

1 **Families created via identity-release egg donation: disclosure and an exploration of donor**
2 **threat in early childhood**

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28
29 KEY MESSAGE

30 Most mothers of infants conceived via identity-release egg donation intended to tell their
31 children how they were

32 conceived; half had disclosed by 5 years. Despite some mothers perceiving future donor-child
33 contact as threatening,
34 most intended to inform their child of their right to access donor-identifying information at
35 age 18.

36

37 ABSTRACT

38 Research question: What are mothers' disclosure intentions and practices from infancy to
39 early childhood, and is perceived donor threat associated with disclosure in identity-release
40 egg donation families when the children are aged 5 years?

41 Design: This longitudinal study included 73 heterosexual-couple families with infants born
42 following IVF-egg donation at phase one, and 61 families with 5-year-old children at phase
43 two. At both phases, mothers were interviewed about their disclosure intentions and
44 practices. At phase two, mothers were interviewed about their feelings about future donor-
45 child contact.

46 Results: Most mothers (75.3%) intended to disclose their use of egg donation to their children
47 at phase one; half had begun to do so when their children were aged 5. Most remaining
48 mothers planned to tell, although a minority were uncertain or planned not to disclose. When
49 the child was aged 5, four mothers had started telling them that they could access their
50 donor's identifying information at age 18, and most (84%) intended to do so in the future.
51 Most couples agreed on a disclosure strategy at phase two. Most mothers perceived at least
52 some threat from future donor-child contact, but this was unrelated to their disclosure
53 practices.

54 Conclusions: Disclosure intentions in infancy are borne out in early childhood. Despite
55 perceiving some threat from future donor-child contact, most mothers intended telling their
56 child that they could access the donor's identifying information at age. Revisiting these
57 families as the children grow older will be important to understand how the mothers'
58 perceived donor threat may change over time, and how this is related to family processes.

59

60 KEYWORDS

61 Disclosure; Donor threat; Egg donation; Identity-release; IVF; Gamete donation

62

63 INTRODUCTION

64 Since 2005 and the removal of donor anonymity, identity- release donation has been the main
65 option available to individuals seeking fertility treatment with donor eggs in the UK. This
66 means that patients do not know the donor’s identity at the time of treatment, but any
67 resultant child has the right to access identifying information about the donor (i.e. their full
68 name, date of birth and last known address) from age 18 years. Over 4000 treatment cycles
69 involving donor eggs were carried out in the UK in 2018 (Human Fertilisation and Embryology
70 Authority, 2020). Identity-release donation is also the main treatment option for individuals
71 requiring treatment with donor eggs in several countries internationally, including Sweden,
72 Norway, New Zealand and Australia. In other countries, such as the USA and Denmark,
73 patients may choose whether to pursue egg donation with an anonymous or an identifiable
74 donor. Despite the growing use of identity-release egg donation, little is known about the
75 outcomes for families created through this technology (Imrie and Golombok, 2018).

76

77 Parents conceiving via donor eggs must decide whether or not they intend to tell their child
78 about their donor conception. In many high-income countries, including the UK, there has
79 been a trend over the last two decades towards encouraging parents to disclose donor
80 conception to their children (Collins, 2022; Donor Conception Network, n.d.; HFEA, 2021;
81 Nuffield Council of Bioethics, 2013). In the UK, the current Human Fertilisation and
82 Embryology Authority Code of Practice states that clinics must give patients information about
83 ‘the importance of telling any resultant children, at an early age, of their donor-conceived
84 origins’ (HFEA, 2021a, paragraph 20.6- 20.7). Similarly, the Ethics Committee of the American
85 Society of Reproductive Medicine (2018) strongly encourages parents to inform their children
86 of their donor conception, although it does also state that the decision of whether or not to
87 disclose donor conception is a parent’s choice, given the highly personal nature of the decision
88 (ASRM, 2018).

89

90 Disclosure rates amongst heterosexual couples with families created through egg donation
91 vary between studies, with most samples comprising parents who used anonymous donation
92 (i.e. when the donor’s identity will never be known). The only longitudinal study of UK egg
93 donation families (of whom the majority had used anonymous donation) found that, when
94 they were interviewed during their child’s infancy, 56% of heterosexual-couple egg donation
95 parents intended to disclose, and that by the time the child was 7 years of age, 41% had done

96 so (Blake et al., 2014). A survey of 167 Finnish families created through anonymous or known
97 egg donation found that those with younger children were more likely to report intention to
98 disclose than those with older children (Söderström-Anttila et al., 2010), suggesting that
99 changing attitudes towards disclosure may also be seen among egg donation parents.
100 Whether this is also the case in other cultural contexts is not known.

101

102 It is unknown how identity-release legislation may impact parents' disclosure intentions. It
103 has been suggested that identity release may add an additional level of complexity to an
104 already complex process, even potentially leading to greater levels of secrecy rather than
105 openness (English et al., 2002; Freeman et al., 2016). Only two studies have addressed this
106 question directly. Isaksson and colleagues found that, of 55 Swedish identity-release egg
107 donation families with 1- to 4-year-olds, 18% of couples had already disclosed the egg
108 donation to the child and 75% intended to tell them (Isaksson et al., 2012). A follow- up study
109 found that 61% of families had disclosed by the time their child was aged
110 7-8 years (Lampic et al., 2021).

111

112 Despite identity-release donation being the most common form of egg donation treatment in
113 the UK since 2005, nothing is known about UK parents' disclosure intentions in families
114 created using identity- release donation. With the first UK cohort of children conceived via
115 identity-release donation turning 18 now, in 2023, understanding parents' attitudes towards
116 the disclosure of identity-release donation is particularly pertinent. The present paper
117 therefore uses findings from two phases of a longitudinal study of UK families with children
118 conceived via identity-release egg donation, to answer the following research question: what
119 are mothers' disclosure intentions and practices with regards to disclosure to their children
120 from infancy to early childhood?

121

122 There is also the issue of whether knowing the donor is felt to be a threat. A small but growing
123 body of literature suggests that the parents of children conceived via identity- release gamete
124 donation feel to some degree threatened by the prospect of donor-child contact in the future.
125 Widbom and colleagues found that, among 23 families with adult children conceived via
126 identity-release sperm donation, the fathers demonstrated discomfort with the idea of their
127 child obtaining information about their donor, with one father describing the prospect as

128 'something sinister and dark . . . and threatening to the fatherhood and to the role of the male
129 in the family' (Widbom et al., 2021). Similarly, some parents in Isaksson and co-workers' study
130 of 30 families with 7-year-old children conceived via identity-release sperm donation reported
131 concerns about future donor-child contact and about what kind of person the donor might be
132 (Isaksson et al., 2016).

133

134 As part of the present study, Lysons and colleagues (2022) found that although some mothers
135 of children conceived via identity-release egg donation viewed future donor-child contact as
136 an exciting opportunity, many viewed it as a threat to their identity as mothers and to the
137 mother-child relationship. This study also found that, for some mothers, their fears were
138 compounded by the fact that, because identity-release is a relatively new system in the UK,
139 there is a dearth of information about what donor-child contact might look like for donor
140 conceived children and their parents.

141

142 It has been suggested that the perceived threat posed by future donor-child contact may put
143 pressure on the parent-child relationship (Lampic et al., 2014) and that perceived donor threat
144 may make parents less likely to tell their child about their method of conception (Imrie et al.,
145 2020). The literature on disclosure among children conceived with anonymous donors
146 provides some subtle evidence of perceived threat to the parent-child relationship: while all
147 the parents in a sample of 19 heterosexual- couple surrogacy parents who had used a genetic
148 surrogate had disclosed their use of surrogacy by the time their child was 10 years old, only
149 58% had disclosed that they had used the surrogate's egg (Jadva et al., 2012).

150

151 A study of mothers single by choice and heterosexual partnered mothers who had used sperm
152 donation found that fewer partnered mothers than single mothers had disclosed their use of
153 donor conception to their child (Freeman et al., 2016). Among the participants in that study
154 who had not disclosed, partnered mothers were significantly more negative about disclosure
155 than single mothers. Similarly, a study of single mothers and lesbian couple and heterosexual
156 couple parents found that although rates of disclosure were relatively high across all groups,
157 heterosexual couple parents were significantly less likely to disclose their use of sperm
158 donation to their child (Scheib et al., 2003).

159

160 Together these findings indicate that, among cisheterosexual coupled parents where one
161 parent lacks a genetic link with the child, the donor may be perceived as somewhat
162 threatening. However, no study has yet attempted to overtly quantify levels of perceived
163 threat posed by an identifiable egg donor, nor has any empirical work examined this in relation
164 to mothers' disclosure practices. The present study therefore also aims to answer a second
165 research question: does perceived donor threat relate to mothers' disclosure to their children
166 in identity-release egg donation families when the children are aged 5 years?

167

168 MATERIALS AND METHODS

169

170 Participants

171 The sample forms part of a larger longitudinal study examining family functioning in families
172 created through fertility treatment. At phase one, heterosexual-couple families who had had
173 privately funded fertility treatment and had had a child in the previous 3-12 months were
174 recruited through 12 UK fertility clinics. In order to maintain confidentiality, all the families
175 were contacted by the clinics in the first instance, and were invited to submit their contact
176 details to the research team in order to register their interest in the study. Clinics contacted a
177 total of 419 families, of which 190 submitted contact details to the research team; the overall
178 participation rate at phase one was 87% (full details of the recruitment procedure are
179 provided in Imrie et al., 2019a). Families gave their consent to be contacted by the research
180 team in the future and were subsequently contacted by a member of the research team at
181 phase two, shortly before the target child's 5th birthday. The overall retention rate between
182 phases one and two was 85%.

183

184 Seventy-three families who had conceived through identity-release egg donation in the UK
185 participated in the study at phase one. The mothers were aged 33-52 years (mean 42.71 years,
186 SD = 4.08) and the fathers were aged 32-62 years (mean 43.90 years, SD = 6.63). Families had
187 infants aged 6-18 months (mean 11.26 years, SD = 2.10). Sixty-one families
188 participated again at phase two; the mothers were aged 38-57 years (mean 47.30 years, SD =
189 4.37) and the fathers were aged 37-67 years (mean 48.6 years, SD = 6.42). The children were
190 aged 5 years at the time of the visit (mean 67.5 months, SD = 4.08).

191

192 An age of 5 years was selected as the target age at phase two as this is roughly the age by
193 which clinics and support groups advise parents to have begun the disclosure process (Donor
194 Conception Network, n.d.; HFEA, 2021). Moreover, children's transition to school at age 5
195 coincides with developments in their social understanding (Hughes, 2011) and in their
196 understanding of genetic relatedness and heritability, which is thought to develop between
197 the ages of 5 and 7 (Brodzinsky, 2011; Solomon et al., 1996; Williams and Smith, 2010). Early
198 childhood may therefore represent a period during which identity-release egg donation
199 parents begin to feel an increasing expectation to begin the disclosure process, and this may,
200 in turn, catalyse thoughts about the donor and the possibility of future donor-child contact.

201

202 Mothers and fathers were interviewed as part of the larger study (see Imrie et al., 2019a,
203 2019b; Jadva et al., 2022; Lysons et al., 2022). All the mothers identified their ethnicity as
204 White British. The majority of mothers (70%) and fathers (69%) had a higher education
205 qualification and were relatively wealthy, with 35% of mothers and 58% of fathers earning an
206 above-average annual wage (>£33,000; Office for National Statistics, 2022). All the mothers
207 were either married or in non-marital cohabiting relationships at phase one; at
208 phase two, the majority (93%) of couples remained in intact relationships.

209

210 Procedure

211 At both phases of the study, the families were visited at home by one of two trained
212 researchers. Written informed consent was obtained from both parents. Parents were
213 administered a semi-structured interview that was audio-recorded and later transcribed
214 verbatim; mothers and fathers were interviewed separately. Data were collected between
215 October 2013 and June 2015 at phase one, and between July 2018 and December 2019 at
216 phase two. Ethical approval was granted by the University of Cambridge Ethics Committee on
217 11 July 2013 (reference: PRE.2013.61) and 12 June 2018 (reference: PRE.2018.047).

218

219 As interview data were available for more mothers than fathers, and as mothers were the
220 parent in this sample who lacked a genetic relationship with their child, data regarding
221 disclosure and donor threat are reported from mothers' interviews. Where data regarding
222 disclosure were available for both members of the couple, the level of agreement on
223 disclosure between mothers and fathers was calculated.

224

225 Materials

226

227 Disclosure

228 At phase one, parents were asked whether or not they intended to tell their child about their
229 donor conception, and their responses were coded according to the three categories of plans
230 not to tell, uncertain and plans to tell. Participants who planned to tell were asked about the
231 age at which they planned to tell their child. At phase two, parents were again asked whether
232 they had told their child, or intended to tell their child, about their donor conception, and
233 their responses were coded into the categories above but with an additional fourth category,
234 started telling.

235

236 In addition, parents were also asked whether they had told their child that they would be able
237 to access the donor's identifying information in the future. Parents' responses were coded
238 into the four categories above. As detailed in Lysons and colleagues (Lysons et al., 2022),
239 almost one-third of parents in this sample (28% of mothers, 31% of fathers) did not
240 fully understand that they had used an identifiable donor. Disclosure at phase two was
241 therefore also analysed by the mothers' level of understanding about identity-release.

242

243 Donor threat

244 Qualitative content analysis was conducted to develop a variable that captured the extent to
245 which egg donation mothers viewed identity-release egg donation as a threat. Specifically,
246 this variable was created to assess egg donation mothers' perceived threat from identity-
247 release egg donation, and the potential for future donor-child contact. Codes were developed
248 drawing from examples from the adoption literature that attempt to capture the variance in
249 adoptive parents' feelings around confidentiality versus openness in adoption (see Grotevant
250 et al., 1994).

251

252 Interview material coded for this variable was specific to mothers' thoughts and feelings about
253 the prospect of donor-child contact, and included statements about fear of rejection from the
254 child specifically in favour of the donor, fear of the donor claiming the child as their

255 own, and fear of the donor-child bond being more legitimate than the mother-child bond.
256 Mothers were rated as perceiving (a) no threat, (b) little threat, (c) moderate threat, or (d)
257 high threat. A code book was produced, providing detailed instructions for coding including
258 examples of content for each level of the variable. To establish inter-rater reliability, two-thirds
259 of the mothers' transcripts were coded by a second rater. The intra-class coefficient was 0.84,
260 indicating excellent reliability.

261

262 Donor threat and disclosure

263 A point-biserial correlation was conducted in order to examine whether a relationship existed
264 between perceived donor threat and disclosure status at phase two. In order to create a binary
265 disclosure variable, disclosure status was recoded so that started telling was recoded as
266 disclosed (n = 27) and plans to tell was recoded as not disclosed (n = 17).

267

268 RESULTS

269

270 Disclosure to the child

271 Table 1 summarizes the mothers' disclosure intentions at phase one and disclosure practices
272 at phase two. At phase one, when the children were infants, 55 mothers (75.3%) planned to
273 tell their child about their method of conception. Twelve mothers (16.4%) were uncertain,
274 and the remainder of mothers (n = 6, 8.2%) planned not to disclose their use of identity-
275 release egg donation to their child. At phase two, when the children were aged 5 years, 31
276 mothers (50.8%) had begun the disclosure process. A further 22 (36.1%) mothers planned to
277 tell their child about their method of conception, while a minority of mothers (n = 4, 6.6%)
278 were uncertain. Four mothers (6.6%) intended not to tell their child about their method of
279 conception.

280

281 At phase two, of the mothers who had not yet disclosed but planned to tell, the majority (n =
282 9, 40.9%) planned to do so by the time their child reached 7 years old. Four mothers (18.2%)
283 intended to tell between the ages of 7 and 10, while three mothers (13.6%) planned to
284 disclose at some point during their child's teens. The remaining six (27.3%) mothers who
285 planned to disclose to their child were unsure of when they would do so (TABLE 2).

286

287 Of the families for whom data were available at both phases, 51 mothers at phase one had
288 planned to tell. Thirty (58.8%) of these had started telling as planned. Eighteen mothers
289 (35.3%) still planned on, but had not yet begun, telling. At phase two the remaining three
290 mothers who had planned at phase one to tell were either uncertain (n = 2) or planned not to
291 tell (n = 1). Of the six mothers who were uncertain about disclosure at phase one, four at
292 phase two planned to tell, while two remained uncertain. Finally, three of the four mothers
293 who had at phase one planned not to disclose still planned not to disclose at phase two; the
294 remaining mother responded at phase two that she was uncertain whether to disclose.

295

296 Couple agreement about disclosure at phase two

297 Table 3 presents the levels of agreement between couples at phase two. Mother and father
298 data were available for 48 couples. The majority (n = 37, 77.1%) of couples agreed upon their
299 disclosure strategy at phase two; however, a minority (n = 11, 22.9%) had mismatched
300 disclosure intentions. The most common mismatch was where mothers had started the
301 disclosure process and the corresponding fathers said that they planned to, but had not yet
302 begun to, disclose (n = 4). In three couples, mothers said that they planned to tell, whereas
303 the corresponding fathers indicated that they had started telling. Two couples had mothers
304 who were uncertain about telling with corresponding fathers who planned not to tell, and one
305 couple had a mother who planned to tell and father who planned not to tell. Finally, the
306 inverse was true for one couple, such that the father planned to tell and the corresponding
307 mother did not.

308

309 Disclosure by level of understanding of identity release

310 Table 1 summarizes mothers' disclosure practices by level of understanding about identity
311 release. Seventeen mothers did not understand that they had used identity-release egg
312 donation; of these, four mothers had already begun the disclosure process. A further five
313 planned to tell their child about their method of conception, and four mothers in this group
314 were uncertain whether they would disclose their use of egg donation to their child. Four
315 mothers in this group planned not to disclose. Of the 44 mothers who understood that they
316 had used an identity- release egg donor, 27 (61.4%) had begun the disclosure process by the
317 time their child was 5 years old. All the remaining mothers in this group planned to tell their
318 child about their method of conception.

319

320 Disclosure of identity-release

321 Among the 44 mothers who understood the principles of identity-release donation, four
322 mothers (9.1%) had told their child that they would be able to access the donor's identifying
323 information in the future. Most (n = 37, 84.1%) of the remaining mothers planned to tell their
324 child about identity release in the future, while a minority (n = 3, 6.8%) remained uncertain.
325 The four mothers who had begun explaining identity-release donation to their child generally
326 did so by sharing a basic level of information about the donor, and then telling their child that
327 they would be able to find out more about the donor when they were older. Some mothers,
328 like Sofia, did so in response to their child's questions about the donor:

329

330 *She has asked about her, and I've said I don't know very much at all but when she's older she*
331 *can find out more about her, and that I know what colour eyes she's got, how tall she is and*
332 *what colour hair she's got.*

333

334 One mother, slightly further along in the disclosure process, had begun adding detail to her
335 discussion of identity-release donation by seeding the concept of same-donor offspring:

336

337 *I was talking to them about it this morning and I was saying, 'well, the kind ladies, one day*
338 *you're going to be able to meet your kind ladies and your kind ladies have also had children.'*
339 *So ... it's the first time I sort of said, 'Oh, you've got half-sisters or half- brothers out there that*
340 *you might meet when you're older.'* (Henrietta)

341

342 Donor threat

343 Qualitative content analysis was conducted with the subsample of mothers who understood
344 they had used identity-release donation (n = 44) in order to ascertain the extent to which
345 identity-release donation was perceived as threatening. The majority (n = 20, 45%) of mothers
346 were coded as perceiving no threat from identity-release egg donation; these mothers
347 demonstrated an ability to conceptually coexist with the donor without any difficulty or
348 residual fear, appeared comfortable with future donor-child contact, and demonstrated either
349 neutrality or warmth when talking about the prospect, like Hannah:

350

351 *I'm expecting [child] to want to contact the donor because I would. This is really weird, but*
352 *we'd be disappointed if she doesn't, because I can't make that decision, but I would like to*
353 *meet the person!*

354

355 A total of 32% (n = 14) of mothers were coded as perceiving little threat from identity-release
356 egg donation. This code meant that mothers were generally positive about identity-release
357 egg donation but expressed a small amount of uncertainty or hesitation about the prospect
358 of future donor-child contact, as demonstrated by Gabby:

359

360 *I think in an ideal world maybe you wouldn't ever want to tell them because you wouldn't*
361 *want anything to come between you or what have you. But then I always think about, you*
362 *know, a lot of women were getting egg donation in [country] and were going there specifically*
363 *because [country's] law keeps the details of donors anonymous and then I'm just thinking you*
364 *couldn't do that to a child, you know, that's part of them, but they're never ever to know or*
365 *never ever to find out? That must be really difficult, you know? So, I think it's important that*
366 *they do know.*

367

368 A minority (n = 6, 14%) of mothers were coded as perceiving a moderate threat from identity-
369 release egg donation; mothers coded at this level displayed marked ambivalence about
370 identity-release donation and typically repeated one or two fears about identity release
371 throughout the interview, while still making attempts to rationalize or reconcile their feelings
372 with the child's right to access identifying information about the donor:

373

374 *I think I wouldn't want her to [access the donor's information] because I think I'd want her to*
375 *just think that's how it was and that's it . . . but I think as an adult I know, because we've been*
376 *gifted with that opportunity, then if she wants to do that that would have to be her choice, as*
377 *much as I don't think I . . . probably . . . realistically, I probably don't think I want her to but I*
378 *won't stop her from doing it. (Hermione)*

379

380 A small proportion of mothers (n = 4, 9%) were coded as perceiving high threat from identity-
381 release egg donation. Mothers coded as perceiving high threat expressed pervasive fear about
382 the prospect of future donor-child contact, and repeatedly about identity-release donation.

383 Typically, the mothers did not wish to disclose their use of identity-release egg donation
384 because of these fears, or worried about their decision to disclose because of their fears about
385 identity release, like Martha:

386

387 *I know she's entitled to [the donor's information], and it's splashed all over her notes so she's*
388 *going to find out, but if there was any way of her not finding out I would do that. I would do*
389 *anything for her not to find that out.*

390

391 In one case, a mother's decision not to disclose was specifically due to fear that her children
392 would reject her in favour of the donor when they were old enough to access identifying
393 information.

394

395 Donor threat and disclosure

396 A point-biserial correlation was conducted to examine whether a relationship existed between
397 donor threat and disclosure practices at phase two. No association was found between the
398 two variables ($r_{pb} = -0.002$, $P = 0.98$).

399

400 DISCUSSION

401 The present study found that, when their children were in their infancy, the majority of
402 mothers intended to disclose their use of egg donation to their children, and of these, just
403 over half had begun to do so when their children were aged 5 years. Most mothers who had
404 not disclosed by the time their child was aged 5 intended to do so in future, with only a
405 minority of mothers intending not to disclose. The majority of the mothers who were unsure
406 about disclosure at phase one had changed their minds at phase two and instead intended to
407 tell their child, but had not yet done so. The few mothers who planned not to disclose at phase
408 one remained consistent in their intentions at phase two. Of the mothers who understood
409 they had used an identifiable donor, a handful had begun telling their child that they could
410 access the donor's identity in the future, with the remainder intending to disclose this detail
411 to their child in the future. The present study is thus the first to report the disclosure
412 intentions and practices of mothers with children conceived via identity-release egg donation
413 in the UK.

414

415 Although some studies of anonymous donation have found that parents' disclosure intentions
416 in infancy do not necessarily match disclosure practices later in life, the present findings
417 suggest that, generally, mothers' disclosure intentions in infancy are borne out in early
418 childhood and suggest that, rather than reducing disclosure rates, the removal of donor
419 anonymity is concurrent with a continuing global trend towards openness among families
420 undergoing assisted reproductive technology (ASRM Ethics Committee, 2018; Isaksson et al.,
421 2011, 2012; Readings et al., 2011). That half of the families in this study had begun disclosing
422 by age 5 of the child is in line with findings from Sweden, where 61% of identity- release
423 donation families had disclosed by the time the child was aged 7-8 (Lampic et al., 2021).

424

425 Whether the remaining 36.1% of mothers in the present study who intended to tell but had
426 not yet done so follow through on their intentions remains to be seen. This is particularly
427 pertinent given that over half of these mothers intended to tell after the child had reached 7
428 years of age, or otherwise had no clear strategy for when to begin the disclosure process.
429 Parents have previously reported feeling that they had left it too late to disclose when they
430 had not done so by the time their child was aged 6 (Cook et al., 1995). Further evidence from
431 families created using anonymous gamete donation suggests better outcomes for parents and
432 children when disclosure is undertaken before the age of 7 (Ilioi et al., 2017). Whether or not
433 these findings will generalize to families created using identity-release egg donation is worthy
434 of further investigation.

435

436 The present study also found that the vast majority of mothers planned to tell their child that
437 they would be able to access the donor's identifying information in the future, with a small
438 number having already begun the process at age 5. This minority of mothers could be seen to
439 be embracing a 'seed-planting' strategy, whereby details of their conception are shared with
440 the child bit by bit from an early age (Mac Dougall et al., 2007). Whether this approach is
441 adopted by the majority of identity-release egg donation mothers, or whether they otherwise
442 adopt a 'right- time' strategy whereby parents wait until children are a certain age before
443 sharing these details of their conception, remains to be seen (Indeku et al., 2013).

444

445 Although planning to disclose their use of egg donation, a handful of mothers were uncertain
446 about whether they would tell their child that they could request the donor's identifying

447 information in the future, over and above informing them that they were donor conceived.
448 Around half of participants in Isaksson and colleagues' survey of parents via identity-release
449 sperm donation regarded it to be in their child's best interest to be able to gain access to the
450 donor's identity in the future, although it is unknown whether this translated to actual
451 disclosure (Isaksson et al., 2011). The present study adds to the literature by showing that
452 sharing details of identity release is likely to be part of the disclosure process for the majority
453 of egg donation families in the UK.

454

455 It has been suggested that the potential for future donor-child contact implicit in identity-
456 release egg donation may pose a unique threat to mothers who have conceived via egg
457 donation, and that the possibility of donor-child contact may discourage some parents from
458 disclosing their use of donor gametes to their children (Imrie et al., 2020). The present study
459 confirmed the presence of this threat to a certain degree, with a notable proportion of
460 mothers perceiving at least some threat from the possibility of future donor-child contact.
461 These results are in line with the findings of investigations of parental attitudes towards
462 identity-release donation in families with children conceived via sperm donation (Isaksson et
463 al., 2016; Widbom et al., 2021). It is interesting to note that all mothers who understood the
464 implications of identity- release egg donation had either begun to, or planned to, tell their
465 child about how they were conceived; this is noteworthy given the not insubstantial level of
466 threat that some of these mothers perceived from the prospect of future donor-child contact.

467

468 Although the literature on disclosure among cisheterosexual-couple parents with children
469 conceived via anonymous sperm donation or genetic surrogacy also provides some evidence
470 of perceived threat (Freeman et al., 2016; Jadva et al., 2012; Scheib et al., 2003), correlational
471 analyses in the present study confirmed that perceived donor threat was unrelated to parents'
472 disclosure practices. This is perhaps unsurprising given that all of the mothers in the not
473 disclosed group intended to disclose in the future.

474

475 It is worth noting that a crucial difference between sperm donation fathers, genetic surrogacy
476 mothers and egg donation mothers is that egg donation mothers are provided with the
477 opportunity for gestational bonding, which may reduce the extent to which the donor is
478 perceived as threatening. Indeed, pregnancy has been identified as an important period for

479 gestational mothers who lack a genetic connection with their child, and has been described
480 as a way of achieving biological equality with their partner (who does have a genetic
481 relationship to their child), thus solidifying their sense of legitimacy of and security in their
482 role as parent (Becker, 2000; Finkler, 2000; Nordqvist, 2017; Shaw et al., 2023). It is therefore
483 possible that the gestational relationship of egg donation mothers with their children to some
484 degree explains the lack of association between donor threat and disclosure. However, several
485 studies have found that, although important, pregnancy alone is not sufficient for making egg
486 donation mothers feel secure in their role as mother (Imrie et al., 2020; Kirkman, 2008; Lysons
487 et al., 2022).

488

489 An alternative explanation for the lack of association between donor threat and disclosure
490 status is that, as many of the mothers in this sample were advised by their clinic to disclose to
491 their child in their early years or had otherwise come to this conclusion during their own
492 research, it is possible that they considered early disclosure the officially sanctioned and,
493 therefore, correct course of action, despite their own feelings about the prospect. It is likely
494 that the increasing prevalence of direct-to-consumer genetic testing, and the subsequent
495 increasing risk of accidental discovery of one's donor conception, is further contributing to
496 clinics' advice to parents to disclose (Flynn, 2022; Harper et al., 2016). As Freeman notes, the
497 introduction of a donor identification system automatically ascribes significance to the genetic
498 link between donor and child (Freeman, 2015). This legislative change has been viewed by
499 some as the further geneticization of the family, and may compound the belief in some donor
500 conception parents that genetic identity, i.e. a knowledge of one's genetic origins, is more
501 crucial for optimal personal identity development than other, more socially embedded forms
502 of identity (Brown and Wade, 2022; Lysons et al., 2022; Turkmendag, 2012).

503

504 Conversely, among those mothers who did not understand the implications of identity-
505 release donation, almost half were either undecided about whether to, or planned not to,
506 disclose their use of egg donation to their child. All of the mothers who were unsure whether
507 to, or planned not to, tell were in this group. It is possible that the co-occurrence of these
508 mothers' lack of understanding of identity-release donation, and their disinclination to
509 disclose their use of egg donation, reflects a subsample of mothers who are less able to accept
510 that they had had to use donor eggs to conceive. Some donor conception parents have been

511 found to deliberately disengage from donor information to manage the psychological and
512 emotional load of having used donor gametes (Widbom et al., 2021; Zadeh et al., 2016), and
513 to facilitate the feeling of being able to fully own the identity of being the child's parent (Imrie
514 et al., 2020). It is therefore possible that these mothers were, perhaps unconsciously,
515 participating in a pattern of defensive denial that Konrad (2005) describes as an 'active not
516 knowing', although further research into these mothers' motivations for non-disclosure will
517 be necessary to answer this question directly.

518

519 A notable strength of this study is that it is the first to quantify donor threat in order to explore
520 it in relation to other family process variables among a clinic-recruited, and therefore
521 representative, sample of identity-release egg donation families. A limitation of the study was
522 that 77% of participants who were uncontactable, or declined to take part at phase two, had
523 planned not to disclose, or were uncertain about disclosure to their child (Lysons et al., 2022).
524 It is, therefore, possible that the present sample over-represents participants who favoured
525 disclosure.

526

527 A further limitation of the present study is that the vast majority of the sample identified their
528 ethnicity as White British, thus limiting the generalizability of the present study's findings to
529 non-British and non-white British individuals. Census data suggest that non-white British
530 couples and individuals find it harder to access fertility treatment (HFEA, 2021b), with similar
531 patterns in the USA (Armstrong and Plowder, 2012). Furthermore, cultural and religious
532 factors have been found to influence assisted reproduction usage throughout much of Europe
533 (Präg and Mills, 2017) and Southwest Asia (Ali et al., 2011; Senol et al., 2019; Serour and
534 Serour, 2021). Although few empirical data exist on disclosure attitudes and rates among
535 ethnic minority groups in the UK and beyond, the limited literature suggests that the use of
536 third-party reproduction is highly stigmatized, and that couples closely manage information
537 sharing regarding their use of donor gametes (Blell, 2018; Culley et al., 2013; Hudson and
538 Culley, 2013). Further research into the attitudes towards disclosure among parents from
539 ethnic minority backgrounds is therefore necessary.

540

541 Given that egg donation fathers share a genetic link with their child and given that, regardless
542 of donation type, mothers tend to be more likely to take responsibility for disclosure in donor

543 gamete families (Blake et al., 2010; Lycett et al., 2005; Paul and Berger, 2007), the present
544 findings regarding donor threat and disclosure may not apply to egg donation fathers. Low
545 paternal participation rates are a well- documented issue in family psychology research, with
546 systematic reviews consistently demonstrating much higher recruitment and retention rates
547 among mothers than fathers (Davidson et al., 2016; Phares et al., 2005). Future research into
548 families created via identity-release egg donation should focus on fathers' perspectives, in
549 order to examine how they understand the genetic asymmetry within their families, and how
550 this relates to their feelings about donor threat and disclosure to their child.

551

552 Nonetheless, the findings provide important insights into mothers' disclosure practices. That
553 mothers are disclosing in spite of sometimes pronounced levels of perceived donor threat is
554 of relevance to policy and practice regarding identity- release donation. The present study also
555 found that, where data were available from both mothers and fathers, most couples (77.1%)
556 agreed about whether or not to disclose to their child that they were donor conceived. This is
557 in line with findings from a Swedish survey of 111 heterosexual- couple parents of children
558 conceived via identity-release egg and sperm donation, which found that 76% of respondents
559 agreed with their partner about their disclosure strategy (Isaksson et al., 2012).

560

561 Isaksson and colleagues also found that disagreement about disclosure strategy was
562 significantly associated with poorer level of relationship satisfaction between couples. This is
563 particularly pertinent given findings that indicate better family functioning among donor
564 conception families where disclosure has been undertaken by the parents jointly (Paul and
565 Berger, 2007). Further therapeutic support, such as one-to-one and couples' counselling
566 sessions or group workshops, should therefore provide parents with the opportunity to
567 explore their feelings about their use of identifiable egg donation, to address any tensions
568 between feelings of threat and a desire to disclose, and to help arrive at a mutually satisfying
569 disclosure strategy.

570

571 DATA AVAILABILITY

572 The data that has been used is confidential.

573

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576

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579

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832 TABLE I. IDENTITY-RELEASE EGG DONATION MOTHERS' DISCLOSURE INTENTIONS AT PHASE
 833 ONE, AND DISCLOSURE PRACTICES AT PHASE TWO BY LEVEL OF UNDERSTANDING ABOUT
 834 IDENTITY-RELEASE DONATION

Disclosure decision	Phase one (<i>n</i> = 73)	Phase two (<i>n</i> = 61)		
		Total (<i>n</i> = 61)	Mothers who do not understand identity-release donation (<i>n</i> = 17)	Mothers who understand identity-release donation (<i>n</i> = 44)
Disclosure about egg donation, <i>n</i> (%)				
Started telling	-	31 (50.6)	4 (23.5)	27 (61.4)
Plans to tell	55 (75.3)	22 (36.1)	5 (29.4)	17 (38.6)
Uncertain	12 (16.4)	4 (6.6)	4 (23.5)	-
Plans not to tell	6 (8.2)	4 (6.6)	4 (23.5)	-
Disclosure about identity-release				
Started telling	-	-	-	4 (9.1)
Plans to tell	-	-	-	37 (84.1)
Uncertain	-	-	-	3 (6.8)

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837 TABLE 2. THE AGE AT WHICH MOTHERS PLANNED TO TELL THEIR CHILDREN THAT THEY
 838 WERE DONOR CONCEIVED, REPORTED AT PHASE TWO

Planned age of disclosure	Total (<i>n</i> = 22)
Before the age of 7, <i>n</i> (%)	9 (40.9)
Between 7 and 10 years, <i>n</i> (%)	4 (18.2)
During the child's teens, <i>n</i> (%)	3 (13.6)
Uncertain, <i>n</i> (%)	6 (27.3)

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849 TABLE 3. AGREEMENT IN DISCLOSURE STRATEGY BETWEEN THE PARENTS AT PHASE TWO

Level of agreement	Couples (total <i>n</i> = 48)
Agreement between couples, <i>n</i> (%)	37 (77.1)
Disagreement between couples, <i>n</i> (%)	11 (22.9)
Types of mismatch, <i>n</i> (%)	
Mother started telling, father plan to tell	4 (36.4)
Mother plan to tell, father started telling	3 (27.3)
Mother uncertain, father plan to tell	2 (18.2)
Mother plan to tell, father plan not to tell	1 (9.1)
Mother plan not to tell, father plan to tell	1 (9.1)