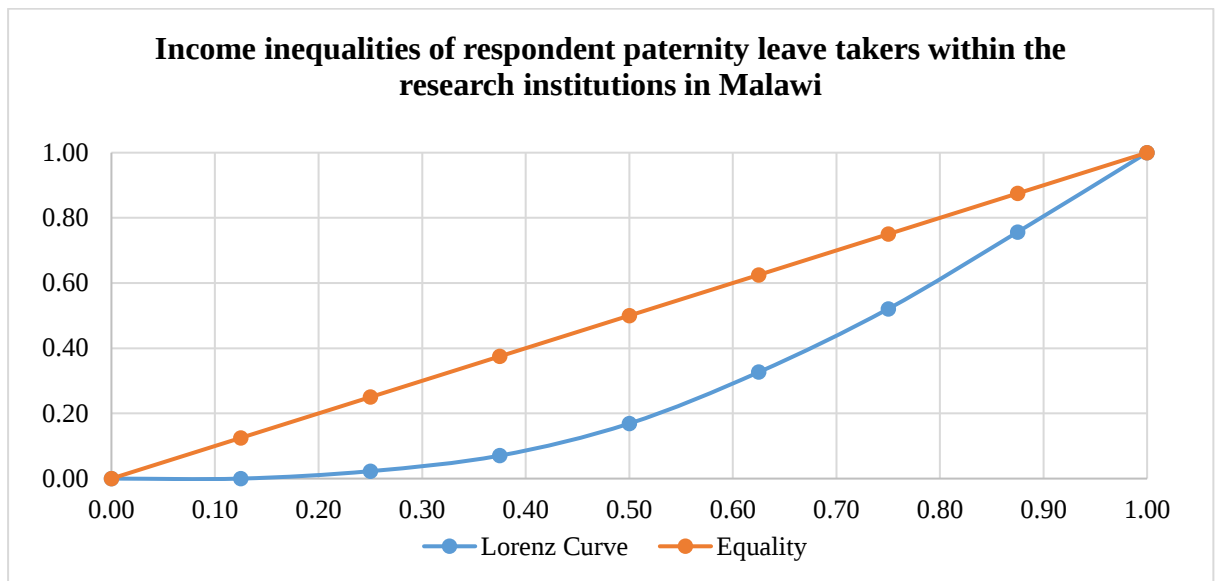


Figure 3: Showing the Lorenz Curve for paternity leave takers

Source: Data from excel spreadsheet (October, 2019)

Figure 2 and Figure 3 show budging-out of the Lorenz curve according to the output of the Gini index. The budging suggests that the income of non-paternity leave taker-responder amongst of officers in the Office of the Ombudsman does not differ that much. However, it was difficult to establish the correlation and causality by merely focusing at the Gini indices and Lorenz curves.

As such, linear regression analysis was conducted against a number of variables according to the two primary categories of respondents: paternity leave takers and non-paternity leave takers. Firstly, the test for normality was ran based on Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test, see **Table 4**.

Table 4: Showing Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for income against considering paternity leave

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test					
		Source of income for the respondent	Income of Respondent	Source of livelihood for the wife	Considered taking paternity leave in the organisation
N		44	38	45	42
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	2.5000	604295.2187	2.4000	1.62
	Std. Deviation	.90219	733022.62431	1.25045	.492
	Absolute	.438	.310	.246	.400
Most Extreme Differences	Positive	.438	.310	.246	.277
	Negative	-.267	-.222	-.218	-.400
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		2.902	1.910	1.652	2.592
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.001	.008	.000

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

K-S is not significant if p is greater than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$). Therefore, K-S test is significant on all outputs since p is less than 0.05). From the **Table 4** above, source of income of respondent had $p = 0.000$, income of respondent had $p = 0.001$, source of livelihood of the wife ($p = 0.008$), and considering taking paternity leave in the organisation was significant at (0.000). Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis that the sample distribution is multivariate normal. Then, logistic regression, which is a form of linear regression was considered in order to detect causality. Logistic regression, like any linear regression is a predictive analysis. In this research, and especially on this section where two data sets with 8 paternity leave takers, and 45 non-paternity leave takers were considered, measurement was done using three variables namely: source of income for respondent, income of respondent, and source of livelihood of wife. The test questions were: *how do these independent variables predict consideration to take*

paternity leave (for non-paternity leave takers), and how did these variables affect economically when on paternity leave (for paternity leave takers). **Annex 2** shows the Chi-square output from the logistic regression on dataset of non-paternity leave takers. The Omnibus Tests shows the Chi-square goodness of fit test where it was not significant because the *t*-test score was 0.205. The Chi-square test has a null hypothesis that the intercept and all coefficients are 0,205 which was greater than 0.05. Therefore, we will not reject the null hypothesis. However, by the Pseudo R^2 (the -2 log of likelihood which is the minimization criteria used in this SPSS) considering the model summary in **Table 5** which included,

Table 5: Showing income on non-paternity leave takers against considering taking paternity leave

Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	44.323 ^a	.119	.161

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 4 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Source: Dataset for non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

The Nagelkerke's R^2 is 0.161 which indicates that the model is bad and minimal. In the same regard, the Cox & Snell's R^2 is interpreted as 11.9% probability of the 45 respondents in considering to take paternity leave. That margin of 11.9% was very small and not consequential to the prediction for taking the leave, but rather ideal for non-taking. Furthermore, **Table 6** for Variables in the Equation, logistic regression analysis provided the following function: $y = -.394 + -.358x_1 + 0.0x_2 + .648x_3$ (where 1 is source of income of respondent, 2 is income of respondent, and 3 is source of livelihood of wife). The table here also included the test of significance for each of the coefficients in the model. It was seen from the results that by using either significance (sig.) as *t* or

even the Wald (t^2), independent variables were not significant. Then, an improved way to check the significance of the test from *Enter* to *Forward: Wald* was carried out, see the output in table 7.

Table 6: Showing regression of variables in the equation for non-paternity leave takers

Variables in the Equation						
	B	S.E.	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0 Constant	.336	.338	.991	1	.320	1.400

Source: Dataset for paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

The prediction is not significant either (0.991). The output suggested that the odds of considering to take paternity leave by taking source of income of respondent, income of respondent, and source of livelihood of the wife, are 33.6 which is minimal, with a p -value of 0.991 such that we cannot reject the null hypothesis. As such we accept the null hypothesis that there is no causality on the dependent and independent variables. When the dataset for the cohort of paternity leave takers was analysed, the output results according to **Annex 3** below. The Chi-square test of goodness of fit indicated lack of significance since $t = 0.207$. Therefore, according to the table below, the significance test of 0.207 meant that the null hypothesis needed to be accepted that there was no causal relationship. However, the model summary in **Table 8**, explains that the Nagelkerke's R^2 is 0.686 which indicates that the model is high and moderately good enough to predict the causality of the dependent and independent variables. In the same regard, the Cox & Snell's R^2 of 8 respondents interprets 47.8%.

Table 7: Showing a regression model summary for paternity leave takers

Model Summary			
Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	3.819 ^a	.478	.686

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 20 because maximum iterations has been reached. Final solution cannot be found.

Source: Dataset of paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

Therefore, it was interpreted that there was a 48% probability of the respondents in considering to take paternity leave. Further analysis on variables in the equation in **Annex 4** below showed that all the independent variables were significant when Wald value were used. The test function for paternity leave takers' group generated from the output is: $y = -202.27 + 9.744^*x_1 + 18.957^*x_2 + 48.861^*x_3$. What the results meant was that from the function $y = -.394 + -.358^*x_1 + 0.0^*x_2 + .648^*x_3$ for non-paternity leave takers, a poor source of income with low income amounts and, poor source of livelihood of wife, have a negative influence in inducing the non-paternity leave takers in considering taking of leave. This is why there are many non-paternity leave takers (-0.394). On the other hand, from the function; $y = -202.27 + 9.744^*x_1 + 18.957^*x_2 + 48.861^*x_3$ for every small amount of income associated with the source of income and livelihood of both the husband and wife, there is a corresponding indication of being affected economically (-202.27) when on paternity leave.

Therefore, the results from the outputs show that taking paternity leave amongst the group of paternity leave takers was significantly affected by the income of the respondent and, source of income and livelihood of both the respondent and the wife. Also, for non-paternity leave takers' income and source of their income and livelihood were caused their lack of consideration of taking paternity leave.

4.2.1.2 Occupation

In this study, the kind of job (being clerical, custodial, and managerial) as independent variable were analysed alongside the following two dependent variables namely: considering taking paternity leave, and affected economically for taking paternity leave. Occupation of an employee relates to how much disposable income in terms of salary, wages and other sources of income one has. Descriptive statistics were run and generated a number of output, see **Table 8**.

Table 8: Showing descriptive statistics for the kind of job of paternity leave takers
Kind of Job of Respondent

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Managerial	6	60.0	75.0	75.0
	Custodial	1	10.0	12.5	87.5
	Clerical	1	10.0	12.5	100.0
	Total	8	80.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	20.0		
Total		10	100.0		

Source: Dataset of paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Firstly, the descriptive statistics generated from the dataset of paternity leave takers, and non-paternity leave takers according to tables below, there were many managers (6 respondents) who took paternity leave than clerical and custodial (1 respondent from each category). On the other hand, **Table 9** shows that most of the non-paternity leave takers (29 respondents) belonged to clerical category of employees than were the other categories.

Table 9: Showing descriptive statics for the kind of job of non-paternity leave takers
Kind of Job of Respondent

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Clerical	29	58.0	69.0	69.0
Managerial	8	16.0	19.0	88.1
Custodial	5	10.0	11.9	100.0
Total	42	84.0	100.0	
Missing System	8	16.0		
Total	50	100.0		

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

By considering the correlation results in **Annex 5** below, the correlation from output of $r = .035$ was not enough to predict the causation. Therefore, regression analysis was performed and a number of outputs were realised. From the table on the model summary, see **Table 10** below.

Table 10: Showing regression model summary for non-paternity leave takers and considering taking paternity leave

Model Summary^b					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.035 ^a	.001	-.026	.492	1.532

a. Predictors: (Constant), Kind of Job of Respondent

b. Dependent Variable: Considered taking paternity leave in the organisation

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

The linear regression outputs provided the *adjusted* R^2 which was equal to -0.026 with $R^2 = .001$. This means that the linear regression explains 1% of the variance in the data. The Durbin-Watson's $d = 1.532$ is between the two critical values of $1.5 < d < 2.5$. When the ANOVA table was produced, the F-test score was consulted. The F-test had the null hypothesis that the linear relationship between the two variables (thus, the $R^2 = 0$) was zero. Therefore, from **Table 11**, $F = 0.047$ with 38 degrees of freedom.

Table 11: Showing ANOVA linear regression between the kind of job of non-paternity leave takers, and considering taking paternity leave

ANOVA ^a					
Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	.011	1	.011	.047	.830 ^b
Residual	8.963	37	.242		
Total	8.974	38			

a. Dependent Variable: Considered taking paternity leave in the organisation

b. Predictors: (Constant), Kind of Job of Respondent

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

The test result is very low hence it could be assumed that there is a no linear relationship between the variables in the model. Also, from **Annex 6** the significance of all coefficients and the intercept in the model indicated that the linear regression analysis estimates the function to be $y = 1.609 + .021 * x$. This means that an increase in one unit of x results in an increase of 0.021 units of y . The test of significance of the linear regression analysis tests the null hypothesis which is estimated to be 0 . The t -test therefore finds that only the constant (intercept) is highly significant ($p < 0.001$) hence it is significantly different from zero. However, the regression analysis model estimated that the causality in a model of considering to take paternity leave = $1.609 + 0.021 * \text{Kind of job of respondent}$ with an adjusted R^2 of -2.6% . Therefore, there is a positive linear relationship such that it can be concluded that for non-paternity leave takers, the kind of job a respondent has, causes them to consider taking paternity leave. On the other hand, the correlation from the table below, $r = -.325$ is inverse and small such that it could not predict meaningful causality, see **Annex 7**, below. Therefore, from the model summary in **Table 12** for the paternity leave takers, the adjusted R^2 is $-.044$ which is very small and inverse.

Table 12: Showing the regression model summary of the kind of job or respondent and being economically affected when on paternity leave

Model Summary ^b					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.325 ^a	.105	-.044	.52874	1.163

a. Predictors: (Constant), Kind of Job of Respondent

b. Dependent Variable: Affected economically when on paternity leave

Source: Dataset of paternity leave takers

However, the $R^2 = .105$. This means that the linear regression explains 10.5% of the variance in the data. In the table above, Durbin-Watson's $d = 1.163$ which is a value outside the critical values of $1.5 < d < 2.5$. Therefore, there is an assumption that there is a first order linear autocorrelation in the data. Furthermore, from **Annex 8** of ANOVA below, F-test has the null hypothesis that the linear relationship between the two variables of zero (thus, the $R^2 = 0$). Therefore, $F = 0.707$ with 7 degrees of freedom such that the test is not significant, hence it was assumed that there is no linear relationship between the variables in the model. However, by using the regression coefficients of the constant and the variables in **Table 13** below, the model indicated that the analysis estimated a function of $y = 1.968 + -.226^*x$. The null hypothesis of the model that the regression estimated is 0.

Table 13: Showing coefficient of kind of job against being economically affected when on leave

Coefficients							
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.968		2.698	.036		
	Kind of Job of Respondent	-.226	.269	-.325	-.841	.433	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Affected economically when on paternity leave

Source: Dataset of paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

This means that an increase in one unit of x results in a decrease with -0.226 units of y . Furthermore, the t -test finds that none of the variable is significant ($p < 0.001$) though the test for the variable is negative, just below the zero margin. Therefore, the regression analysis model of being affected economically when on paternity leave = $1.968 - 0.226 \times \text{Kind of job of respondent}$, with an adjusted R^2 is -4.4% . In short, there is a possible causality that the kind of job one has did not cause a consideration of taking paternity leave, and did not affect economically those respondents who took paternity leave. In other words, kind of job had no causal effect on the decision of taking paternity leave and in long turn, did not either effect economic status of the respondent and the entire family of those who were on leave.

4.2.1.3 Education

The study found according to figure 4 below that 62.5% of non- paternity leave taker-respondents had tertiary education, 26.67% had secondary education whereas 11.11% had undergone vocational training.

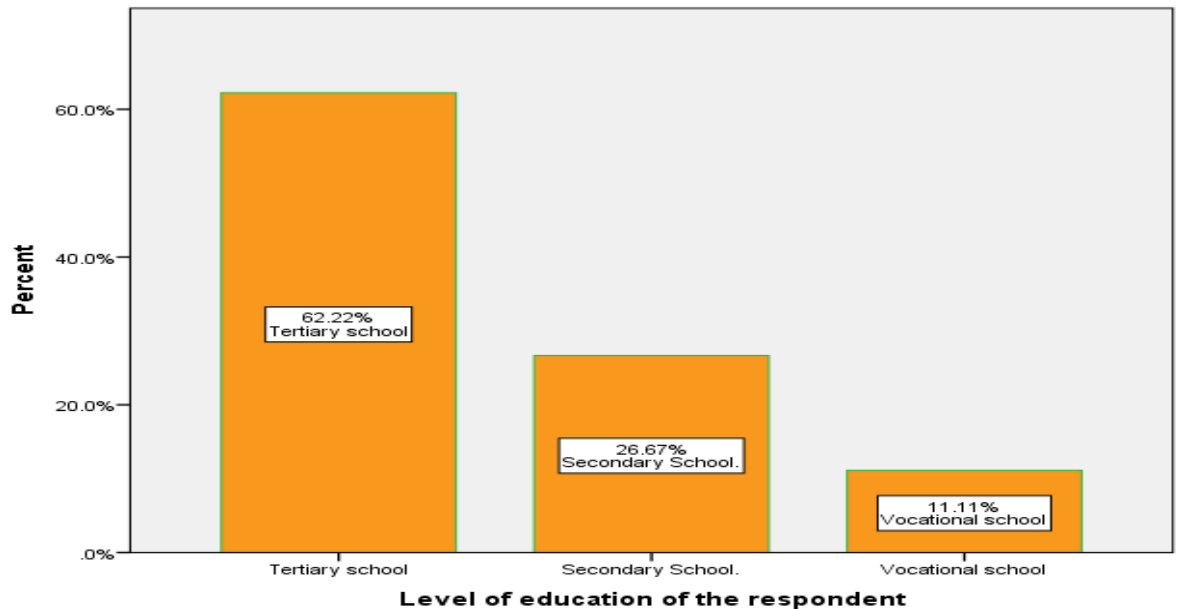


Figure 4: Showing level of education of respondents

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

On the other side, amongst paternity leave takers, 87.5% were tertiary school graduates (University or vocational colleges) while 12.5% only had primary school education. As seen in **Figure 5**;

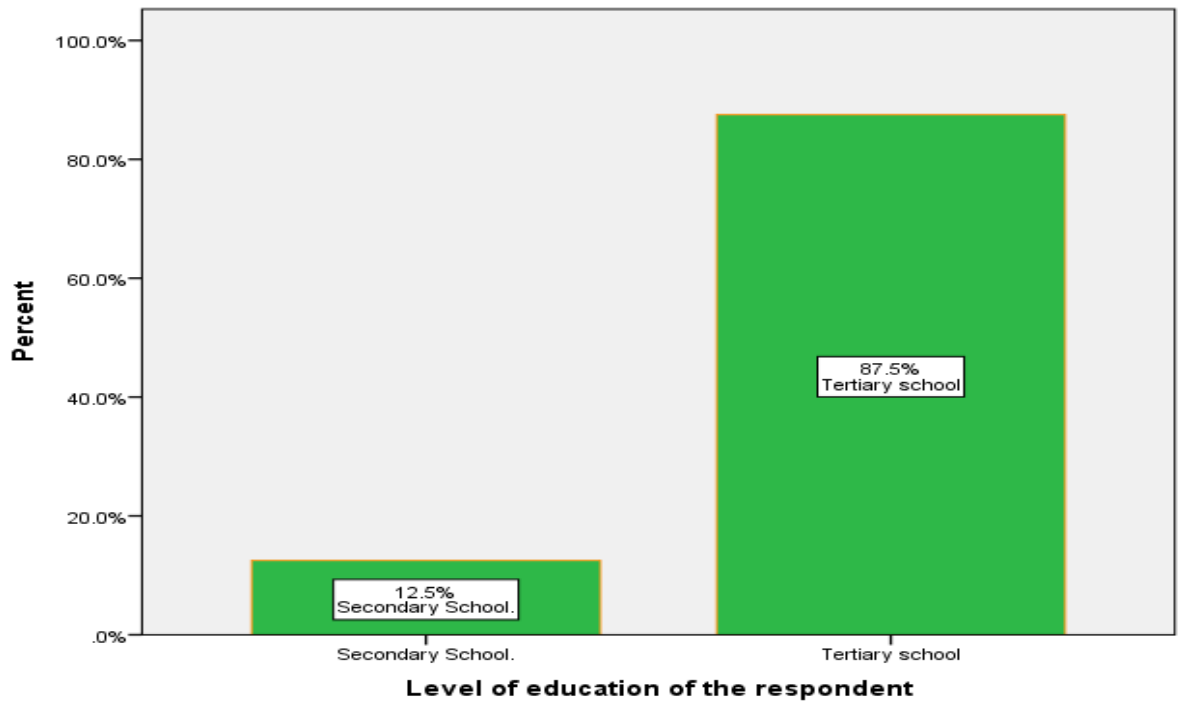


Figure 5: Showing level of education of paternity leave takers

Source: Dataset for paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

In terms of correlation for paternity leave takers, **Annex 9** explains there was a directly significant relationship between level of education of the respondent and the level of education of the spouse ($r = 1.00$). However, the level of education of the respondent and the level of education of the spouse, moderately did not make ($r = - 0.488$) the respondent to be affected economically when on paternity leave. On the other side, **Table 14** for non-paternity leave takers provides a correlation of the variables on education and consideration of taking paternity leave in the organisation.

Table 14: Level of education and consideration paternity leave

Correlations				
		Level of education of the respondent	Level of education of the spouse	Considered taking paternity leave in the organisation
Level of education of the respondent	Pearson	1	-.185	.127
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.230	.422
	N	45	44	42
Level of education of the spouse	Pearson	-.185	1	-.216
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.230		.174
	N	44	44	41
Considered taking paternity leave in the organisation	Pearson	.127	-.216	1
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.422	.174	
	N	42	41	42

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

The output from the Pearson's coefficient suggested that education level of the respondent had a small margin (*0.127*) in influencing consideration of taking paternity leave in the organisation. However, education level of the spouse had no relationship to the consideration of taking paternity leave. In trying to find the causal relationship and influence of such education level of both the spouse and the officer (husband) in the decision and choice of paternity leave, the binary logistic regression was applied on both groups from their independent databases. From both groups of respondents, two independent variables: *education level of respondent*, and *education level of spouse*, were analysed against *considered taking paternity leave in the organisation*, as well as *affected economically for being on paternity leave*. The model summary for the dataset of non-paternity leave takers, see **Annex 10** explains that the likelihood of considering paternity leave taking based on education level of respondent and, education level of

spouse is moderately high and good at 51.26 of the -2 log likelihood. However, the Nagelkerke's R^2 is 0.084 which indicates that the model is bad and very minimal. There is an agreement between Nagelkerke and Cox & Snell's R^2 because the value of 0.061 is equally minimal. Therefore, from the Cox & Snell there was a 6.1% which is very small thereby predicting that education level of both the respondent and the spouse do not help non-paternity leave takers to consider taking paternity leave. In concretizing the analysis, **Annex 11** below explains on variables in the equation. It has been shown that, the intercept (constant) and the variables relate in a functional relationship as below: $y = .078 + .351^*x - 232^*x$. That function suggests that for every increase in the units of education level of respondents, there is a corresponding minimal increase in the units of considering taking paternity leave. At the same time, having no education amongst spouses had correspondingly few units of considering paternity leave taking, though there was no significance according to the output from Wald's displayed results. However, such relationship was not consistent, hence the variables in equation's analysis was improved by taking the *Forward: Wald* method instead of the *Enter* method during processing. The output from the analysis is displayed in **Table 15** below:

Table 15: Showing changed processing from Enter method, to Forward Wald method Variables in the Equation

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0 Constant	.550	.324	2.878	1	.090	1.733

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

The new intercept relationship (B) is 55.0 a margin which is high and better than the 51.26 of the -2 log of likelihood. Therefore, when the education level increased, the logistic regression predicts that the respondent will consider taking paternity leave in the organization. The findings in this study agree with what Moss (2014) noted already

that men with high education, employed in the public sector in middle-sized or big organisations, and whose partners also have high education, have been more likely to take the father's month – but the leave periods they have taken were shorter than those taken by men with less education.

4.2.1.4 Perception: attitude and preference

Another socio-economic factor that the study found determining paternity leave in Malawi Public Service was perception. In this study, perceptions were analysed together with attitudes and preferences. These perceptions or attitudes concern the respondents, their spouses, workmates, and employers towards paternity leave. The study found that regardless of the level of education of the employees, 96.5% of the non-paternity leave takers acknowledged that they perceive paternity leave being good despite themselves not taking it. Perceptions of non-paternity leave taker-respondents were processed against education level, see **Table 16** below.

Table 16: Showing perceptions against education level of respondents

Correlations

			Perception of paternity leave based on education background	Future prospect of taking paternity leave
Spearman's rho	Perception of paternity leave based on education background	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.317*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.047
		N	44	40
	Future prospect of taking paternity leave	Correlation Coefficient	.317*	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.047	.
		N	40	41

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Data set for non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

The analysis showed that 100% of paternity leave takers had obvious reason to perceive paternity leave as good. However, in terms of future intentions to process paternity leave, 65.9% of the non-paternity leave takers indicated positivity while a 31.7% correlation between perceptions on paternity leave based on education background and future prospect of taking paternity leave, was registered at 0.05 significant level. This is a moderate relationship which entails that as the officer contemplates on the goodness of paternity leave, their level of understanding based on education they have, would dictate them to either take or not paternity leave. The descriptive statistics revealed that 79.1% of the respondents think that potential paternity leave takers must go ahead with the decision of taking leave, while 18.6% think that employees must just take normal holidays other than paternity leave. Surprisingly, 2.3% of the respondents perceived that sneaking out when there was a new-born child at home, was a better way of staying off-the-job other than taking the paternity leave.

The perception officers have towards paternity leave is not good. Humana Resources Officers in these study institutions already took cognisance of the perceptions respondents and other officers had on paternity leave. Two (2) Human Resource Officers felt that officers enjoyed paternity leave since it was a new innovation. However, the other three (3) officers were not sure since they were not sure either as Human Resources Officers, whether their institutions had paternity leave or not. For example, a number of respondents had various sentiments regarding their perceptions of paternity leave. Regarding Question 19: *how officers perceive paternity leave in your organisation*, three (3) respondents perceived that taking paternity leave was a waste of time and not necessary. By mere focus at such analysis of variations, it was not adequate to draw a conclusion that perception of goodness could influence the

decision of paternity leave taking. These quotes imply that some respondents do not adequately value paternity leave in their organisations. They said that paternity leave:

“...waste of time” (HR-SRWB-1).

Another respondent observed that, paternity leave in their organisation is:

“Not considered as a serious matter” (HR-OOO-1).

In view of this, evidence from narratives in the open-ended questions helped to qualify the relationship of these variables.

4.2.2 Organizational culture: politics and influence of gender

The notion of organization culture looks at how much allowing the organization is. It looks at practices, norms, beliefs and behaviours. It focuses at the level of involvement and engagement of employees and management that enhance productivity and mutual co-existence. As regards this study, the variables that were looked at included: *contents of the organisational culture, the variables that were considered under organisation culture included: organisation respects cultural diversity, encouraged to value organisational culture, organisational culture affecting paternity leave decision, why organizations should promote decision of men to take paternity leave, and Should organization promote the decision of men taking paternity leave.* Variables were analysed from three different datasets of paternity leave takers, non-paternity leave takers and administrative officers. From the binary logistic regression analysis using the dataset of non-paternity leave takers, the model summary's output of likelihood in **Table 17** explains.

Table 17: Showing model summary of leave policy, cultural diversity and considering paternity leave

Model Summary			
Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	48.517 ^a	.160	.217

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 5 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

The Nagelkerke $R^2=0.217$ which is small to register a significant causal relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable. The Cox & Snell R^2 is 16.0% which is small as well. However, the -2 log of likelihood is 48.52 which is high but not good enough. Now, by taking the analysis further, the output form **Annex 12** shows the functional equation of the relationship of the dependent and independent variables. The function of the causal relationship is $y = -2.823 + 1.445^*x + 1.074^*x$. What that entails is that there is an inverse relationship such that for every 1.5-unit increase in organisation having paternity leave, and a 1.074-unit increase in organisation respecting cultural diversity, there is not consideration in taking paternity leave (-2.823. This inverse relationship implies that despite the organisation having a practice and policy on paternity leave (within its conditions of service), and the organisation respecting cultural diversity; the respondents did not consider taking paternity leave in the organisation.

Related to organisational culture is also an issue of how decision-making occurs in an institution like the family and workplace. The issue of culture in this case, touches even on household division of labour and bargaining, within the gender theory, and the rational decision within the rational choice theory. As such, politics also touches on decision making and opportunity to participate in making choices over a given range of

alternatives. These are variables that looked at gender compatibility within families and workplaces. The family and the work-place have the power to decide how resources have to be appropriated in the care of the new-born child and the mother. A number of variables that deal with organizational culture and practices were considered. Organisation politics was considered to have an element of gender in it. Gender focuses at the participation and involvement of both male and female in decision making. Such decision making can occur at any level within a social system: individual, family, and workplace (according to this study). The analysis of data relating to organizational politics, especially decision making at the household level, was done using descriptive statistics as seen in **Figure 6** below.

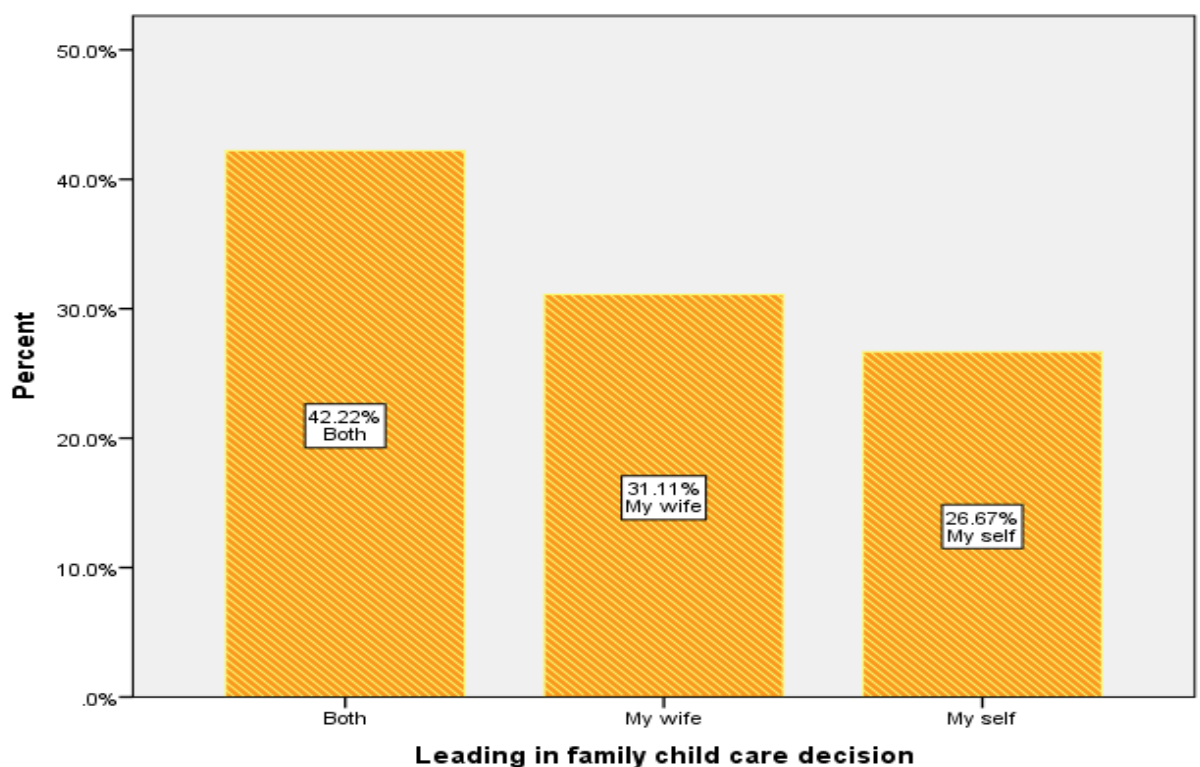


Figure 6: Showing who leads in family childcare decision making

Source: Dataset for non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

The graph shows that 42.22% of the decisions regarding childcare to which paternity leave taking is jointly made. Such arrangement is important in overturning the

breadwinner syndrome and is in tandem with one facet of the Gender theory by Gary Becker which looks at the household bargaining element. What this entails is that rational choice in taking paternity leave was better made as a consensus between wife and husband. As more family care decision-making is being shared, the egalitarian thinking of taking men as superior than women, or considering women as being destined for the home has changed. Comparatively, in terms of individualized decisions over childcare, women had a much lead (31.11%) over men 26.67% margin for men (husbands). As it has been observed, the issue of organisational culture and decision making on whether to take paternity leave or not, extends to affect the dimensions of gender within the family as well as the workplace. The analysis in this study also tried to establish the correlation of variables as seen in table below. **Table 18** below provides a correlation of variables in terms of gender and other socio-economic variables.

Table 18: Correlation between gender and, workplace regulations and practices

Correlations			Gender relations being affected by paternity leave taking	Relationship of leave policy to gender, law and Conditions of Service	Paternity leave affecting work-place practices
Spearman's rho	Gender relations being affected by paternity leave taking	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.571	1.000**
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.069	.
		N	8	8	8
	Relationship of leave policy to gender, law and Conditions of Service	Correlation Coefficient	.571	1.000	.571
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.069	.	.069
		N	8	8	8
	Paternity leave affecting work-place practices	Correlation Coefficient	1.000**	.571	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.069	.
		N	8	8	8

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Source: Data set for non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

The results meant that there is a 57.1% positive relationship on how two variables: *relationship of leave policy, law and conditions of service*, associate with *paternity leave affecting work-place practices*. Also, the analysis showed that there was a 100% strong and positive direct relationship at a significant level of 0.01 between gender relations and actual paternity leave taking at the workplace. By using the 2-tailed bivariate correlation, this study found that there is a strong correlation between gender relations being affected by paternity leave taking, and how work-place practices were affected due to taking of paternity leave. The findings in this study seem to suggest a bargaining type of gender order. The gender order here is in such a manner that rational decision making is by consensus. Taking of paternity leave and division of labour in childcare, according to the results is made jointly (38%). There is some agreement of the results from this study with those which were documented by Kululanga et al (2012) that male involvement in childcare by taking paternity leave is a relatively new approach in Malawi.

In trying to establish the correlation amongst variables like: *leading in family child care decision, discussing paternity leave decision at family level, and future prospect of taking paternity leave*, **Table 19** provided the results.

Table 19: Showing decision-making power, and future paternity leave taking

Correlations			Leading in family child care decision	Discussed paternity leave decision at family level	Future prospect of taking paternity leave
Spearman's rho	Leading in family child care decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.159	-.269*
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.167	.044
		N	45	39	41
	Discussed paternity leave decision at family level	Correlation Coefficient	-.159	1.000	.268
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.167	.	.052
		N	39	39	38
	Future prospect of taking paternity leave	Correlation Coefficient	-.269*	.268	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.044	.052	.
		N	41	38	41

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Source: Data set for paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

The output indicates that leading in family childcare decisions does not relate to respondent's future prospect of taking paternity leave (-0.269 at significance level of 0.05 in a –tailed relationship). However, there is a small but direct relationship of 0.268 (though weak), in future prospect of taking paternity leave, and having discussed paternity leave decision at family level. These correlations suggest that having known that the family once discussed paternity leave, already entices a father to consider future taking of the leave. However, being a leader in decision making does not automatically guarantee father's future attempts to take paternity leave. In order to concretise the causal relationship using binary logistic regression analysis, the following variables were considered from the dataset of paternity leave takers: *Reaction of women workmates for the respondent taking paternity leave, should organisations promote paternity leave taking decision, and Taking paternity leave contributed to relationship with family member*. The output on model summary in **Table 20** explains part of the causal relationship.

Table 20: Showing reaction of women workmates, and considering taking paternity leave

Model Summary			
Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	6.730 ^a	.382	.521

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 20 because maximum iterations has been reached. Final solution cannot be found.

Source: Dataset of paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

The Nagelkerke R^2 is 52.1% which is moderately high and good. However, the Cox and Snell R^2 suggests the contrary by indicating a 38.2% likelihood to predict the cause for taking paternity leave. Therefore, a consideration of further output from the variables in the equation, **Annex 13** below gives out the functional relationship. The function of the relationship is $y = 21.06 - 10.33^*x$ such that for every -10.33 units of the reaction of women workmate (negative reaction), there is a minimal decision of male officers in taking paternity leave. Such causal relationship works significantly since the *Wald* output is 0.000, implying that $p < 0.001$. On the other hand, from the dataset of non-paternity leave takers, variables that were analysed included: *Would you take paternity leave as influenced by ethnic belief, organisation respects cultural diversity, leading in family child care decision, and discussed paternity leave decision at family level.* **Annex 14** below explains on the model summary that was output from the analysis. Both the Nagelkerke R^2 and, Cox & Snell R^2 are minimal at 31.9% and 23.6% (respectively) with a -2 log of likelihood of 37.69. The likelihood to improve is moderate but not good enough. As such, the function of the constant and the independent variables according to **Annex 15** below was obtained as: $y = -24.88 + 20.59^*x + 0.083^*x + 0.128^*x + .711^*x + 1.596^*x$. Therefore, for every increase in the unit of each independent variable, the respondent did not consider taking paternity leave in the organisation. Even though the organisation respected cultural diversity (with 20.59

units of the variable at a high significance level of 0.000 according to Wald), the respondent did not consider taking paternity leave. Therefore, it can be concluded that despite an organisation having a practice and policy on paternity leave (within its conditions of service), and the organisation respecting cultural diversity; the respondents did not consider taking paternity leave in the organisation. Also, leading in decision making does not automatically guarantee father's future attempts to take paternity leave.

4.2.3 Culture and ethnicity: the family and work-place dilemmas

The term ethnicity is frequently used interchangeably with other concepts like race (Cyrus, 2000). Since ethnicity as noted by Cyrus (2000) is associated with a particular cultural group, Azevdo (2000: 357) believed and defined ethnicity as “one's affinity and attachment to his/her cultural grouping that elicits distinct behaviours towards other society or organized polity. The study highlighted in **Figure 7** and **Figure 8** respectively that there were many ethnic groups amongst both paternity and non-paternity leave taker-respondents.

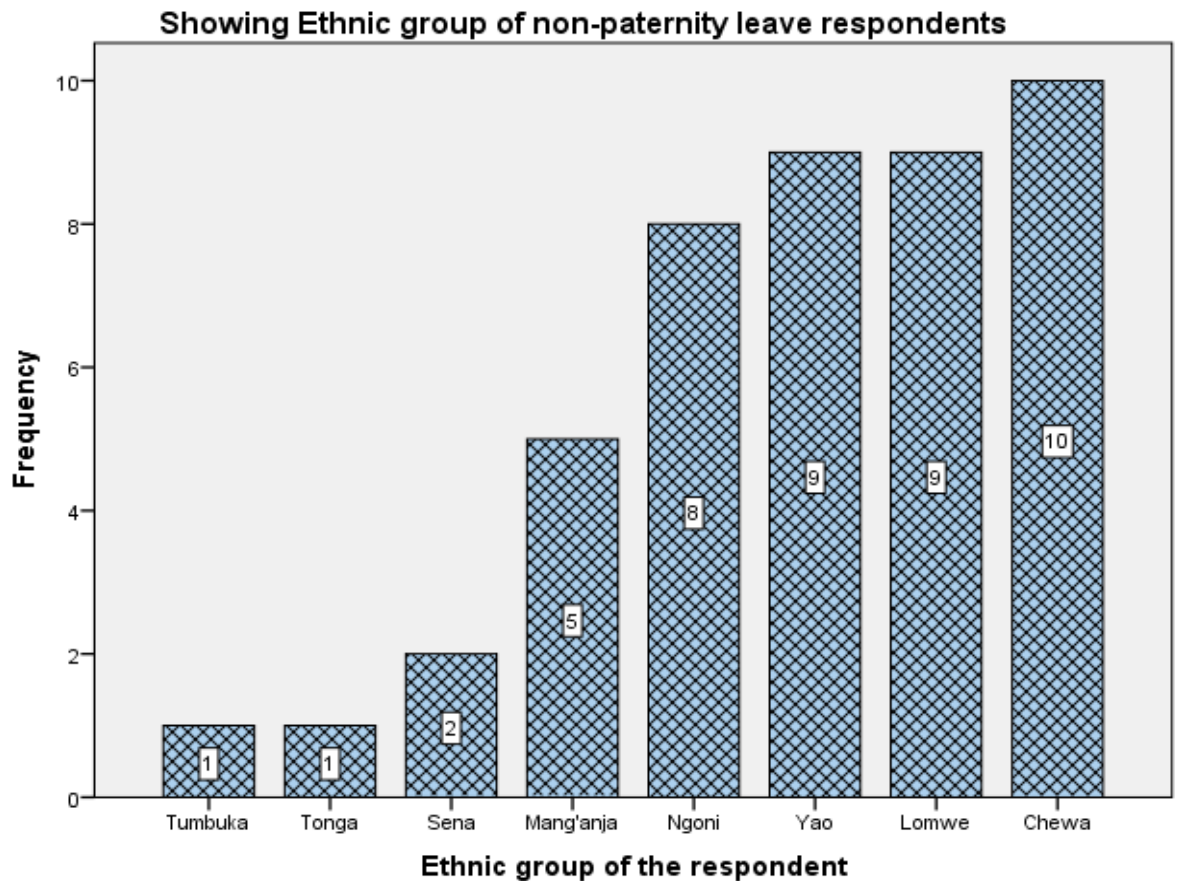


Figure 7: Showing ethnic group of non-paternity leave taker respondents

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

Amongst the findings, the graph in this **Figure 7**, it shows that majority up to 10 respondents of those who did not take paternity leave were Chewa (20%) while the least in not taking paternity leave were Sena (4%) according to the pie-chart above. Proportionally, what it implies holistically is that: 9 respondents each from the Lomwe and Yao ethnic backgrounds (18.0%) thought that taking paternity leave was not necessary. 8 (16.0%) were from Ngoni ethnic group, 5 respondents (10.0%) were from Mang'anja ethnic group while 2 respondents (4.0%) cited being of the Sena ethnic background. In this cohort of respondents, Tumbuka and Tonga ethnic groups had one representative respondent each (2.0%). By looking at the composition of respondents

by their ethnic group, one would quickly assume that the Chewa people don't mind taking paternity leave than Tonga and Tumbuka ethnic groups. However, such quick fallacy would be detrimental. As such, this area could be a potential ground for a future study, in order to establish a correlation of these variables.

At the same time the findings highlighted in the graph below (**Figure 8**), show that Lomwe tribe had up to 2 (20% of respondents), thereby suggesting a majority of paternity leave takers. In a like manner, one respondent (10.0%) from Yao, Chewa, Tumbuka, Sena, Ngoni, and Mang'anja, accordingly took paternity leave. The numbers from each of these ethnic groups are very small in the uptake of paternity leave. Worse still, the findings here are revealing that other ethnic groups had no representation in this study. Therefore, this revelation is as well a fertile ground to deepen on this project of paternity leave and family-work life balance in the Malawi Public Service and beyond!

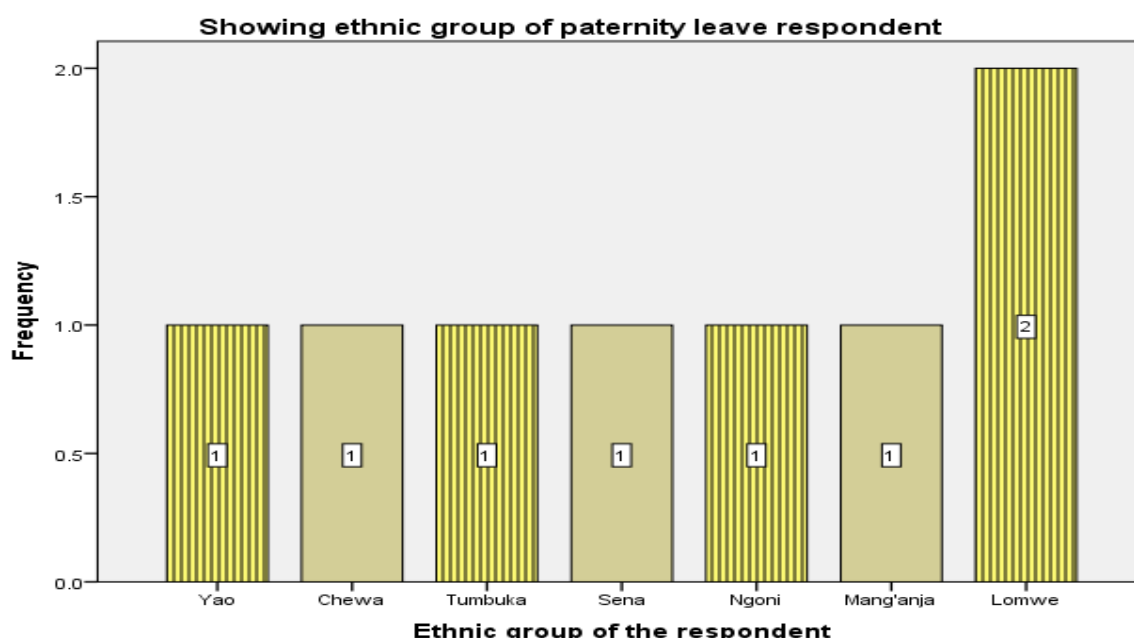


Figure 8: Showing ethnic groups of paternity leave taker respondents

Source: Dataset of paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

However, it was not clear as to what could be influential in the ethnicity as regarding taking paternity leave. Probably, this is a fertile ground of future cross-sectional or comparative studies in order to establish the influence of culture and ethnicity in taking work-family policies. Further analysis was done in order to establish if there was a relationship between ethnicity and possible taking of paternity leave. **Table 21** below therefore highlights the findings.

Table 21: Showing correlation between ethnic group and considering taking paternity leave

Correlations					
			Ethnic group of the respondent	Ethnic group promoting men to care for new-born/adopted children	Would you take paternity leave as influenced by ethnic belief?
Spearman's rho	Ethnic group of the respondent	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.088	-.062
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.565	.685
		N	45	45	45
	Ethnic group promoting men to care for new-born/adopted children	Correlation Coefficient	-.088	1.000	.437**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.565	.	.003
		N	45	45	45
	Would you take paternity leave as influenced by ethnic belief?	Correlation Coefficient	-.062	.437**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.685	.003	.
		N	45	45	45

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Data set for non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

The study found that there was no relationship (-0.062) between belonging to a particular ethnic group, and a possibility of taking paternity leave as influenced by one's ethnic beliefs. However, there was a moderately high correlation (43.7% with significance level of 0.01 in a 2-tailed relationship) between what an ethnic group does in promoting men to care for the new-born/adopted child, and respondent's will to take paternity leave as influenced by ethnic beliefs.

While the correlation was suggesting that ethnic beliefs related to childcare entice men to take paternity leave, the regression analysis was necessary to run so that the causal relationship was validated or not. **Annex 16** explains that, the linear regression outputs in the table above indicates that the adjusted $R^2 = -0.093$ with the $R^2 = .134$. Therefore, the regression explains 13.4% of the variance in the data. The Durbin-Watson's $d = 1.709$ which is between the two critical values of $1.5 < d < 2.5$ which explains the causality though not good enough. Furthermore, when the F -test was produced from the ANOVA table according to **Annex 17**, the F -test score was consulted where F was equal to 0.048 with 44 degrees of freedom. The F -test had a null hypothesis that the linear relationship between the two variables (thus, the $R^2 = 0$). Therefore, the test result in the output is very small such that it can be assumed that there is no linear relationship between the variables in the model. Also, coefficients in **Annex 18** explain that the functional relationship is depicted as $y = 2.848 + 0.005^*x + 1.173^*x$ which means that for every minimal (0.005) unit increase in the ethnic group of the respondent, there is an increase (1.173) in the wish to take paternity leave as influenced by ethnic belief. This is a negligible, close to non-existent causality in this relationship. However, for every 1.173 increase in the promotion of men to care for new-born/adopted child, there is a corresponding urge to take paternity leave out of an influence from the ethnic belief. Therefore, it can be concluded that ethnic beliefs of promoting childcare have a 36.7% causation of taking paternity leave.

In conclusion, the objective of assessing determinants of paternity leave has been met. Based on the various statistical analyses and the qualitative analyses, some factors have been found as causing either taking or not taking paternity leave. The data collected and analysed has confirmed that amongst many factors, income and pay differentials,

education, occupation, and perceptions, are part of the socio-economic factors determining paternity leave taking. When salaries are fairly close to each other, there is income equality amongst respondents. As such, when the Gini index moves towards 1, the income inequality increases as well. From the data analysis, the only institution that had small pay differentials in terms of salaries was Parliament of Malawi, hence its Gini index being smaller as 0.282, than the rest of other study sites of (0.548 for Southern Region Water-board, and 0.456 for Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources). Furthermore, source of income of respondent had a power of the test of $p = 0.000$, income of respondent had $p = 0.001$, and source of livelihood of the wife ($p = 0.008$ which are significantly less than the *Kolmogorov-Smirnov* test of 0.05. Therefore, the output predicts that from non-paternity leave takers, considering to take paternity leave by taking source of income of respondent, income of respondent, and source of livelihood of the wife, were 33.6% which is minimal, hence we accept the null hypothesis that there is no causality on the dependent and independent variables. On the other hand, results from the outputs show that taking paternity leave has a 48% probability amongst the group of paternity leave takers though affected by the income of the respondent and, source of income and livelihood of both the respondent and the wife. In terms of occupation, the study found that there is a negative linear relationship such that for non-paternity leave takers, the kind of job of a respondent does not cause them to consider taking paternity leave. The same causality existed such that for paternity leave takers, the kind of job one had did not cause a consideration of taking paternity leave, and affect them economically. In other words, kind of job had no causal effect on the decision of taking paternity leave for both paternity, and non-paternity leave takers. In terms of education, having no education amongst spouses had correspondingly few units of considering paternity leave taking, though there was no

significance. Therefore, when the education level increased, the logistic regression predicted that the respondent would consider taking paternity leave in the organization. Bivariate correlation indicated a strong correlation between gender relations with how work-place practices were affected due to taking of paternity leave. The study found that respondents did not consider taking paternity leave in the organisation although an organisation had a provision of paternity leave within its conditions of service, and the organisation respecting cultural diversity. There was no clear causal relationship between leading in decision making and father's future attempts to take paternity leave. However, there was no relationship (-0.062) between one's ethnic group and taking paternity leave because of one's ethnic beliefs. However, a moderate relationship (43.7% significant at 0.01 in a 2-tailed relationship) existed between what an ethnic group does in promoting men to care for the new-born/adopted child, and respondent's decision in taking paternity leave as influenced by ethnic beliefs.

4.4 Effects of paternity leave on work and family life

Objective 2: assess the effects of paternity leave practice on workplace and family life of Malawi's public servants. This objective was driven by a broader research question which highlighted as: *How does paternity leave affect the workplace and family lives of public servants in Malawi?* Variables that were analysed statistically and qualitatively from the data on the semi-structured questionnaires included: Paternity leave affecting work-place practices, how productivity is affected by paternity leave taking, how has your relationship with work-mates been affected due to taking of paternity leave, taking paternity leave contributing to relationship with family member, effect of paternity leave taking on child-bearing, effect of paternity leave taking on school performance of children, other effects of paternity leave in the organisation, any

effects for not taking paternity leave, and explanation of effects for not taking paternity leave. The following were the key results obtained.

4.4.1 Work Productivity

In terms of productivity, the study highlighted that 22.22% of paternity leave takers had their work productivity increased. However, 33.33% of paternity leave takers were not affected in their work productivity according to the revelation from respondent HRM/Administration officers. However, the descriptive statistical results revealed that 37.5% of non-paternity leave respondents felt their time-off on paternity leave was reason enough for getting a pile of workload.

4.4.2 Family Bonding

The study also found paternity leave taking to affect the bonding where according to the **Figure 9**, 37.5% of the non-paternity leave takers specifically acknowledged bonding of respondent with the new-born child, other children (if available), and the mother. Generally, 62.5% of the respondents noted that there is improvement of relationship with family members.

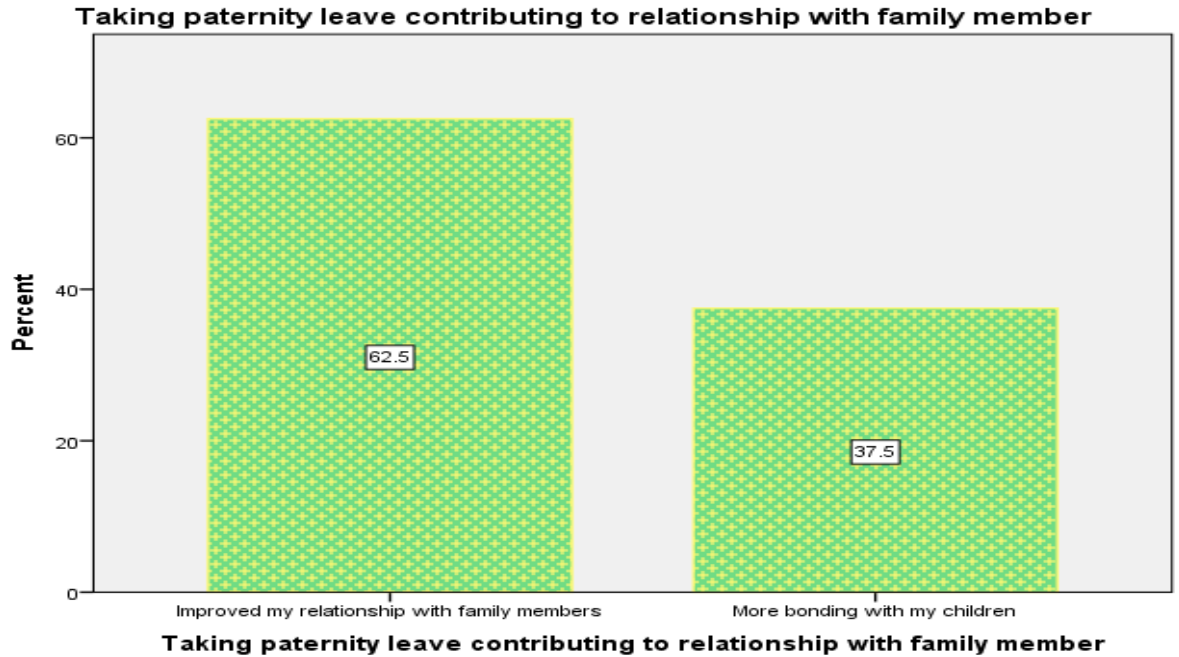


Figure 9: Showing effects of taking paternity leave on family relationship

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

The study has emphasized the importance of bonding with newborn children because it enables the father to establish a relationship with their newborn from an early stage. Paquette (2004), states that newborn children become attached to both their parents during the first year of their lives. The attachment between a father and child is important. In fact, these effects relate to how close to the children and the mother (bonding). The process of the attachment needs both parents to be present and involved in their child's life. The relationship between a father and child contributes to the development of the child.

These findings offer a good position on the level of gender theory as it concretizes the need for gender division of labour towards child care. At the same time, there is a clear demonstration of how bargaining of gender roles tends to occur in a family. While doing

such division of labour and bargaining, one would easily see the indicators of giving in or not as a matter of rational choice, which emerge.

4.5 Governing paternity leave: legal and policy framework

Objective 3: analyse the legal and policy framework in governing paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service. The study wanted to answer a question that stated that: How does the legal and policy framework govern the administration of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service? In order to appreciate how governance of paternity leave within the research institutions occurs for paternity leave to be taken or not, the following paternity leave elements: availability of policy documents, duration (number of paternity leave days), and publicity and awareness of the paternity leave policy and practice in the organisation, were considered.

4.3.1 Availability of policy documents

The study recognised that all the five institutions (100%) have both the booklets of conditions of service, and leave request forms. Of course, from Chancellor College of the University of Malawi, the Clerical and Support Staff (CTS) as opposed to the Academic and Administrative Staff (AAS) did not have their own booklet of conditions of service; at least from the consultations made in this study.

Three (3) institutions namely Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Chancellor College's AAS, and Parliament of Malawi allowed access of their booklets of the conditions of service. On the other hand, all the five institutions (100%) had leave request forms, see **Appendices 6 to 10**. The research noted that of all types of leave, only paternity leave was left out from the request leave forms. As a

result, all men who wanted to apply or actually processed paternity leave, did that under a different type of leave. The most likely type(s) of leave that could have been taken as alternatives were annual, sick or compassionate leave. However, unique with the conditions of service of Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources, there is a clear distinction between compassionate leave and paternity leave based on the conditions therein. Paternity leave focuses at child birth and related complications arguing that “... in exceptional circumstances where the wife is incapacitated arising from delivery as certified by medical doctor, 30 consecutive calendar days shall be granted” (Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources, 2012: 31). On the other hand, compassionate leave is related to funeral matters only. Therefore, these variations on leave policies and what they contain have some bearing on either enticing paternity leave taking or just taking any other type of leave. These variations and their resultant implications on paternity leave are as a reflection of what is contained on the leave forms.

Results from the raw data collected from the respondents indicated that leave is variably provided on Employee Leave Request Forms and in conditions of service. The excel spreadsheet output in **Figure 10** found differences in the way institutions implement the provision of leave.

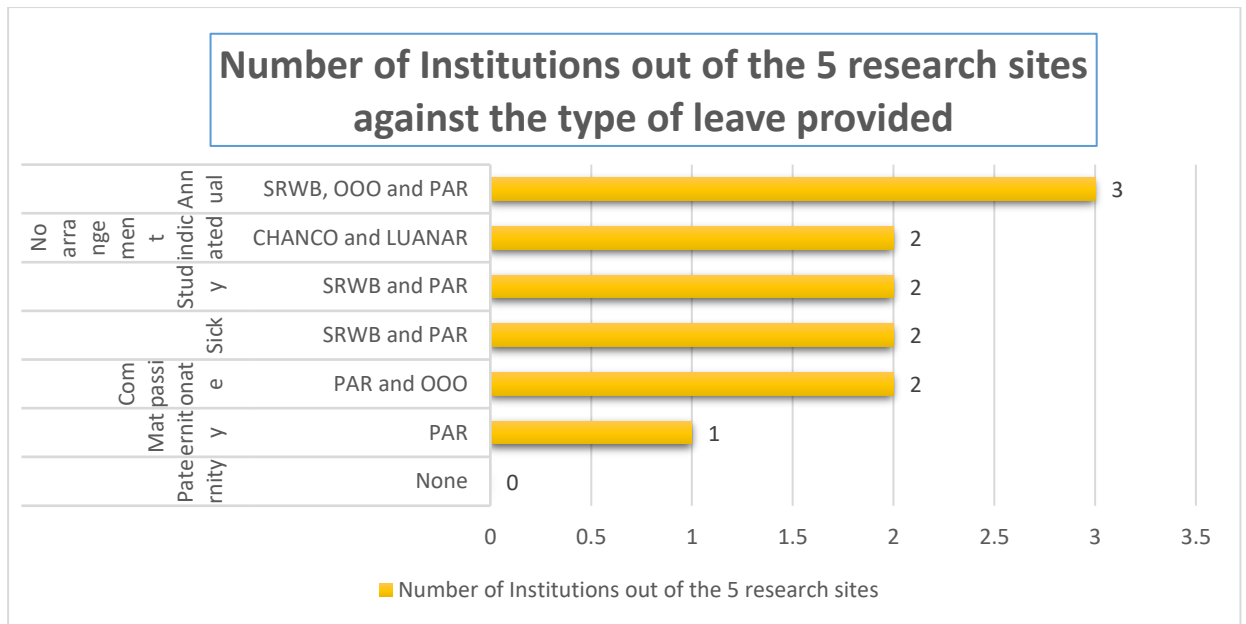


Figure 10: Showing the type of leave provided by different institutions

Source: Excel output from field data (October, 2019).

Only annual leave was found as indicated by 3 institutions. At least 2 institutions in different permutations, indicated sick, study, and compassionate leaves on their Employee Leave Request Forms. Maternity leave was indicated on only one institutional form. It was noted that none (0%) of the institutions had included paternity leave in their leave forms. Non-inclusion of paternity leave forced ‘would-be applicants’ and those who sneaked out, to use other available types of leave. However, such exclusion of paternity leave on the leave forms, see Annex below is a dangerous divider enticing paternity leave taking. Other authors have questioned as to whether the Government or the State should be involved with childcare responsibilities or not. Under this debate, Levmore (2007: 221) argues that parental leave can be thought of as a “private good and as also a public good”. Levmore (2007) and Parr (2012) agree on payment arrangements of leave under what can be described as public-private sector dichotomy of leave policy provisioning. This is why Valarino et al. (2017) came up

with many questions in order to understand what drives men in taking paternity leave as a way of trying to understand who pays for paternity leave and their modalities of their payment.

Further analysis also revealed that other institutions do not delineate paternity leave and compassionate leave. Often times, these two are taken as one. For example, the conditions of service for Parliament of Malawi, "... compassionate leave ...shall be granted under the following conditions: - ... serious sickness of an employee's dependent..." (Parliament of Malawi, 2017: 20). Yet, with paternity leave there is no any condition associated with it. Since during giving birth a woman or the new-born child (both dependents) could have complications worth being categorised as sickness. However, unique with the conditions of service of Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources, is that there is a clear distinction between compassionate leave and paternity leave based on the conditions therein. Paternity leave focuses at child birth and related complications arguing that "...in exceptional circumstances where the wife is incapacitated arising from delivery as certified by medical doctor, 30 consecutive calendar days shall be granted" (Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources, 2012: 31). On the other hand, compassionate leave is purely related to funeral matters only.

4.3.2 Duration: Number of paternity leave days

On duration, the study found that number of days of paternity leave are different across institutions, see **Figure 11**. The results indicated that Southern Region Water Board, University of Malawi-Chancellor College (AAS), and Lilongwe University of

Agriculture and Natural Resources have Conditions of Services that allow for a maximum period of 30 days of paternity leave.

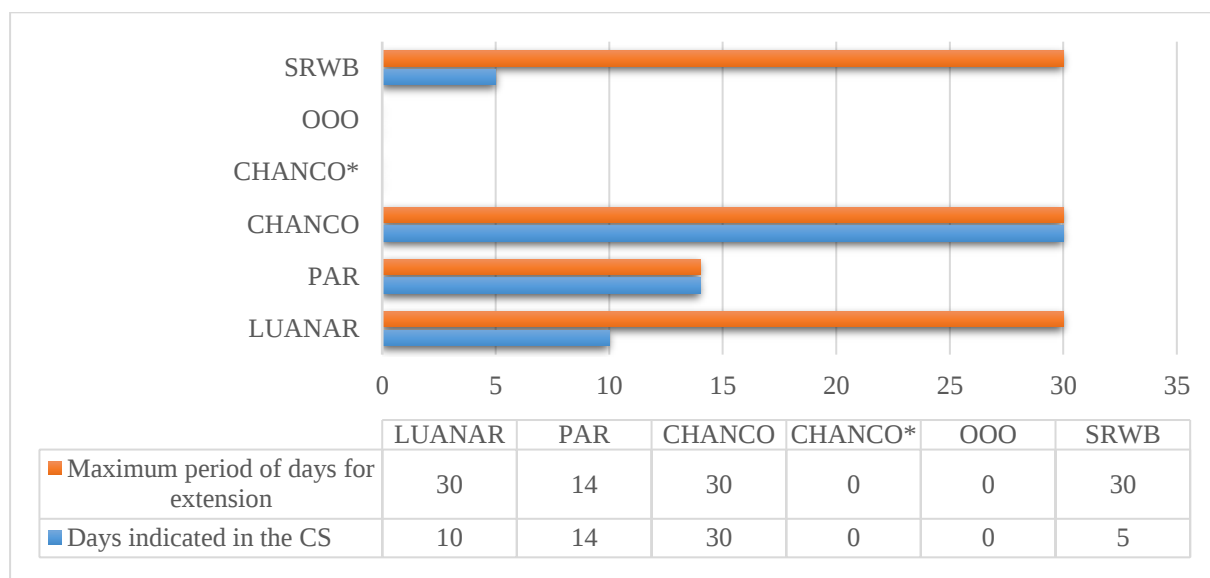


Figure 11: Showing paternity leave days provided by different institutions

Source: Excel output from field data (October, 2019).

In exceptional circumstances where the wife is incapacitated arising from delivery as certified by medical doctor, 30 consecutive calendar days shall be granted” (Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources, 2012: 31). Therefore, this study found that other employees take all the leave days entitled for, while others opt to just apply anyhow. While statutory number of paternity leave days in the conditions of services were few, they were significantly reduced further by the applicants themselves. Pie charts in **Figure 12** showed such reduction by choice during actual processing of the paternity leave on the leave form itself.

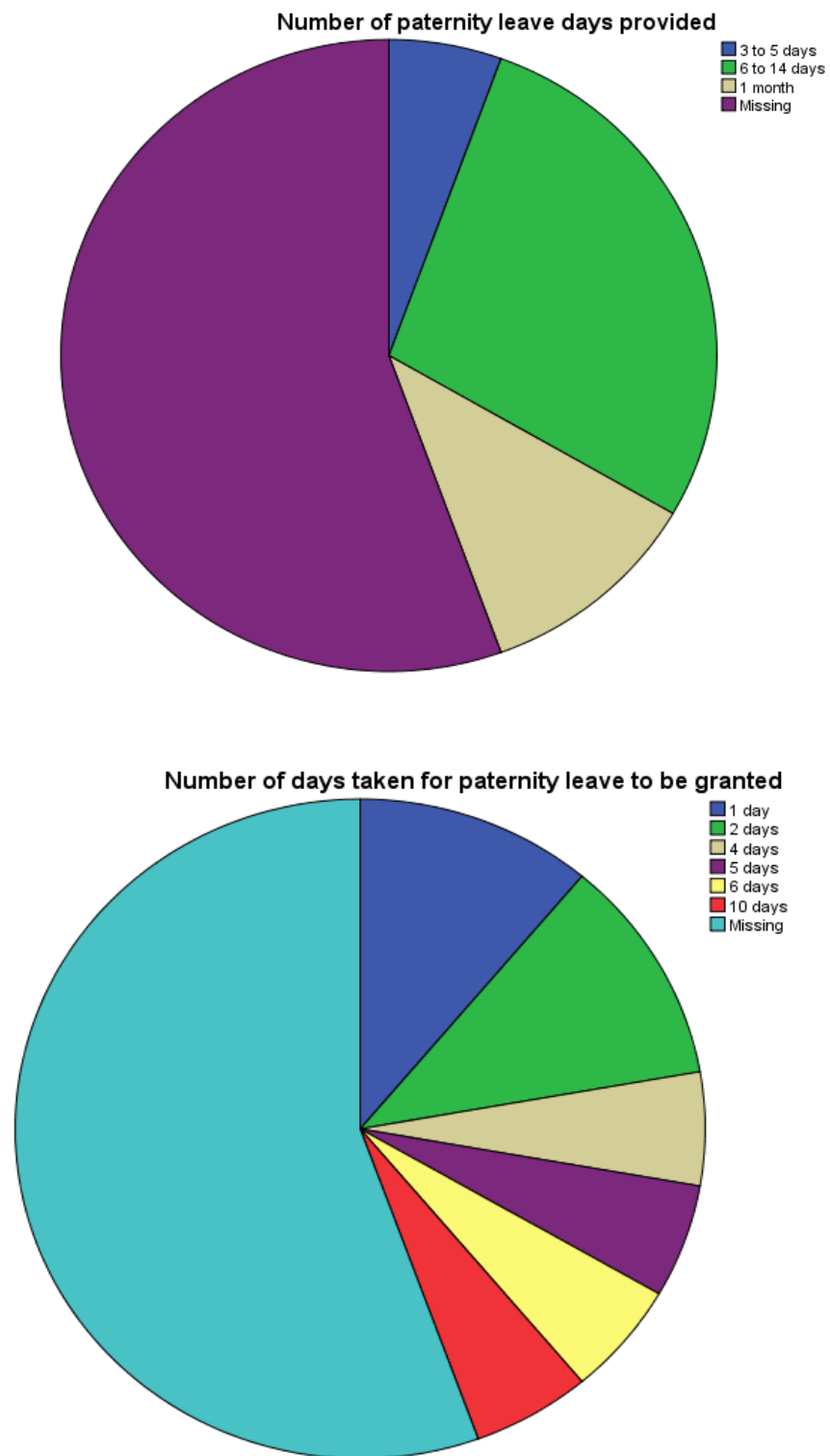


Figure 12: Showing paternity leave days provided in the conditions of services of different institutions

Source: Dataset of paternity leave takers and non-paternity leave takers (2019).

The results in the figure above indicate that 62.5% of the respondents recognized that their institutions enshrined and approved paternity leave of up to 14 days. However, preference of the paternity leave-takers themselves by way of accessing the endorsed number of leave days did not match with what was in the conditions of service. They accessed few leave days. It was found that just taking one-day of paternity leave time was opted by 25% of employees, and so were 2 days of paternity leave taken by 25% of respondents. Therefore, having fewer number of paternity leave days seemed to be the individual's choice by married officers according to this study.

4.3.3 Flexibility in paternity leave policy administration

Flexibility, according to this study referred to how easy management was in supporting access to paternity leave and any form of support in terms of pay. Pay was also analysed in relation to the provisions laid down in the conditions of services. Pay, in this study, encompassed all the support a paternity leave taker is given when going for the holiday. **Table 23**, shows the correlation table between pay and decision to take paternity leave.

Table 22: Showing correlation between pay and taking paternity leave

		Correlations		
		Institutional Support to Paternity leave takers	Incentives for Paternity leave taking	Cases when officers stay off-job yet it was not paternity leave
Institutional Support to Paternity leave takers	Pearson Correlation	1	.312	.606
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.452	.111
	N	8	8	8
Incentives for Paternity leave taking	Pearson Correlation	.312	1	-.468
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.452		.242
	N	8	8	8
Cases when officers stay off-job yet it was not paternity leave	Pearson Correlation	.606	-.468	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.111	.242	
	N	8	8	8

Source: Data set for HR/Admin officers (October, 2019).

The institutional support was found to strongly (60.6%) promote respondents to switch to other leave moments other than paternity leave. Being provided with institutional support for paternity leave was reported in the analysis as weakly influencing (incentivising) male employees to go on leave at 31.2%.

4.3.4 Awareness of the legal and policy framework

In order to understand how respondents got aware of the legal and policy surrounding paternity leave, a number of variables were considered. These variables contained in the semi-structured questionnaire in the merged SPSS dataset included: Administrative arrangement of providing paternity leave, Aware of any job-protected leave in the organization, Reasons for lack of awareness of paternity leave contents, Form of publicity for policies and Conditions of Service, Frequency of publicity on paternity leave, and How much emphasis is given to paternity leave as to maternity leave.

From data entered and analysed through SPSS, a number of statistical outputs were generated. In terms of awareness of leave policies in their organisation have comparatively all the eight (8) paternity leave taker-respondents translating to a 100% response rate, indicated being aware of paternity leave. However, on mere knowledge that their organisations have the provision for the paternity leave itself, 50% of non-paternity leave takers actually conceded their organizations provide paternity leave. Of these non-paternity leave takers, only 36% indicated being aware of the contents of paternity leave policy. By going further into the data analysis from dataset of non-paternity leave takers, awareness of paternity leave was low. Only 28% of non-paternity leave taker respondents knew all types of leave while 6% of the respondents indicated their knowledge of both maternity and paternity leave policies. In light of this variation

in knowledge of organizational policies, Bach and Edwards (2013) warned that although certain types of work-life policies have become more prevalent, they are not necessarily available uniformly in all organisations.

As regards content of the policies, the study found that there is a direct, and moderately strong relationship between the respondents' knowing the contents of the leave policy and having knowledge of the types of such leave policies, see **Table 23** below.

Table 23: Showing paternity leave policy, and awareness of its contents

Correlations			Organisation has paternity leave policy	Respondent being aware of contents of paternity leave policy
Spearman's rho	Organisation has paternity leave policy	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.571**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	45	45
	Respondent being aware of contents of paternity leave policy	Correlation Coefficient	.571**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	45	45

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Data set for non- paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

The output above in Table 22 highlighted a very significant relationship of up to 57.1% between non-paternity leave taking and knowledge on whether their organisations have a paternity leave policy or not. The relationship was such strong whether measured using Spearman's rho or Pearson on a two-directional scale. However, these respondents failed to know the contents of the same. Awareness of the legal and policy framework was also analysed based on how information was made available to employees. **Figure 13** indicate that awareness of paternity leave was frequently through

offer of employment, and circulars. However, 60% of respondents knew about paternity leave through the booklets of conditions of services.



Figure 13: Showing how employees were informed of paternity leave

Source: Dataset of paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

In conclusion, these variations on leave policies and what they contain, have some bearing on either enticing paternity leave taking or just taking any other type of leave as substitute to paternity leave.

4.5 Challenges in paternity leave implementation

The research objective for this component of the study was to analyse challenges affecting the implementation of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service. Specifically, the research question that was being answered was: *How has implementation of paternity leave been challenged by family members, work-mates and*

management of institutions in the Malawi Public Service? The research is not skewed towards analysis of the implementation, but rather this objective sought to offer a clear assessment of determinants of paternity leave. The obstacles that are met and documented or reported have a potential to entice or set-off potential paternity leave takers. That is why analysing challenges encountered by family members, work-mates and management of institutions is paramount.

In order to get the data that could offer the response to the objective and research question above, both open-ended and close-ended items were used. For the questionnaire of paternity leave takers, questions 51, to 53 were key, while for the non-paternity leavers' questionnaire, question 45 and 46 were important. Responses to these questions were put into themes and quantified. In certain instances, other respondents were quoted in order to offer a qualitative perspective of the matter at hand. The study found selectivity in policy implementation, and value dilemma challenged implementation of paternity leave. The study noted that the weaker support from the employer (management).

4.5.1 Selectivity in policy implementation

The study hinged on the assumption that the organizational culture allows men to take paternity leave. The pie chart in **Figure 14** suggests that taking paternity leave amongst non-paternity leave takers was hampered by selective policy provisioning (11.11%). Though the margin was seemingly small, its effects in enticing fathers to take paternity leave is huge. If there is selectivity in the way policies are rallied behind by both management and employees, the policy or practice is bound to be ineffective in its pursuit to achieving the intended objective. In the case of paternity leave taking, the

goal of having more men in childcare and defeat male breadwinner syndrome, will not be achieved.

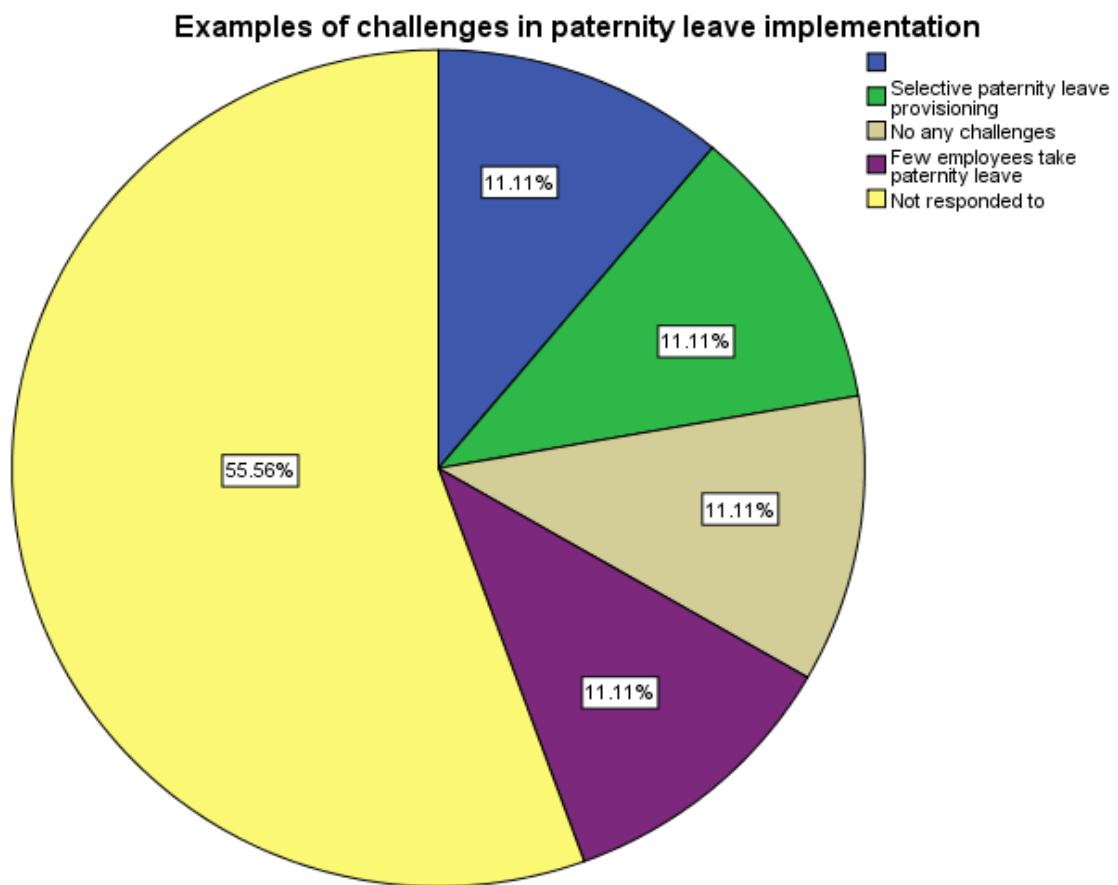


Figure 14: Showing examples of challenges when institutions implement paternity leave

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

However, there was need to substantiate the presence of such selectivity in policy implementation by running a correlation test. In this case, a Pearson test was used according to Table 24 below).

Table 24: Showing challenges faced during leave implementation and how they affect paternity leave

Correlations				
		Availability of challenges in paternity leave implementation	Challenges influencing decision for not taking paternity leave	Disclosure of challenges to the organisation
Availability of challenges in paternity leave implementation	Pearson Correlation	1	-.361	-.361
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.190	.190
	N	8	8	8
Challenges influencing decision for not taking paternity leave	Pearson Correlation	-.361	1	1.000**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.190		.000
	N	8	8	8
Disclosure of challenges to the organisation	Pearson Correlation	-.361	1.000**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.190	.000	
	N	8	8	8

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Source: Dataset for HR/Admin Officers (October, 2019)

It was found that there was a one-to-one and on-to correlation (100%) between disclosure of challenges and an influence to take paternity leave itself. The study further found that there is an information vacuum that management creates by not sharing to employees about paternity leave and its availability in their institution. The negative correlation of -36.1% highlighted by this study is indicative of failure to disclose problems the organisation has related to the implementation of paternity leave. What this means is that if the organisation (both management and employees) choose which problems to share related to a given policy. Therefore, it is greatly difficult for one to make an informed decision in taking paternity leave. These findings also agree with a mixed-methods' research on public service by Valarino (2014) arguing that "there is clearly a lack of information on companies' practices regarding the special leave entitlements they grant" (p. 301).

4.5.2 Value dilemma: Work-load against childcare demands

However, the study also found that 62.5% acknowledged no challenges on return to their workplaces. These two versions of experiences of men related to paternity leave and workload only demonstrate the dilemma that exists. To some extent, the idea of men valuing work more than their families is a perpetuation of breadwinner's ideology as already alluded to by Drew et al. (2003). Such dilemma poses a challenge in patronizing paternity leave. This study's finding agrees with the findings of Ivancevich (2004), who argued that peer pressure has perpetuated the belief that paternity leave unfairly burdens co-workers with extra assignments.

These study results attempt to denote that valuing organizational productivity challenged depth and scope of uptake of paternity leave. There is quest from managers for positive results in terms of productivity. According to the transcription, what managers valued was productivity of the respondent, more than his availability and involvement on a family matter that related to work-life balance, and especially paternity leave. In terms of how management hinders implementation of paternity leave, one non-paternity leave taker explained that management had little regard to advancement of paternity leave.

“... On 17th September, 2013 my wife went to the maternity with her friend while I was here at work. At 6 minutes past 7 in the evening, I received a call that my wife had given birth to a baby boy. I was unable to escort her because of the pressure of the work. We were preparing for Senate meetings ... (short pause) and you can see that she went there with a friend, while I was here in Zomba. My employers could not allow me to leave the task I was given since the Senate meeting was a day ahead of us. ...”

Source: Transcribed interview with respondent CCN-10, October, 2019.

Based on a transcription (see **Appendix 12** on transcription, an Annex on audio attached), it was clear that the values of management (as an employer) diverged much from those of the respondent (employee). Such parallelism of choices needed to be reconciled for the common good and work-life balance. Such thinking and conduct of some managers as exemplified in this transcription, impedes decision-making towards paternity leave. These findings in the study seem to auger well and cement theory by Govender (2015) and Levto et al (2015) that providing paternity leave, in fact, paid paternity leave improves productivity amongst beneficiaries. The authors premised that “whilst some may argue about the costs of a country offering paid paternity or parental leave, one thing is clear from the many proposals for the leave, that the benefits of offering legislated paid leave far outweigh the costs. The evidence proves the benefits for business when there is legislated paid family leave in a countries labour laws by improving employee retention and reducing turnover...Increasing productivity and morale... reducing absenteeism....” (Govender, 2015: 50).

4.5.3 Extreme bureaucratic lines in leave processing

Another challenge pointed to the level of bureaucracy which was associated with more paper-work in paternity leave processing. Applicants of the leave are made to fill many papers in application and need to wait for management’s approval or not. Figure 16 below indicates a requirement of the leave request form for the Office of the Ombudsman. Of course, the argument is not to overrule the work ethic of recognising management and following reporting lines. However, the point in providing the leave after the applicant has been approved, only dis-incentivises men Managerial approval of leave of office in order to care for the new born child will only be discretionally

hence potential to frustrating the call for a gender-neutral childcare's campaign in patronising paternity leave.

The need for approval is seen across all the study institution to this research. Such requirements when applying for paternity or any other leave in an organisation only reinforces a long bureaucratic process. It is therefore so threatening to an attempt in incentivising men so that they rally behind taking paternity leave in the organisations. Furthermore, Bach and Edwards (2013) noted that institutions and societal pressures have proven to be important influences on organizations.

4.6 Chapter conclusion

This chapter has managed to present the research findings and the discussion in support of the same. The analysis utilized document review and statistical analysis of primary data largely focusing at correlational models and descriptive statistics in SPSS and Excel. In the process a number of factors were generated as determining paternity leave. These included: social-economic, political, ethnic and cultural factors. Legal and policy framework was also found determining the taking or not taking of paternity leave.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The study sought to analyse factors that determine paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service. In achieving this aim, the study has assessed the effects of paternity leave practice on workplace and family life of Malawi's public servants. The study has also analysed the legal/policy framework governing leave administration in the Malawi Public Service. Lastly, the study has analysed the challenges affecting the implementation of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service. Therefore, this chapter is a summary of the whole study by briefly re-looking at whether the study objectives and research questions have been addressed or not. Also, the chapter utilizes the research findings and supporting literature in order to draw a meaningful conclusion of this study. Research implications for providing paternity leave, as well as areas of further research are highlighted in this chapter.

5.2 Summary of the research findings

This study was premised on understanding determinants of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service. The focus was to come up with factors that drive the decision of either taking or not taking paternity leave amongst men within the public service institutions. It is against the two thongs of this question that this summary is also split into; taking and/or not taking paternity leave. In pursuit of the same, four objectives were considered to help in gorging out the results.

5.2.1 Revisiting determinants of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service

The study was tasked at understanding determinants of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service. First objective was to assess factors that influence men in taking or not taking paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service. The main question which was being answered in chapter four under this objective was on: *Which factors influence men to take or not take paternity leave in Malawi's public service?* These factors were: socio-economic, organisational culture and managerial arrangements, culture and ethnicity, and organizational politics. Considering the results in the previous chapter, the study came up with a number of factors that determine paternity leave taking.

On income as an element under socio-economic factors, the study found that the issue of pay and support during paternity leave is important when a woman gives birth. When salaries are fairly close to each other, there is income equality amongst respondents. As such, when the Gini index moves towards 1, the income inequality increases as well. From the data analysis, the only institution that had small pay differentials in terms of salaries was Parliament of Malawi, hence its Gini index being smaller as 0.282, than the rest of other study sites of (0.548 for Southern Region Water-board, and 0.456 for Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources). Furthermore, source of income of respondent had a power of the test of $p = 0.000$, income of respondent had $p = 0.001$, and source of livelihood of the wife ($p = 0.008$ which are significantly less than the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of 0.05. Therefore, the output predicts that from non-paternity leave takers, considering to take paternity leave by taking source of income of respondent, income of respondent, and source of livelihood of the wife, were 33.6% which is minimal, hence we accept the null hypothesis that there is no causality on the dependent and independent variables. On the other hand, results from the outputs show

that taking paternity leave has a 48% probability amongst the group of paternity leave takers though affected by the income of the respondent and, source of income and livelihood of both the respondent and the wife. The findings in this study agreed with those of Gislason (2013: 96) who noted that “income regulation creates financial incentive for low-income families”. Schulze and Gergoric (2015: 27) already found that “take-up rates depend on a complex mix of factors with compensation of previous incomes as the most important one ...” Furthermore, Karr (2017) argued that incentivizing paternity leave even involves making refund to any taxes made to the pay directed to the father. She also suggested that on top of the refund, employers should receive a non-refundable credit equal to the refundable tax.

Although the study did not establish a significant correlation between pay and actual taking of paternity leave, Schulze and Gergoric (2015: 27) earlier on in their study postulated that “take-up rates depend on a complex mix of factors with compensation of previous incomes as the most important one ...” However, the debate on pay as incentivizing could not be taken as conclusive from the findings of this study since other literature have proved pay in terms of money to be a dis-incentive on its own. On income inequalities and pay differentials, study findings have shown that economically, low salaries and lack of support when a child is born/adopted dis-incentives working fathers in the study sites. The study has noted that pay differentials across categories of respondents had a significant role in discouraging leave taking.

It was further noted that all the institutions do not deliberately pay men for going on paternity leave as it is done with maternity leave. Therefore, pay accompanying leave (paid paternity leave) can give parents more time with their new child and increase their financial stability of the families. The support that respondents highlighted to be

indirectly given (e.g. soap) by the institutions came from fellow employees when the want to cherish the new born baby, and not otherwise from management as part of the organisational culture. Against this lack of support from management poses a big question on whether respondents (or the general group of employees) bargain for the conditions of service that incorporate the issue of pay and other support within paternity leave. Therefore, the issue of income inequalities and pay differentials opens further the decent work and social cost analysis within rational choice theory in general, and pay-off maximisation in particular.

Regarding occupation of respondents, the study noted that most of the paternity leave takers were managers who already had high salaries and other sources of livelihood, hence very easy to stay at home on paternity leave while easily supporting the new-born child and the mother. Therefore, employees with low income in custodial and clerical categories were receiving low salaries, hence had low income levels than managers. In that case, it was difficult for them to balance the support needed at home in general, and that going to the new-born child and the mother, when one is off-the-job on paternity leave. The study, based on the findings in previous chapter suggests that staying on leave financially burdens families, especially those in the middle- and lower- class, often forcing parents into an early return to work or into sacrificing more income than they can reasonably afford.

On the same occupation, the study found that there is a negative linear relationship from regression analysis such that for non-paternity leave takers, the kind of job of a respondent does not cause them to consider taking paternity leave. The same causality existed such that for paternity leave takers, the kind of job one had did not cause a

consideration of taking paternity leave, and affect them economically. In other words, kind of job had no causal effect on the decision of taking paternity leave for both paternity, and non-paternity leave takers.

The results from the study found gender as another factor driving men in taking paternity leave. Bivariate correlation indicated a strong correlation between gender relations with how work-place practices were affected due to taking of paternity leave. The finding agrees with the gender theory that this research relied on, which advocated for division of labour within the family as far as childcare is concerned. Such advancement of gender-neutrality in childcare is an attempt to break away from the social construct of childcare which has the two divergent sides namely; male breadwinner and female child-carer. Related to gender is an issue of male and female participation in decision making. In this case, the decision making process is associated with making or bargaining the rational choice of paternity leave taking. Therefore, from the linear regression, was no clear causal relationship between leading in decision making and father's future attempts to take paternity leave.

Other factor that propelled paternity leave takers was education. Having no education amongst spouses had correspondingly few units of considering paternity leave taking, though there was no significance. Therefore, when the education level increased, the logistic regression predicted that the respondent would consider taking paternity leave in the organization. The study found that respondents did not consider taking paternity leave in the organisation although an organisation had a provision of paternity leave within its conditions of service, and the organisation respecting cultural diversity. Related to organisation culture, was an issue of number of leave-days institutions

provide. Therefore, having fewer number of paternity leave days seemed to be the common choice and preference of respondents in this study. As a way of incentivizing uptake of paternity leave by men, Dearing (2016: 6) highlighted that “leave durations that are combined with reasonable high payments are likely to prevent economic dependency of mothers on their partners during leave and provide incentives to fathers to take leave”.

However, on ethnic group and cultural background, the study has found that there was no relationship (-0.062) between one’s ethnic group and taking paternity leave because of one’s ethnic beliefs. However, a moderate relationship (43.7% significant at 0.01 in a 2-tailed relationship) existed between what an ethnic group does in promoting men to care for the new-born/adopted child, and respondent’s decision in taking paternity leave as influenced by ethnic beliefs.

5.2.2 Effects of paternity leave practice on workplace and family life

The study also assessed effects of paternity leave on workplace and family life of Malawi’s public servants. Such objective was assessed by attempting to answer the question as: *How does paternity leave affect the workplace and family lives of public servants in Malawi?* The study further found a number of effects of paternity leave, both positive and negative. It was found that taking paternity leave positively improves bonding of the father to the family, and work productivity. In terms of effects related to taking paternity leave, firstly increased bonding was reported. At household level, taking paternity leave was reputed as promoting the closeness of the new-born child with the father. The study extrapolated that bonding between father and mother is increased when one stays at home of leave to care for the new-born/adopted child.

Taking paternity leave positively improves bonding of the father to the family up to 62.5%. Bonding is more important at an early stage of a child's life. This observation was also noted from research findings of Paquette (2004) who noted that engagement of a father during paternity leave influences bonding of the parents with the newborn/adopted children during the first year of their lives.

The research found that taking paternity leave has divergent productivity results. There are two facets was productivity On a positive note, staying off-the-job on leave to care for the new-born/adopted child made paternity leave takers to be workaholic since they have no time to think of sneaking out in order to care for the new child and the mother. The study reported that there was a 22.2% increased work productivity by taking paternity leave. Understandably, such respondents (employees), had all reasons to work hard with motivation because on return to work, had little to think again on sneaking out, or being absent from work for the sake of the child. They had stayed for some days close to the child and the mother on leave. Therefore, when they return to work, they concentrate on their tasks thereby increasing their work outputs. On the other hand, 37.5% of the non-paternity leave takers believe that taking paternity leave has great potential to negatively affect one's work productivity. Taking paternity leave only made the workload increase because there is piling up of work awaiting the leaver to return for work. As such, that workload makes one inefficient.

Based on the results, the study can conclude that there are a number of effects for taking or not taking paternity leave which affect both the family and the workplace. These effects are as well positive and negative, depending on how each group justified their experience for taking or not taking the time-off-the-job. Therefore, the research

question that drove this assessment here was also variedly answered accordingly. Skew of the effect is not an issue as long as the effect is justifiable. There is always value dilemma on whether to stay at home on leave, sneak out, or just be absent from work and care for the new-born/adopted child, or completely ignore the care for fear of losing monetary and other benefits or even evade piling of work.

5.2.3 Legal/policy framework governing leave administration

The study analysed the data collected and the literature reviewed in order to understand the legal and policy framework in governing paternity leave administration in the Malawi's Public Service. There was a question that the study sought to answer under this objective, and this was: How does the legal and policy framework govern the administration of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service?

The study results have shown that there is no statutory piece of legislation, nor working national policy that is openly and clearly spelling out paternity leave in Malawi. As such, the availability of paternity leave in institutions which this study has found like Parliament of Malawi, Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Chancellor College, and Southern Region Water-board is only an institutional-based practice enshrined locally within individual institution's condition of service. As part of the organisational culture, each institution defines separately what goes into their conditions of service regarding paternity leave, in terms of pay, duration, and other conditions that define the provision.

Regarding leave policy arrangements and practices, the study's results highlighted variations in terms of duration of paternity leave provided in the research sites have.

There are variations in number of days that allowed for application, and those which are approved. This study has seen that institutions are at liberty to decide the minimum number of days which the applicant is supposed to stay on paternity leave. The discretion from institutions is based on rational choice after weighing the cost in footing leave related pay and support. Therefore, provision of paternity leave is at the discretion of management to provide leave, and in fact such leave which is applied and anyhow justified by the applicant himself. This is why the study has shown that annual, sick and compassionate leave are familiar types of leave other than paternity leave. At the same time, of importance is the fact that there is no stand-alone guiding legal piece or policy by Government that offers a benchmark for all employees, employers and Human Resource Management practitioners to follow.

Also, what the study found was that none of the study institutions deliberately included paternity leave amongst the types of leave within their Employee Leave Request Form. The study went further to reveal that the most common and obvious types of leave are annual, sick, and maternity. Results indicated that in institutions where there is provision of compassionate leave, respondents to this study and probably all other employees do not delineate paternity leave and compassionate leave. Often times, these two are taken as one. Strangely, paternity leave was conspicuously missing on an Employee Leave Request Form for Parliament of Malawi which is an institution where laws (Bills and Acts) are formulated by politicians. One of the laws expected to have been formulated so that policies rally behind them across all workplaces is paternity leave. Further surprise from the research findings and literature earlier on consulted in the previous chapters is that the country's employment and labour laws like Employment Act (2000), Malawi's Labour Act (1996), Workman' Compensation Act,

Constitution of the Republic of Malawi (1994), and Malawi Public Service Regulation do not contain any provision regarding paternity leave. International legal and policy documents highlight the importance of member states to encourage equality in childcare and labour force participation (see Mussino et al., 2017: 3). These international legal and policy instruments are key in unlocking gender-neutral childcare parental leave by fostering and encouraging paternity leave. In conclusion, this study's findings agree with other literature on legal and policy framework that "a policy concern dealing with an unequal gender division of the care work within the family became marginalized. A change in the unequal gender division of labour would only be obtainable when the role of women's paid work and the role of men's caring responsibility are balanced" (Ma et al. 2016: 645). What this entails is that other countries are not pressing more weight to this cause encouraging paternity leave taking.

Lack of awareness of paternity leave and lack of publicity within the organization were found to highly contribute to non-paternity leave taking. The study has reported that up to 50% of non-paternity leave takers were not aware. From the other 50% of non-paternity leave takers who knew that their organizations provide paternity leave, only 36% indicated being aware of the contents of paternity leave policy. Of these non-paternity leave takers, and 28% of non-paternity leave taker respondents knew all types of leave while 6% of the respondents indicated their knowledge of both maternity and paternity leave policies. The implication of such lack of awareness is more likely to affect rational decision towards taking of paternity leave. Therefore, according to the rational choice theory, these respondents demonstrated a low concern on reward (pay-off maximisation) and joint childcare (household bargaining).

Therefore, by analysing the results, it can be concluded here that there is no statutory legal and policy framework that govern paternity leave administration in the research sites used in this study, and so in Malawi Public Service. Therefore, the research question could be answered that paternity leave is variedly administered across institutions depending on how each institution's conditions of service and their organisational culture were formulated.

5.2.4 Challenges affecting implementation of paternity leave

The study has brought to highlight a number of factors (though not conclusive) that determine paternity leave in Malawi Public Service. The objective under this section was to analyse challenges affecting implementation of paternity leave in the Malawi Public Service. By doing that, the study wanted to answer the question as: *How has implementation of paternity leave been challenged by management and workmates of institutions in the Malawi Public Service?*

Therefore, the first challenge which this study highlighted to have been encountered during paternity leave provisioning is policy selectivity. As it has been emphasized in the previous sections and chapters, amongst the different types of leave paternity leave is not underscored so that many men (fathers) are enticed to apply. Managerial discretion and rational choice prevails on which leave to advocate and provide. Decision-making to take this leave is based on cost-benefit analysis. From an institution, the cost of letting-go an officer on leave because his new-born child is seen as conflicting productivity. At the same time any absence on leave would demand some pay and could take a number of days, which is perceived as counter-productive. Policy selectivity from the employee's side is threatened by financial loss if one chooses a type of leave that is

not paid for, like paternity leave. Employees themselves as applicants have mixed perceptions and attitudes towards paternity leave itself; others considering it as a waste of time, and not necessary. Against this notion, the study found that maternity, annual and compassionate leave were mostly publicized than other types like paternity leave. Related to policy selectivity was an idea of disclosure of challenges associated with the practice of leave provisioning.

It was noted that there is a tendency of failing (- 0.361) to disclose challenges of paternity leave implementation. Failure to disclose puts management in the dark to know how paternity leave and other leave practices are being implemented, Lack of disclosure of the challenges faced by applicants of paternity leave is detrimental in a quest to innovate best practices that could modernize paternity leave in Malawi's public service.

Another challenge the study documented is value dilemma. According to the study, there is a mixture of results where as many as up to 62.5% of the paternity leave respondents did not see any problem staying off-the-job on leave in order to care for the new-born child. 11.11% of the respondents seemed to value work more than childcare such that they confessed to have found a pile of work, on their return for work. Differences in paternity leave illuminate from the spectrum of values, and institutions need to deliberately incentivize the practice by diffusing work-family life balance practices such as paternity leave. Such measures would appeal men (fathers) to ably attend to matters related to child-care without conflicting work-related demands. This approach has a huge potential to de-polarize male-breadwinner as well as female-child carer spheres.

The last, challenge which this study has unearthed is extreme bureaucracy in the course of processing paternity leave. It was observed from the findings that there was too much paper work from one office to another. As such, aspirant paternity leave takers tended to be put off in their quest to take the leave. Unless conditions and procedures are made user-friendly, ‘would-be’ paternity leave takers will not increase in number, and probably the practice will be seen as not necessary as other respondents lamented to this study.

5.3 Suggestions/Recommendations: Improving paternity leave in Malawi

While acknowledging that paternity leave taking has been well advocated in developed countries, the study has shown that there is still an interest amongst working fathers in developing countries to equally take this leave. In my study, it has been shown that though few, working fathers regardless of their income status, education background, culture and ethnic background, culture of their organisation, and gender dimensions within their families and workplaces still have a zeal to take paternity leave.

Now, based on the best practices which are practiced in developed countries, there can be some policy learning by all organisations: government, non-governmental, private institutions on how best to entice fathers to take paternity leave. For instance, what this study noted is that compensating paternity leave is key. While literature still notes that money could not be the primary motivating factor, however it is crucial for use by the family during the time of stay of the father on paternity leave. Generosity of paternity leave with pay would help men to demand for even a longer stay with the child and mother. As a result, the bonding with the new-born child and other children, and reunion of the whole family would be deepened. This is advantageous in trying to neutralize

gender based violence which is common in developing countries, like Africa (probably, this is another area worth studying on in establishing the association of these factors!).

The study could as well recommend for flexibility as a practice that would make fathers access paternity leave easily. Flexibility as being practices in developed countries like the Nordic region searches more into: how allowing the conditions of applications are, navigation of the time for utilizing the leave, and most of all the issue of rational choice. As regards favorability of conditions of application, studies in Nordic countries and beyond allow paternity leave to be applied and taken either separately or jointly when the wife is applying for maternity leave. Brandth and Kvande (2016) consider flexibility in leave arrangements by viewing the opportunity mothers and fathers have to control the timing of their leave taking as having the potential to increase the use of leave particularly by fathers. In Malawi, having paternity leave being accessed at the time the mother is applying for the maternity leave, would be ideal in increasing male involvement in childcare. Of course, a study could be carried out here to see the impact of such arrangement in developing countries, more especially, in Malawi. What is key under flexibility as an arrangement from developing countries is the primacy of rational choice, and the quest to jointly take part in household caring responsibilities.

5.4 Suggestions for Areas of Future Research

Highlighting the existing gaps in this research serves useful for efficiently and effectively directing future research. Future research and literature should expand upon the current research, fill in existing gaps, and resolve contradictions where possible.

This study looked at determinants of paternity leave in the Malawi Public service. However, further research could have a comparative analysis of the paternity leave's implementation of private non-governmental institutions (NGOs) and Government institutions (MDAs). This could help in having a fair comparison and general picture of paternity leave's implementation in Malawi.

Future research can also focus on the utilization of paternity leave by spouses of leave takers. The aim would be to unearth the extent of involvement of male officers when their spouses give birth or have adopted a child. In line with this parenting and effect of male involvement, research can be done targeting personal attributes of a child whose father processed paternity leave. This study can focus on an attempt to comprehensively analyse forms of work/family life balance (flex-time) in Governmental and, of interest in non-governmental institutions.

Future research should largely focus on the benefits to our workforce and the implications for society. Future studies on paternity leave in Malawi and other developing countries should be used to create a model clarifying the indirect and direct pay and the corresponding costs that paid paternity leave could have within the public sector in developing countries. This research could take into account the current public assistance and health care costs, and other similar costs. Such a study could be interesting to investigate more on understanding the survival mechanisms and nature of business spouses of paternity leave takers do so that they should not bother influencing their husbands in taking paternity leave.

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5.5 Reflecting on the theoretical framework

The study was anchored on two theories. These were gender theory and rational choice theory. Gender theory as postulated by Gary Becker (1991) attested that the relationship at household is based on the degree of negotiation (bargaining), to which case the whole aim is sharing caring responsibilities (division of labour). The gender theory, while focusing at the interactionism in the household, has eventually tested the validity of male breadwinner-woman child carer relationship. While doing this, rational choice theory interfaces in a meaningful manner. Rational choice theory entails a look and calculation of benefits (utility maximisation). Any decision that the father (in this case, my respondent) and mother (wife of the respondent) make is calculated on the benefits or cost associated with their division or joint attempt to care for the new- born/adopted

child. Therefore, the decision that is being made is whether to take paternity leave or not. At the same time, the rational choice theory extends its leg so as to influence or affect decision making of management in whether to provide or not provide paternity leave to its employees.

Therefore, the study found that these two theories have a space in paternity leave taking in the public service in Malawi. While the belief of male-breadwinner's perspective, where the man dominates in family's decision-making and provides for the resources needed in the home, the study found that amongst respondents who took paternity leave, decision making was a joint business. However, when non-paternity leave takers were consulted in the study, their decision of not taking the leave was primarily their own decision, hence indicating male dominance. In terms of numbers of respondents against this element of this rational choice, non-paternity leave takers dominated. Reasons that were reported in the study for not taking the leave such as value dilemma, only show that choice is basically made by the man, more also, the choice to take or not take leave. This indicates that in the public service in Malawi male-bread winner still dominates.

In terms of organisations (institutions), management remains the decision maker on whether to provide paternity leave to its employees or not. The organisational culture does not deliberately allow the balance of family and work-life through paternity leave to be known to its employees because there is a consideration of productivity, pay and support that could be incurred if many employees take paternity leave. Institutions variably promote leave policies whereby paternity leave is less emphasized than maternity and other types of leave. Therefore, if paternity leave in Malawi's public service is to be rallied behind by many employees, the organisational culture, conditions

of service, policies and legislations have to be more allowing. Emphasis needs to be made on incentivizing paternity leave by making it flexible, increase awareness, review laws and policies, and deliberately change leave arrangements so that many married men start applying for paternity leave in Malawi, and developing countries in general.

Therefore, gender theory and rational choice theory while being applicable in developed countries, in developing countries like Malawi have more fertile ground to be tested.

5.6 Contribution to the body of knowledge

This study situates itself in the broader realm of work-family life balance. More especially, the study finds a fertile ground in parenting. Over the past few decades the issue of reconciling work and family has been given a prominent place both on the policy agenda and in research in most Western countries (Brandth and Kvande, 2016). It is therefore pertinent that the same issue of paternity leaves within work-family life balance trickle down to developing countries like Malawi. The issue of taking paternity leave in an organisation searches deeper into how family and personal needs and responsibilities reconcile with the work demands. Today's parenting is faced with a changes in the society such as: dual working couples, flexible work arrangements (part-time and teleconferencing). As such, male involvement in the child family caring responsibility is important. In the course of considering these changes, and the need to take part in the childcare responsibilities, paternity leave taking becomes essential. Unless organisations deliberately incorporate work-family-life balance, work productivity becomes a problematic since father frequently makes himself absent from work. The study appreciates that that childcare calls for the joint participation of both

parents at this time when there is a new-born/adopted child. In doing so, there is a realisation that both household's divisions of labour in order to care for the child and mother, and the degree of household's bargaining so that there is meaningful engagement and involvement of the father in the care. By considering the division of childcare in the family, gender neutrality is an important issue. Therefore, advancing paternity leave promotes work-family life balance as a measure to break male-breadwinner, and female child-carer. Such consideration of work-family life balance relates to the paradigm of transformative emancipation which begets paternity leave taking.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for non-paternity leave takers

INTRODUCTION

This questionnaire seeks to generate information from other staff members who have never accessed paternity leave in their work-lives. It purports to analyse “Determinants of paternity leave in Malawi Public Service”.

Your presence as staff member in this organisation is important in understanding policy dynamics as they impact and influence gender-relations. You are therefore key in providing responses to this study using this questionnaire.

The study is purely academic and the respondents will be held confidential. Your assistance is highly anticipated.

For other correspondences, please contact the researcher on:

Gilbert Kaponda (MPAM/05/17), University of Malawi-Chancellor College.

Cell: 0999211102, Email: adzagil@yahoo.co.uk

IMPORTANT: Provide your responses by way of: filling (a number of statement) or ticking in the blank spaces, accordingly and corresponding to the question.

CATEGORY A: BASIC INFORMATION OF RESPONDENT

Q1: Name of Institution

1. LUANAR
2. Parliament of Malawi
3. Southern Region Water-board
4. University of Malawi-Chancellor College
5. Ombudsman

Q2: Respondent ID (It is indicated on the front page)

Q3: What is your marital status?

1. Married
2. Single
3. Widower
4. Divorced

Q4: What kind of job do you do?

1. Clerical
2. Custodial
3. managerial

Q5: What is your position in your organization?

Q6: How long have you been working in this position?

Q7: How many children do you have?

1. One
2. Two
3. Three
4. Four
5. Five above

CATEGORY B: LEGAL/POLICY FRAMEWORK OF LEAVE

Q8: Which leave policies does your organization have?

Q9: Does your organisation have a paternity leave policy?

1. Yes

2. No

Q10: If yes, are you aware of the contents of this provision?

1. Yes

2. No

(If yes, go to **Q12**)

Q11: If No, to **Q10**, provide reasons for your lack of awareness.

1. Our office does not promote paternity leave.
2. There is no policy on paternity leave.
3. It is culturally unacceptable for men to take paternity leave.
4. Other reasons

Q12: How is this paternity leave designed in your organisation?

Q13: Did the design mentioned, influence your decision of taking paternity leave?

1. Yes

2. No.

Q14: Which administrative arrangement is used in providing paternity leave?

1. As stand-alone policy

2. As part of the Conditions of Service.

Q15: How much emphasis is given to paternity leave as compared to maternity leave?

CATEGORY C: CAUSES OF TAKING/NOT TAKING PATERNITY LEAVE

SET A: CULTURAL

a) Ethnical

Q16: Which ethnic group do you come from?

1. Yao

2. Chewa

3. Lomwe

4. Tumbuka

5. Tonga

6. Sena

7. Ngoni

8. Others (specify)

Q17: Does your ethnic group promote men in caring for newly-born/adopted children?

1. Yes

2. No.

Q18: If Yes to (Q17) above, would you take paternity leave as influenced by your ethnic belief?

b) Organizational

Q19: Does your organization respect cultural diversity?

1. Yes

2. No

Q20: What things are part of your organizational culture?

Q21: Are people in your organization encouraged to value the organizational culture?

1. Yes

2. No

Q22: How does your organizational culture affect in decisions related to leave policies?

Q23: How was your decision on paternity leave affected by the organizational culture?

Q24: To what extent are gender issues included in your organization?

SET B: SOCIAL ECONOMIC ISSUES

a) Educational

Q25: What is your level of education?

1. Did not attend school
2. Primary school
3. Secondary school
4. Tertiary education
5. Vocational education

Q26: What is the level of education of your spouse?

1. Did not attend school
2. Primary school
3. Secondary school
4. Tertiary education
5. Vocational education

Q27: Based on your education background, is paternity leave good or bad?

1. Good

2. Bad

b) Economic

Q28: How do you earn your income?

1. Business
2. Salary
3. Allowances
4. Multiple sources

Q29: How much is your monthly income? (Please specify by indicating actual the amount in the space below)

MK_____ /Month

Q30: What does your wife do for a living?

1. Formal employment
2. Self-employment
3. Business
4. House-wife

Q31: Based on your economic experience, would you recommend one to take paternity leave?

1. Yes

2. No

c) Religious

Q32: Does your religion influence men in taking role in caring for children? Explain.

d) Attitude/Perception

Q33: Have you ever considered taking paternity leave in your organisation?

1. Yes

2. No.

Q34: If no to Q33 are there reasons behind your decision?

Q34: Do you think it will be necessary to take this paternity leave in the near future?

1. Yes

2. No

Q36: What could be your advice to men who are interested in processing paternity leave?

1. Must take paternity leave.
2. Must not process the leave.
3. Must just take a normal holiday than paternity leave.
4. Must just snick out and assist the wife.
5. Others (specify)

Q37: What is your perception of men who processed paternity leave?

e) Interpersonal

Q38: Do you know any of your workmates who took paternity leave in this organization?

1. Yes

2. No

Q39: If yes to **Q38**, what were some of the reasons for them taking paternity leave?

SET C: POLITICAL ISSUES

Q40: Who leads in decisions related to child care in your family?

1. My wife

2. My self

3. Both of us

Q41: What role do you play in resource mobilization when there is a new-born/adopted child in your family?

Q42: Do you feel women could influence your organization in paternity leave provision?

1. Yes

2. No.

Q43: Have you ever discussed the decision to take paternity leave in your family?

1. Yes

2. No

Q44: Which role do you take in your organization on gender issues?

CATEGORY D: EFFECTS OF NOT TAKING PATERNITY LEAVE

Q45: Are there any effects of you not taking paternity leave?

1. Yes

2. No

Q46: If yes to (**Q45**), which are these effects? Explain.

END OF QUESTIONS

Appendix 2: Questionnaire for paternity leave takers

INTRODUCTION

This questionnaire seeks to generate information from you on paternity leave administration in your organisation. It purports to analyse “Determinants of paternity leave in Malawi Public Service”.

You may be interested to note that your decision to take paternity leave has been of interest in the academic sphere, especially as we focus at the space of gender equality in various policies and practices that Malawi, as a country has across its public institutions. You are therefore key in providing responses to this study using this questionnaire.

The study is purely academic and the respondents will be held confidential. Your assistance is highly anticipated.

For other correspondences, please contact the researcher on:

Gilbert Kaponda (MPAM/05/17), University of Malawi-Chancellor College.

Cell: 0999211102, Email: adzagil@yahoo.co.uk

IMPORTANT: Provide your responses by way of: filling (a number of statement) or ticking in the blank spaces, accordingly and corresponding to the question.

CATEGORY A: BASIC INFORMATION OF RESPONDENT

Q1: Name of Institution

- 6. LUANAR
- 7. Parliament of Malawi
- 8. Southern Region Water-board
- 9. University of Malawi-Chancellor College
- 10. Ombudsman

Q2: Respondent ID (it is indicated on the front page)

Q3: What is your marital status?

- 5. Married
- 6. Single
- 7. Widower

8. Divorced

Q4: What kind of job do you do?

- 4. Clerical
- 5. Custodial
- 6. managerial

Q5: What is your position in your organization?

Q6: How long have you been working on this position?

Q7: How many children do you have?

- 6. one
- 7. Two
- 8. Three
- 9. Four
- 10. Five above

CATEGORY B: LEGAL/POLICY FRAMEWORK GOVERNING LEAVE

Q8: Are you aware of any job-protected leave in your organization?

1. Yes

2. No

Q9: If yes, which leave policies do you know?

- 1. Maternity leave
- 2. Paternity leave
- 3. Sick/Medical leave
- 4. Annual leave
- 5. Educational leave
- 6. Others
(specify)_____

Q10: How many paternity-leave days are provided by your organization?

- 1. 3 to 5 days.
- 2. 6 to 14 days
- 3. 3 weeks
- 4. 1 month.
- 5. As many as you want
- 6. I don't know.

Q11: Who was responsible for approving your paternity leave?

Q12: How were you informed of paternity leave provision?

Q13: How did your organization help when you took paternity leave?

1. Provides cash.
2. Provides feeding regimen
3. Provides accessories for the baby
4. Is never involved
5. Other support (specify)

Q14: Should an organisation promote the decision of men to take paternity leave?

1. Yes

2. No

Q15: Explain your response to **Q14**, above.

CATEGORY C: CAUSES OF TAKING OR NOT TAKING PATERNITY LEAVE

SET A: CULTURAL ISSUES

Q16: Which ethnic group do you come from?

9. Yao
10. Chewa
11. Lomwe
12. Tumbuka
13. Tonga
14. Sena
15. Ngoni
16. Others (specify)

Q17: Does your ethnic group promote men in caring for newly-born/adopted children?

2. Yes

2. No.

Q18: If no to (**Q17**), above, what could be some of the reasons for the culture not promoting paternity leave taking?

Q19: How many times have you processed paternity leave in your working life?

1. Once
2. Twice
3. Thrice
4. More than three times

Q20: Were all these paternity leave moments processed within the same organization?

1. Yes

2. No.

Q21: If no to **Q20** above, which other organization(s) provided you paternity leave?

Q22: How are paternity leave takers perceived in your culture/ethnic group?

SET B: SOCIO-ECONOMC ISSUES

a) Educational issues

Q23: What is your level of education?

6. Did not attend school
7. Primary school
8. Secondary school
9. Tertiary education
10. Vocational education

Q24: What is the level of education of your spouse?

6. Did not attend school
7. Primary school
8. Secondary school
9. Tertiary education
10. Vocational education

Q25: At which level of education did you know that taking paternity leave was good/bad?

Q26: Explain how your educational background has influenced your decision of taking/not taking paternity leave?

b) Economic issues

Q27: How do you earn your income?

- 5. Business
- 6. Salary
- 7. Allowances
- 8. Multiple sources

Q28: How much is your monthly income?

- 1. Less than K100,000
 - 2. K100, 001 – K200, 000
 - 3. K200, 001 – K300, 000
 - 4. K300,001 – K500, 000
 - 5. K500,001 and above (specify)
-

Q29: What does your wife do for a living?

- 5. Formal employment
- 6. Self-employment
- 7. Business
- 8. House-wife

Q30: Were you in any way affected economically when you were on paternity leave?

1. Yes

2. No.

c) Attitude and perceptual issues

Q31: What is your level of satisfaction with paternity leave policy in your organization?

- 1. Not satisfied
- 2. A bit satisfied
- 3. Satisfied
- 4. Very satisfied

Q32: What could be your advice to men who are interested in processing paternity leave?

- 6. Must take paternity leave.
 - 7. Must not process the leave.
 - 8. Must just take a normal holiday than paternity leave.
 - 9. Must just snick out and assist the wife.
 - 10. Others (specify)
-

Q33: How do female work-mates perceive men who process and take paternity leave? Explain.

Q34: Based on your education background, would you perceive paternity leave as good or bad?

2. Good

2. Bad

Q35: Based on your economic experience, would you recommend one to take paternity leave?

2. Yes

2. No

Q36: What is your perception of men who processed paternity leave?

Q37: How do you perceive the time you stayed on paternity leave?

1. Boring
2. Regrettable
3. Waste of time
4. Learning moment
5. Reunion time.
6. Busy time in personal activities
7. Interactive time with my family

Q38: What has been the reaction of your wife towards your paternity leave?

1. Mockery
 2. Encouraging
 3. Discouraging
 4. Supportive
 5. Not supportive
 6. Others
- (specify) _____

Q39: Would you prefer paternity leave being processed by a female or male employee?

1. Male

2. Female

3. Anyone

Q40: Explain your response to **Q39**, above.

SET C: POLITICAL ISSUES

Q41: How did you reach a decision to take paternity leave?

1. From the policy
2. Challenges due to the birth of the first child
3. Our family had twins born.
4. My wife passed on and I had to care for the baby alone.
5. Changes in family life style

Q42: Why did you consider taking paternity leave?

1. We adopted a child
2. Wife had twin children
3. Wife wanted support
4. Child birth complications
5. Wanted to enjoy the birth of the child
6. Others (specify)

Q43: Who influenced a decision of taking/not taking paternity leave?

Q44: During which time did you particularly decide and apply for paternity leave?

1. First birth
2. Second birth
3. Third birth
4. All births
5. When there were twin births
6. When we adopted a child.

CATEGORY D: EFFECTS OF TAKING PATERNITY LEAVE

Q45: How has your relationship with work-mates been affected due to taking paternity leave?

Q46: What has been the reaction of women workmates towards your paternity leave?

1. Mockery
2. Encouraging
3. Discouraging
4. Supportive
5. Not supportive
6. Others
(specify)

Q47: Did some of your elderly children influence in your decision of taking paternity leave?

1. Yes

2. No.

Q48: Has your stay on paternity leave contributed to the relationship with your family members?

1. Worsened my relationship with my family members.
2. Improved my relationship with my family members.
3. More bonding with my children
4. Others
(specify) _____

Q49: What is the effect of taking paternity leave on child-bearing in your family?

Q50: Would you say that taking paternity leave contributed to school performance among your children?

CATEGORY E: CHALLENGES IN LEAVE IMPLEMENTATION

Q51: How many days did it take for paternity leave to be granted?

Q52: Have you ever been encouraged or discouraged by your work-mate on your decision to take paternity leave?

1. Encouraged 2. Discouraged 3. Nothing at all

Q53: Did you experience any challenges on return from your paternity leave? Explain.

END OF QUESTIONS

Appendix 3: Questionnaire for Human Resource/Administration Officers

INTRODUCTION

This questionnaire seeks to generate information from you on paternity leave administration in your organisation. It purports to analyse “Determinants of paternity leave in Malawi Public Service”.

You may be interested to note that your organisation is among the few institutions in Malawi that provide paternity leave to its male employees. Your office is key in providing responses to this questionnaire.

The study is purely academic and the respondents will be held confidential. Your assistance is highly anticipated.

For other correspondences, please contact the researcher on:

Gilbert Kaponda (MPAM/05/17), University of Malawi-Chancellor College.

Cell: 0999211102, Email: adzagil@yahoo.co.uk

BASIC INFORMATION OF THE ORGANIZATION

Q1: Name of the Institution

1. LUANAR
2. Parliament of Malawi
3. Southern Region Water-board
4. University of Malawi-Chancellor College
5. Ombudsman

Q2: Respondent's ID (It is indicated on the front page)

Q3: How many employees are in your institution?

1. Male 2. Female

Q4: How many male employees

1. Are married ? 2. Single?

CATEGORY 1: LEGAL/POLICY FRAMEWORK GOVERNING LEAVE ADMINISTRATION

Q5: Does your organisation have a policy governing paternity leave administration?

1. Yes 2. No

Q6: Of the male employees in your organisation, how many;

1. Married, took leave 2. Single, but took leave

Q7: How is the paternity leave policy designed in your organisation?

1. Separate policy. 2. part of other policies

Q8: Why was this designed as indicated in (Q7) above?

Q9: Does this leave policy relate to any gender policies, Law, or Condition of service?

1. Yes 2. No

Q10: When were conditions of service introduced in your institution? And last revised?

Q11: How does paternity leave work in your organization?

Required Period for processing	No. of Days allowed for leave	Quota of each department

CATEGORY 2: CAUSES OF TAKING/NOT TAKING PATERNITY LEAVE

Q12: Which category of officers mostly take paternity leave?

1. Managers
2. custodial
3. Clerical officers

Q13: Which are the major reasons cited when men are processing paternity leave?

Q14: How has your institution been supportive to officers who took paternity leave?

1. Provides transport
2. Provides money for upkeep
3. Provides groceries
4. Nothing

Q15: Which other incentives does your institution provide for taking paternity leave?

1. Reduced working hours.
2. Combined paternity and maternity leave for dual earners
3. Transferability of leave
4. Quota arrangement of leave

5. Others

(specify)

Q16: For those that don't take paternity leave, which are the common reasons given?

Q17: How is publicity of your work/family policy/condition of service done in your organisation?

1. Through Union meetings
2. Through departmental meetings
3. Circulars
4. Offer of Employment

Q18: How often is publicity on paternity leave provision made?

1. Once-off in the offer letters
2. Once every year
5. Periodically when union members meet.
3. Periodically through circulars.
4. Never.

Q19: How do officers perceive paternity leave in your organisation?

Q20: Do these perceptions affect the level of intake of paternity leave?

1. Yes
2. No

Q21: Are there cases when officers stay off-job in order to care for new born children without taking paternity leave?

1. Yes
2. No (If No, skip to Q23)

CATEGORY 3: EFFECTS OF TAKING PATERNITY LEAVE

Q22: Has taking paternity leave by your officers affected work-place practices?

1. Yes
2. No

Q23: How do you assess productivity of officers who took paternity leave?

Q24: Have gender relations been affected by your provision of paternity leave in your organisation?

1. Yes
2. No (If No, skip to Q26)

Q25: If yes, what are the effects of paternity leave on gender relations in your organisation?

Q26: Which are other effects of providing paternity leave in your organisation?

CATEGORY 4: CHALLENGES IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF PATERNITY LEAVE

Q27: Are there challenges in paternity leave implementation in your organization?

1. Yes

2.

No (If No, skip to Q32)

Q28: If yes to (Q20), which challenges are encountered in the implementation of paternity leave?

Q29: Do these challenges influence men in their decision for not taking leave?

1. Yes

2.

No

Q30: Do you disclose these challenges to the organisation?

1. Yes

2.

No

Q31: If Yes to Q30, how are challenges disclosed?

1. Union meetings

2. Management meetings

3. Circulars

4. Face-to-face discussions

5. Social media discussion

Q32: What is the role of management in mitigating these challenges?

END OF QUESTIONS

Appendix 4: List of systematically generated samples

Samples for Chancellor			20 Samples for SRWB			LUANAR			20 Samples from Ombudsman			Samples for Parliament of Maldives		
Randomiz	Systematiz	MOD	Randomiz	Systematiz	MOD	Randomiz	Systematiz	MOD	Randomiz	Systematiz	MOD	Randomiz	Systematiz	MOD
346	24	0	184	10	0	125	12	0	14	2	0	109	6	0
416	48	0	188	20	0	38	25	0	6	4	0	68	12	0
7	72	0	152	30	0	37	38	0	40	6	0	3	18	0
219	96	0	75	40	0	189	51	0	29	8	0	89	24	0
178	120	0	62	50	0	209	64	0	38	10	0	59	30	0
275	144	0	99	60	0	60	77	0	25	12	0	5	36	0
202	168	0	42	70	0	192	90	0	6	14	0	36	42	0
440	192	0	153	80	0	20	103	0	3	16	0	124	48	0
36	216	0	165	90	0	215	116	0	12	18	0	29	54	0
385	240	0	102	100	0	8	129	0	23	20	0	69	60	0
199	264	0	104	110	0	55	142	0	9	22	0	111	66	0
49	288	0	100	120	0	62	155	0	14	24	0	122	72	0
442	312	0	9	130	0	72	168	0	5	26	0	35	78	0
249	336	0	11	140	0	36	181	0	15	28	0	83	84	0
466	360	0	91	150	0	223	194	0	6	30	0	12	90	0
51	384	0	1	160	0	29	207	0	34	32	0	93	96	0
63	408	0	205	170	0	111	220	0	33	34	0	29	102	0
404	432	0	73	180	0	264	233	0	26	36	0	119	108	0
405	456	0	206	190	0	197	246	0	26	38	0	87	114	0
387	480	0	180	200	0	54	259	0	16	40	0	11	120	0
			185	210	0	4	268	0				109	126	0
												106	132	0
												118	138	0

Source: Excel spreadsheet processing (October, 2019)

Appendix 5: List of participants to the study indicated with their Pseudo IDs

HR/Administration Officers		PL taker		Non-PL takers			
Institution	Pseudo-ID	Institution	Pseudo-ID	Institution	Pseudo ID	Institution	Pseudo ID
LUANAR	L-AD-4	LUANAR	LN-PL-7	LUANAR	LN1	CHANCO	CCN-12
LUANAR	L-AD-2	LUANAR	LN-PL-1	LUANAR	LN-18	CHANCO	CCN-11
SRWB	SWRB-AD-1	LUANAR	LN-PL-2	LUANAR	LN-2	SRWB	SRWB-N-16
SRWB	SRWB-AD-3	LUANAR	LN-PL-3	LUANAR	LN-5	SRWB	SRWB-N-18
CHANCO	CC-AD-2	SRWB	SRWB-PL-3	LUANAR	LN-15	CHANCO	CCN-9
OMBUDSMAN	OOO-AD-2	SRWB	SRWB-PL-1	LUANAR	LN-11	SRWB	SRWB-N-10
OMBUDSMAN	OOO-AD-1	SRWB	SRWB-PL-4	LUANAR	LN-3	SRWB	SRWB-N-3
PARLIAMENT	PAR-AD-1	PARLIAMENT	PAR-PL-1	LUANAR	LN-10	CHANCO	CCN-6
				LUANAR	LN-16	CHANCO	CCN-17
				LUANAR	LN-13	CHANCO	CCN-14
				LUANAR	LN-12	SRWB	SRWB-N-2
				CHANCO	CCN-13	SRWB	SRWB-N-11
				CHANCO	CCN-15	SRWB	SRWB-N-12
				CHANCO	CCN-10	SRWB	SRWB-N-5
				CHANCO	CCN-3	OMBUDSMAN	OOO-N-2
				CHANCO	CCN-16	OMBUDSMAN	OOO-N-5
				CHANCO	CCN-7	OMBUDSMAN	OOO-N-4
				CHANCO	CCN-20	OMBUDSMAN	OOO-N-6
				CHANCO	CCN-19	OMBUDSMAN	OOO-N-17
				PARLIAMENT	PAR-N-9	PARLIAMENT	PAR-N-1
				PARLIAMENT	PAR-N-6	PARLIAMENT	PAR-N-7
				PARLIAMENT	PAR-N-3	PARLIAMENT	PAR-N-19
				PARLIAMENT	PAR-N-5		

Source: Data collected from the Staff Registers across five institutions and systematically sampled (October, 2019)

Appendix 6: Extract of leave form from Parliament of Malawi

PSC 02/012



PARLIAMENT OF MALAWI



APPLICATION FOR LEAVE BY STAFF

PART A *(To be completed by Applicant in Triplicate)*

1. Name.....
2. Post.....Grade.....
3. Entitlement of Holidays per year.....
4. Type of leave applied for

☐ Annual☐ Maternity☐ Sick☐ Compassionate
5. Number of days applied for From.....to.....
6. Leave Grant ☐ required ☐ not required
7. Physical contact address.....

Source: Human Resource Management form, from Parliament of Malawi (October, 2019)

Appendix 7: Extract of leave form from Southern Region Water-board

SOUTHERN REGION WATER BOARD	
<u>LEAVE APPLICATION FORM</u>	
1. NAME OF OFFICER	EMP.NO.....
2. DEPARTMENT.....	
3. GRADE	
4. NUMBER OF DAYS APPLIED FOR	
i. Days of Vacation	
ii. Days of Sick Leave	
iii. Days of Study Leave	
5. NUMBER OF DAYS LEFT (BALANCE)	

Source: Human Resource Management form, from Southern Region Water-board (October, 2019)

Appendix 8: Extract of leave form for Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources



Knowledge Innovation Excellence

ANNUAL LEAVE APPLICATION FORM
BUNDA COLLEGE

(to be completed in Triplicate)

A. PERSONAL DETAILS

(i). Name in full

(ii). Designation / Post

(iii). Academic Year

B. LEAVE DETAILS

i. Days due in present year

ii. Days brought forward at request of the University (letter for reference)

iii. Days taken in present year

iv. Days now due $\{(i)+(ii)-(iii)\}$

v. Days now applied for

vi. Balance due in present year $\{(iv) - (v)\}$

vii. Dates requested from to

D. OTHER INFORMATION.

Source: Human Resource Management form, from Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources (September, 2019)

Appendix 9: Extract of the leave form for the Office of the Ombudsman

OFFICE OF THE OMBUDSMAN
APPLICATION FOR COMPASSIONATE LEAVE
(See Clause 5.2.5 of Terms and Conditions of Service)

PART A (To be completed by Applicant)

Name:.....Post & Grade.....

1. Subject to the exigencies of the service, I wish to apply for..... days leave to start on..... and finish on..... I will return to duty on.....

2. This application is for the holiday year My Compassionate leave entitlement is days. Number of days previously taken Number of days remaining If the leave is approved and taken I will remain with days.

3. Contact address whilst on leave.....

4. Date of application..... Signature of applicant.....

PART B (To be completed by Supervising Officer)

..... Days of compassionate leave recommended/not recommended

Signature Title of Post..... Date.....

PART C (To be completed by Authorizing Officer)

I approve/do not approvedays of leave.

SignatureTitle of Post..... Date.....

Appendix 10: Extract of the leave form for Academic and Administrative Staff of Chancellor College

University of Malawi  CHANCELLOR COLLEGE APPLICATION FOR HOLIDAY/LEAVE GRANT (To be completed by all CTS Staff in 4 copies)	
A.	1. Name in full:..... 2. Designation:..... 3. Department/Section..... 4. Financial Year
B.	1. Days due in present year : 2. Days brought forward : 3. Days taken in present years : 4. Days due (1) + (2) – (3) : 5. Days now applied for : 6. Balance due in present year (4) – (5) : 7. Dates requested from:.....to..... 8. Contact address during the holiday : 9. Applicant's Signature.....Date.....
C.	I would like to request that mySalary () be paid before departure (month) leave grant () be paid before departure
D.	Application for holiday is recommended/Not recommended because the replacement is available/Not available
..... HEAD OF SECTION DATE	

Source: Human Resource Management form, from Chancellor College (October, 2019)

Appendix 11: Transcription of an interview with respondent number CCN-15

Interview taken on: 4th October, 2019 at 09:56 hours.

This interview was a follow up to question 45: Are there any effects of you not taking paternity leave?). The respondent (Pseudo name **CCN-15**) made clarification on **Q46** (If yes to Q45, which are these effects? Explain).

Below therefore, is a transcription from an **audio face-to-face interview** between Gilbert Adzafunika Kaponda (**GAK**) and CCN-15 as captured through a smart-phone recorder.

CCN915 : Answering to question number 46, wives need support during pregnancies and after giving birth. I've one example: on 17th August ... sorry! On 17th September, 2013 my wife went to the maternity with her friend while I was here at work. At 6 minutes past 7 in the evening, I received a call that my wife had given birth to a baby boy. I was unable to escort her because of the pressure of the work. We were preparing for Senate meetings ... (short pause) and you can see that she went there with a friend, while I was here in Zomba. My employers could not allow me to leave the task I was given since the Senate meeting was a day ahead of us. With this reason, I named ... (short pause) the baby boy Chilungamo. The reason is simple. Reasons mean ... eeee ... justice on maternity issues to be implemented ... (short pause). That's all I can say on answering question 46.

GAK : ... aaah! Great! So, should we say that you are advocating that there should be leave for men when their wives have taken birth? Is that what you want to say?

CCN-15 : Not, not taken birth but, eee! When they are due.

GAK : They are due?

CCN-15 : Eee, due to give birth.

GAK : Due to give birth?

CCN-15 : Yes, yes, yes, sure!

GAK : Ok! So, the man has to be around at that time?

CCN-15 : Exactly, exactly, sure!

GAK : Alright! ... alright! Thank you very much. And also you said that you ..., the gender issues are on track on the campus.

CCN-15 : Yes!

GAK : Would you cite one or two examples to which the College is busy ...
aaa ... fast-tracking gender issues?

CCN-15 : ... Come again?

GAK : You are saying that gender issues are on track in the campus.

CCN-15 : Yes!

GAK : So I am saying: Would you cite maybe two examples to which the College has fast-tracked the gender issues?

CCN-15 : Thank you! Yes, eee, at this College, the Registrar who is the Chief Personnel Officer is a female, and we have, eee! Two Deans, Deputy Deans who are females. And I am happy to report here that the Deputy Dean of Law is a lady, Deputy Dean of Science is a lady, which is good development. My own office, I have a Data Entry Clerk who is a lady. We have also the ICT Director; she is a lady.

GAK : Alright!

CCN-15 : Sure

GAK : So, in this case since the college is in aware that gender issues are important, aaa, (short pause), would you say that they encourage men? Or that there is that sort of encouragement going to men that they must be available when their wives are giving or have given birth?

CCN-15 : Aaa! I cannot rule out that they encourage.

GAK : mmmm

CCN-15 : Because, had it been that they do encourage, they would be allowing us to take maternity leave ... aaa ...paternity leave, yaa!

GAK : Ok!

CCN-15 : Yes! They are silent on it.

GAK : They are silent on this one?

CCN-15 : Exactly

GAK : Aaa! So, the bottom-line is that there is silence on encouraging people to take paternity leave!

CCN-15 : Exactly, exactly.

GAK : Thank, ... thank you so much.

CCN-15 : You are welcome.

GAK : I think this is the end of what I wanted to get in detail.

CCN-15 : Thank you.

GAK : Thank you, sir.

ANNECES

Annex 1: Showing Gini coefficient and income inequalities amongst non-paternity leave takers

Institution	Income	Population	% incor	% popu	Cumm % incor	Cumm % popu	Equalit
	0	0	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
Chancellor College	0	1	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.00
Chancellor College	0	1	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.04	0.00
Chancellor College	0	1	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.07	0.00
Southern Region Water-Board	0	1	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.09	0.00
Office of the Ombudsman	0	1	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.11	0.00
Office of the Ombudsman	0	1	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.13	0.00
Parliament of Malawi	0	1	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.16	0.00
Chancellor College	40000	1	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.18	0.00
Office of the Ombudsman	107000	1	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.20	0.00
Office of the Ombudsman	109000	1	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.22	0.00
Office of the Ombudsman	114000	1	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.24	0.00
Chancellor College	129000	1	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.27	0.00
Parliament of Malawi	162000	1	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.29	0.00
Chancellor College	162500	1	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.31	0.00
Southern Region Water-Board	165000	1	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.33	0.00
Chancellor College	174000	1	0.01	0.02	0.05	0.36	0.00
Chancellor College	175000	1	0.01	0.02	0.06	0.38	0.00
Southern Region Water-Board	185000	1	0.01	0.02	0.07	0.40	0.00
Parliament of Malawi	200000	1	0.01	0.02	0.08	0.42	0.00
Parliament of Malawi	210000	1	0.01	0.02	0.08	0.44	0.00
LUANAR	250000	1	0.01	0.02	0.10	0.47	0.00
Parliament of Malawi	250000	1	0.01	0.02	0.11	0.49	0.00
LUANAR	270000	1	0.01	0.02	0.12	0.51	0.00
LUANAR	280000	1	0.01	0.02	0.13	0.53	0.00
Chancellor College	280000	1	0.01	0.02	0.14	0.56	0.00
LUANAR	285000	1	0.01	0.02	0.15	0.58	0.00
Southern Region Water-Board	289000	1	0.01	0.02	0.17	0.60	0.00
Chancellor College	300000	1	0.01	0.02	0.18	0.62	0.00
Chancellor College	350000	1	0.02	0.02	0.20	0.64	0.00
Chancellor College	350000	1	0.02	0.02	0.21	0.67	0.00
Parliament of Malawi	352673.92	1	0.02	0.02	0.23	0.69	0.00
Parliament of Malawi	384044.39	1	0.02	0.02	0.24	0.71	0.01
LUANAR	420000	1	0.02	0.02	0.26	0.73	0.01
Southern Region Water-Board	420000	1	0.02	0.02	0.28	0.76	0.01
Southern Region Water-Board	550000	1	0.02	0.02	0.30	0.78	0.01
Chancellor College	680000	1	0.03	0.02	0.33	0.80	0.01
LUANAR	780000	1	0.03	0.02	0.37	0.82	0.01
Southern Region Water-Board	840000	1	0.04	0.02	0.40	0.84	0.01
LUANAR	950000	1	0.04	0.02	0.44	0.87	0.01
LUANAR	1500000	1	0.07	0.02	0.51	0.89	0.01
Chancellor College	1500000	1	0.07	0.02	0.58	0.91	0.01
LUANAR	1780000	1	0.08	0.02	0.65	0.93	0.01
Southern Region Water-Board	2350000	1	0.10	0.02	0.76	0.96	0.02
LUANAR	2800000	1	0.12	0.02	0.88	0.98	0.02
LUANAR	2820000	1	0.12	0.02	1.00	1.00	0.02
							0.19
						Area A =	0.31
						Gini =	0.612073

Source: Data from Parliament of Malawi (October, 2019)

Annex 2: Showing binary logistic regression between income variables of paternity leave takers, and considering paternity leave

Variables in the Equation								
	B	S.E.	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Source_income_respondent	-.358	.432	.685	1	.408	.699	.300	1.631
Step 1 ^a Income_respondent	.000	.000	.082	1	.775	1.000	1.000	1.000
Source_livelihood_wife	.648	.337	3.684	1	.055	1.911	.986	3.701
Constant	-.394	1.252	.099	1	.753	.674		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Source_income_respondent, Income_respondent, Source_livelihood_wife.

Source: Dataset for non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Annex 3: Showing the Omnibus Test in linear regression for income variables of paternity leave takers, and considering taking paternity leave

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients			
	Chi-square	Df	Sig.
Step	4.557	3	.207
Step 1 Block	4.557	3	.207
Model	4.557	3	.207

Source: Dataset for paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Annex 4: Showing the correlation between kind of job of paternity leave takers, and considering paternity leave

Correlations

		Kind of Job of Respondent	Considered taking paternity leave in the organisation
Kind of Job of Respondent	Pearson Correlation	1	.035
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.830
	N	42	39
Considered taking paternity leave in the organisation	Pearson Correlation	.035	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.830	
	N	39	42

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Annex 5: Showing Logistic regression between variables of income for non-paternity leave takers, and being economically affected when on leave

Variables in the Equation								
	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	Source_income_respondent	9.744	12062.289	.000	1	.999	17058.653	.000
	Income_respondent	18.957	18487.746	.000	1	.999	170898596.151	.000
	Source_livelihood_wife	48.861	42083.908	.000	1	.999	16601299429.462	.000
	Constant	-202.271	156865.678	.000	1	.999	.000	.000

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Source_income_respondent, Income_respondent, Source_livelihood_wife.

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Annex 6: Showing Correlation between the kind of job of non- paternity leave takers, and considering paternity leave

Coefficients ^a :							
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	1.609	.169		9.525	.000		
Kind of Job of Respondent	.021	.097	.035	.216	.830	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Considered taking paternity leave in the organisation

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Annex 7: Showing Correlation between the kind of job of paternity leave takers, and being affected economically when on leave

Correlations		Kind of Job of Respondent	Affected economically when on paternity leave
Kind of Job of Respondent	Pearson Correlation	1	-.325
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.433
	N	8	8
Affected economically when on paternity leave	Pearson Correlation	-.325	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.433	
	N	8	8

Source: Dataset of paternity leave takers (October, 2019).

Annex 8: Showing the linear regression with F-test results for the kind of job of paternity leave takers, and being economically affected when on leave

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.198	1	.198	.707	.433 ^b
	Residual	1.677	6	.280		
	Total	1.875	7			

a. Dependent Variable: Affected economically when on paternity leave

b. Predictors: (Constant), Kind of Job of Respondent

Source: Dataset of paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Annex 9: Showing correlation between level of education of paternity leave takers, and being economically affected when on leave

Correlations		Level of education of the respondent	Level of education of the spouse	Affected economically when on paternity leave
Spearman's rho	Level of education of the respondent	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	1.000 1.000** . . 8 8	-.488 -.488 .220 8
	Level of education of the spouse	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	1.000 1.000 . . 8 8	-.488 -.488 .220 8
	Affected economically when on paternity leave	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	-.488 -.488 .220 8	1.000 1.000 . . 8

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Dataset of paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Annex 10: Showing regression model summary for education level of non-paternity leave takers, and considering taking paternity leave

Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	51.261 ^a	.061	.084

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 7 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers

Annex 11: Showing logistic regression for variables under education level of non-paternity leave takers, and considering paternity leave

Variables in the Equation

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	EduLev_respondent	.351	.605	.337	1	.562	1.421	.434 4.653
	EduLev_spouse	-.232	.415	.313	1	.576	.793	.352 1.787
	Constant	.078	2.737	.001	1	.977	1.081	

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: EduLev_respondent, EduLev_spouse.

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers

Annex 12: Showing logistic regression for organisation having paternity leave, cultural diversity, and considering taking paternity leave

Variables in the Equation									
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
								Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	Orghav_patLevpol	1.445	.673	4.615	1	.032	4.242	1.135	15.857
	Orgresp_cultural_diversity	1.074	1.143	.883	1	.347	2.926	.312	27.494
	Constant	-2.823	1.566	3.247	1	.072	.059		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Orghav_patLevpol, Orgresp_cultural_diversity.

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Annex 13: Showing logistic regression for the reaction of women workmates, and considering taking paternity leave

Variables in the Equation									
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
								Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	Reactn_womenWorkmat	-10.326	8808.008	.000	1	.999	.000	.000	.
	Constant	21.057	17616.017	.000	1	.999	1396458204.000		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Reactn_womenWorkmat.

Source: Dataset of paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Annex 14: Showing regression model summary for cultural diversity of paternity leave takers, and considering paternity leave

Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	37.692 ^a	.236	.319

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 20 because maximum iterations has been reached. Final solution cannot be found.

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Annex 15: Showing logistic regression for variables under organisation respecting cultural diversity, and considering paternity leave

Variables in the Equation

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Orgresp_cultural_diversity	20.592	23181.586	.000	1	.999	876940478.386	.000	.
Leaddecisn_famchildcare	.083	.540	.024	1	.878	1.086	.377	3.131
Would_takPL_ethninflu	.128	.232	.306	1	.580	1.137	.721	1.792
Women_influorgpatLev	.711	.857	.689	1	.407	2.037	.380	10.932
Patevdecisn_famdiscussed	1.596	.998	2.555	1	.110	4.931	.697	34.880
Constant	-24.876	23181.586	.000	1	.999	.000		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Orgresp_cultural_diversity, Leaddecisn_famchildcare, Would_takPL_ethninflu, Women_influorgpatLev, Patevdecisn_famdiscussed.

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Annex 16: Showing regression model summary for ethnic groups of non-paternity leave takers, and taking paternity leave as being influenced by ethnic beliefs

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.366 ^a	.134	.093	1.889	1.709

a. Predictors: (Constant), Ethnic group promoting men to care for new-born/adopted children, Ethnic group of the respondent

b. Dependent Variable: Would you take paternity leave as influenced by ethnic belief?

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Annex 17: Showing the linear regression with F-test results for ethnic group of non-paternity leave takers, and considering paternity leave

ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	23.253	2	11.627	3.257	.048 ^b
Residual	149.947	42	3.570		
Total	173.200	44			

a. Dependent Variable: Would you take paternity leave as influenced by ethnic belief?

b. Predictors: (Constant), Ethnic group promoting men to care for new-born/adopted children, Ethnic group of the respondent

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)

Annex 18: Showing logistic regression of ethnic group of non-paternity leave takers, and taking paternity leave as influenced by ethnic beliefs

Coefficients ^a								
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF	
1 (Constant)	2.848	.877		3.246	.002			
Ethnic group of the respondent	.005	.112	.006	.041	.967	.983	1.017	
Ethnic group promoting men to care for new-born/adopted children	1.173	.462	.367	2.536	.015	.983	1.017	

a. Dependent Variable: Would you take paternity leave as influenced by ethnic belief?

Source: Dataset of non-paternity leave takers (October, 2019)