



Disability in the Irish Labour Market

Evidence from the QNHS Equality Module 2010

Dorothy Watson, Gillian Kingston and Frances McGinnity

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Dorothy Watson is a sociologist and Associate Research Professor and joint co-ordinator of research on social inclusion and quality of life at the Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI). Gillian Kingston is a Research Assistant with the ESRI and the European Migration Network. Frances McGinnity is a Senior Research Officer and joint co-ordinator of equality research at the ESRI.

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FOREWORD

Authoritative evidence on the nature and extent of discrimination and inequality in Ireland provides an essential foundation for the work of the Equality Authority. The Employment Equality Acts 1998 to 2011 and the Equal Status Acts 2000 to 2011 mandate the Authority to work towards the elimination of discrimination on nine specified grounds – gender, civil status, family status, sexual orientation, religion, age, disability, race and membership of the Traveller community – and to promote equality of opportunity.

Disability in the Irish Labour Market: Evidence from the QNHS Equality Module 2010 draws on the Central Statistics Office's 2010 Quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS), which collected data on disability not usually included in the standard QNHS and which also included a module on equality and discrimination. This report examines the differences between people with a disability and those without a disability in labour market participation, unemployment and occupation. Despite moves to mainstreaming in disability employment policy, just 28 per cent of people with disabilities of working age are in employment, compared with almost two-thirds of people without a disability. The employment rate for people with disabilities in Ireland continues to be lower than is typical in other European countries. Clearly there needs to be a renewed policy focus on increasing the employment rate of people with a disability

The report also examines the experience of discrimination, focusing on people of working age. Discrimination rates remain significantly higher for people with a disability than for people without a disability. However, this gap has narrowed as there has been a reduction in the experience of both work-related and service-related discrimination among people with a disability since 2004. This improvement suggests that the increased emphasis on rights and equality in disability discourse and policy is having a positive impact, although much remains to be done.

On behalf of the Equality Authority I would like to thank the Central Statistics Office for making this report possible by facilitating access to the data. I would also like to record our particular thanks to the authors – Dorothy Watson, Gillian Kingston and Frances McGinnity of the Economic and Social Research Institute – for their expert report. Thanks are also due to Laurence Bond, Head of Research at the Equality Authority, for his support to this project.

Renée Dempsey
Chief Executive Officer
The Equality Authority

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The period from 2004 to 2010 was a crucial one for people with a disability in Ireland. On the one hand, beginning with the 2004 National Disability Strategy, there was an intense policy focus on disability. This was accompanied by a shift in perspective from a medical model that views disability as primarily a health issue to a 'mainstreaming' social model that is concerned to ensure that people with a disability participate in society to the maximum extent possible. On the other hand, the onset of the recession in 2008 placed severe constraints on the resources available to implement the new policies. This report asks what the outcomes were in terms of the labour market experiences of people with a disability in 2010.

We draw on data from the Central Statistics Office's 2010 Quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS), which included a module on equality and discrimination. This allows us to examine the objective situation of people with a disability in the labour market as well as their subjective accounts of experiencing discrimination. We are fortunate in being able to compare the 2010 results with those of a very similar module in the 2004 QNHS.

Focusing on people with a disability of working age (18–64), excluding students under the age of 25, we ask the following research questions:

1. What are the differences between people with a disability and those without a disability in labour market participation, unemployment and occupation?
2. Do the differences persist when we control for other characteristics such as age group, ethnicity, religion and family status?
3. How have the patterns changed between 2004 and 2010?
4. Was there a change in the extent of work-related discrimination among people with a disability between 2004 and 2010?
5. Is there any evidence that the experience of service-related discrimination (discrimination experienced in accessing services) may contribute to discouraging people with a disability from seeking work?

People with a Disability in the Labour Market

The analysis indicates that people with a disability have a considerably lower labour market participation rate (36 per cent in 2010) and a considerably higher unemployment rate (22 per cent in 2010) than those without a disability (77 per cent and 16 per cent, respectively, in 2010). Further, statistics from the European Union indicate that the employment rate of people with a disability in Ireland is lower than is typical in European countries.

To explore in detail the changes since 2004, we controlled for any changes in level of education and other characteristics. We found an increase in the labour market participation of men with a disability and a decrease for women with a disability. This is the opposite pattern to that observed for people without a disability, among whom the labour market participation of men fell slightly while that of women increased slightly.

Unemployment increased between 2004 and 2010 for people with a disability and for those without a disability and the overall rate of increase was similar for the two groups. In addition, the increase in unemployment was sharper for men than for women in both groups.

There was some evidence of an improvement between 2004 and 2010 in the occupational situation of people with a disability at work, with a significant increase in the percentage working in professional occupations. With education, age group and other characteristics controlled, people with a disability at work were just as likely as their counterparts without a disability to be in professional jobs. However, in interpreting this finding it is important to note that fewer people with a disability are at work. This means that those in employment are likely to be a relatively select group with better qualifications and other job-related attributes than the average person with a disability.

Work-Related Discrimination

Discrimination is measured based on the person's self-report of discrimination. Work-related discrimination includes discrimination in the workplace and when looking for work. The base population for the analysis consists of people who had been at work or looking for work in the two years before the survey.

The number of self-reports of work-related discrimination was considerably higher for people with a disability than for people without a disability in both 2004 and 2010, but the gap had narrowed significantly by 2010. There was a substantial fall in the prevalence of work-related discrimination among people with a disability between 2004 and 2010, from 16 to 10 per cent. In contrast, there was little change in the prevalence of work-related discrimination among those without a disability at about 7 to 8 per cent.

Controlling for other factors, we find that certain groups of people with a disability are at a higher risk of work-related discrimination. These include lone parents with a disability, younger adults with a disability and people with a learning or intellectual disability. People with a disability living in the Dublin region are also more likely to report experiencing discrimination than those living elsewhere in Ireland.

Service-Related Discrimination

For people with a disability, the fall in work-related discrimination was mirrored by a similar fall in discrimination in accessing services such as shops, pubs and restaurants; banking, insurance and financial services; education; housing; health; transport; and public services. Nevertheless, the risk of discrimination in all service-related domains is higher for people with a disability than it is for people without a disability.

People with a disability are also more likely to experience service-related discrimination on a regular basis (4 per cent, compared with 1 per cent of people without a disability) and are more likely to be seriously affected by service-related discrimination (4 per cent, compared with 1 per cent of people without a disability).

Certain groups of people with a disability are more likely to report discrimination in getting access to services. These included younger adults, those who belong to non-Christian religions or to no religious denomination, those living in privately rented accommodation and those living in the Dublin region.

The Impact of Discrimination

The seriousness of the impact of discrimination also declined among people with a disability between 2004 and 2010. This measure was based on people reporting that any of the discrimination they experienced (in either the work-related or service-related domains) had a 'serious' or 'very serious' effect on their lives. The percentage

of people with a disability reporting that discrimination had a serious effect on their lives fell from 19 per cent in 2004 to 8 per cent in 2010. There was a similar fall in the percentage of those without a disability reporting serious discrimination (from 8 to 4 per cent). In 2010 there was no significant difference based on disability in the seriousness of discrimination in the workplace. However, people with a disability were significantly more likely to report that discrimination in looking for work affected them seriously.

We investigated the possibility that discrimination in accessing services has an impact on labour market outcomes by asking whether those who have experienced service-related discrimination are more likely to be outside the labour market or unemployed. We further checked whether any such difference was greater for people with a disability than for people without a disability. The answer to the first question was 'yes' and the answer to the second question was 'generally, no'. We find that both the unemployed and those outside the labour market are more likely to have experienced service-related discrimination. However, the impact is no different for people with a disability and people without a disability. The finding of an association between service-related discrimination and labour market situation indicates that we need to take seriously the role of services, both public and private, in enabling people with a disability to work.

Policy Lessons

We draw out a number of implications for policy from the research findings.

There has been a significant reduction in the experience of both work-related and service-related discrimination among people with a disability since 2004. While it is not possible to attribute this change definitively to the intensive policy attention to the challenges faced by people with a disability since 2004, the coincidence in timing, combined with the broad range of policy initiatives and the fact that there has been no comparable improvement for people without a disability, is certainly suggestive of a link.

The changes in the labour market situation have been more modest and somewhat mixed. By 2010, despite the recession that began in 2008, the overall labour market participation rate of people with a disability had not fallen by as much as it had for people without a disability. In addition, while people with a disability experienced higher levels of unemployment, their unemployment rate did not increase with the recession at a more rapid rate than the overall unemployment rate. There were different changes over time for men and women with a disability in the labour market: the participation rate fell slightly for women but rose slightly for men, but unemployment increased more sharply for men than for women; this latter finding was true of people with a disability as well as for people without a disability.

There is still considerable room for improvement in the labour market participation rate of people with a disability. The employment rate among people with a disability tends to be lower in Ireland than in other European countries. Drawing on the findings of the National Disability Survey, we suggest that a reasonable target for labour market participation of people with a disability would be in the region of 50 per cent.

We also note, again drawing on the National Disability Survey findings, that flexible hours and modified job tasks are likely to be important elements in making this increased level of participation possible. Employers are the main actors in bringing about such change and there is a need to provide them with general information on the importance of this kind of flexibility.

Since most disability is acquired during the life-course, rather than being present from birth or childhood, retaining people who acquire a disability in the workforce is also a strategy worth pursuing.

Discrimination rates remain significantly higher for people with a disability than for people without a disability. This indicates that there is work to be done in terms of equality policy in targeting both work-related and service-related discrimination against people with a disability.

There is considerable diversity within the broad group of people with disabilities. The analysis suggests that labour market participation rates are lowest for people with a physical disability or with an emotional/psychological disability. The findings of this report suggest that discrimination has a particular impact on people with an intellectual/learning disability, who experience higher levels of work-related discrimination. Younger adults with a disability report both higher rates of work-related and service-related discrimination. The finding of a higher risk of discrimination in Dublin than in other regions also suggests that there is need for a geographical dimension to equality policy.

1 PEOPLE WITH A DISABILITY IN THE IRISH LABOUR MARKET: WHAT DO WE KNOW?

1.1 Introduction

Our understanding of disability has shifted over time from a medical model that focused on the condition of the individual to a model that views the person and their abilities in their social and environmental context. The World Health Organisation has advocated a 'biopsychosocial' model where disability is understood in terms of the interaction between the individual and the physical, economic and social environment (WHO, 2001). From this perspective, in order to understand what people are able to do, we need to take account of the resources available to them and the barriers in their environment as well as their own physical, mental and emotional resources. The attitudes of other people are an important part of the environment for people with a disability. Attitudes that lead to unfavourable treatment and discrimination are likely to be particularly significant.

When considering the situation of people with a disability it is necessary to bear in mind that disability refers to a wide range of conditions and difficulties, which vary in intensity and seriousness. While disability is perhaps better viewed as a continuum than a category, it is often useful to discuss the situation of people who experience a significant degree of limitation in their activities as distinct from those who do not. We adopt this approach in the present paper, while remaining cognisant of the fact that there is considerable diversity within the group of people with a disability. Another point to be noted is that most disability is acquired during the person's life-course (relatively few people are born with a disability), which means that the prevalence of disability increases with age, with particularly sharp increases after the middle years.

In this report we use data from the Quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS) Equality Module 2010 to combine 'objective' information about people's situation in the labour market with their own account of their experience of discrimination. Each source of information has different advantages (Russell *et al.*, 2008; McGinnity, Watson and Kingston, 2012). Comparing employment and unemployment rates between people with a disability and people without a disability gives a clear indication of labour market inequality. Analysing self-reports of discrimination in the labour market and services gives a sense of how discrimination may contribute to inequality. Combining this information provides a more comprehensive picture and enhances our understanding of the labour market position of people with a disability.

Crucially, the QNHS Equality Module 2010 repeats an earlier QNHS Equality Module from 2004. In the analysis of the 2004 survey, Russell *et al.* (2008) found that disability was one of the strongest factors associated with discrimination. Analysing very similar data for 2010 allows us to ask whether this is still the case and, if not, how the situation has changed.

In this chapter we discuss the background to the analysis. We briefly describe the disability policy arena in Ireland and provide an overview of previous research in Ireland and elsewhere on the labour market status of people with a disability and their experience of discrimination. We then discuss the methodology of the present study, particularly the measurement of discrimination,¹ before concluding the chapter with a list of our research questions and a map of the report structure.

¹ The measurement of disability is discussed more fully in Chapter 2, where we also discuss the prevalence of disability.

1.2 The Disability Policy Arena in Ireland

Policy with respect to people with disabilities in Ireland has progressed from a medical model that viewed disability as solely a health issue to a 'mainstreaming' social model. This social model proposes a movement away from segregated disability services and towards the provision of individualised supports and mainstream services that remove barriers to participation in society. Policy now places emphasis on the independence and self-determination of people with a disability and is concerned with the range of supports and services required.

1.2.1 National Disability Strategy

The scope of disability policy is broad, encompassing equality legislation as well as a range of services and supports provided by state and non-governmental organisations. The 2004 National Disability Strategy sets out a programme of co-ordinated actions across government departments to support the equal participation of people with a disability in Irish society. The objective of the strategy is to put in place the most effective combination of legislation, policies, institutional arrangements and services to support and reinforce equal participation for people with disabilities. The main outcomes of the strategy have been:

- The Disability Act 2005, which established a statutory basis for an independent assessment of health and social service needs for people with a disability, and obliged public bodies to be proactive in employing people with disabilities. The Act includes a series of sectoral plans in relation to the provision of services for people with specified disabilities.
- The Education for Persons with Special Educational Needs (EPSEN) Act 2004, which makes provision for the education of people with special educational needs.
- The Citizens Information Act 2007, which included a commitment to implement a Personal Advocacy Service (PAS) for people with a disability,

1.2.2 Equality Legislation

The Employment Equality Acts 1998–2011 require that employers do not discriminate against a person because they have a disability. The Acts state that the employer shall take appropriate measures, where needed in a particular case, to enable a person who has a disability to have access to employment, to participate or advance in employment and to undergo training. The employer is obliged to take these measures, unless the measures would impose a disproportionate burden on the employer.

The Equal Status Acts 2000–2011 require public and private providers of goods and services not to discriminate on the basis of disability and to accommodate the needs of people with disabilities through making reasonable changes in what they do and how they do it (provided the cost is no more than nominal), where, without these changes, it would be very difficult or impossible for people with disabilities to obtain those goods or services.

1.2.3 Government Bodies Involved in Provision of Services

Responsibility for disability policy, services and implementation is shared across a range of government departments. The Department of Justice and Equality is currently responsible for equality legislation. The Department of Social Protection provides social insurance payments to people with disabilities, as well as

administering the Supported Employment Scheme. The Department of Health houses the Disability Unit, which is responsible for the implementation of the Disability Act 2005 and policy related to the provision of services. The Department of Health also has responsibility for rehabilitative training (training that is not linked to the labour force) and sheltered work.

The Health Service Executive (HSE) is responsible for and provides a range of services for people with intellectual, physical and sensory disabilities or autism. These services include basic health services as well as assessment, rehabilitation, income maintenance, community care and residential care.

1.2.4 Non-Governmental Organisations Providing Services

The majority of disability services in Ireland are provided by the voluntary or non-profit sector with grant aid from the HSE. In 2009 a total of 280 service providers/ agencies were funded by the HSE to provide services, or received grants towards the cost of their services (Keogh, 2011). The sector is extremely diverse, ranging from small single-focus groups to large organisations employing several hundreds of people. Disability services cover a wide range of provision, including residential and respite services, medical and clinical therapies, day services, work and employment services, assisted living/personal assistant services, home support and the provision of aids and appliances. Information, advocacy and support services are often provided by agencies or bodies with expertise in particular conditions. There are approximately 72 medium to large non-statutory service providers receiving over €1 million in funding. These comprise a mixture of national, regional and local organisations (Keogh, 2011).

1.3 Previous Research

1.3.1 The National Disability Survey

The 2006 National Disability Survey (NDS) was the first major survey of people with disabilities in Ireland. It provided a basis for estimating the prevalence of disability in Ireland and for examining the living circumstances and needs of people with disabilities. The first report from the NDS (CSO, 2008) produced tables showing the nature, severity and cause of the disability. It also showed the age of onset by gender, age group and region. The second report (CSO, 2010) focused on a broad range of characteristics of people with a disability, including education, work and important aspects of the social and physical environment.

Using data from the NDS and the 2006 Census, the best estimate of the prevalence of disability in Ireland is that between 16.8 and 20.4 per cent of the population has a long-term disability. In other words, between one in five and one in six of the population has a disability (Watson and Nolan, 2011). The NDS focused on those people with disabilities who experience more severe limitations (8.1 per cent of the population).

There is a strong association between disability and age, with prevalence of most types of disability increasing with age. Among those of working age, the percentage of people with a disability ranges from 3.8 per cent of those aged 18 to 34 years, to 13.5 per cent of those aged 55 to 64 years (CSO, 2008, Table 1.10).

Analyses by Watson and Nolan (2011) indicate that people with a disability of working age are only half as likely as the general population to be at work. To some extent, these figures may already be coloured by the barriers people with a disability face in the world of work. Experiencing such barriers may lead people with a

disability who would like to work, but who have become discouraged, to report their economic status as 'unable to work due to illness or disability'. The NDS found that, of those with a disability of working age who are not at work, over one-third would be interested in work if the circumstances were right. Aspects of job design, such as flexible working times and modified job tasks, are particularly important in enabling people with a disability to work. Flexible work arrangements were cited as important by 45 per cent of people with a disability who are at work or who would be interested in work. Modified job tasks were cited by 29 per cent and almost one-quarter cited a wage subsidy as being important (Watson and Nolan, 2011, p. 24). The significance of a wage subsidy reflects the fact that the earnings of people with a disability are typically below average (Gannon and Nolan, 2005)² and that there are substantial costs associated with the disability itself (Cullinan, Gannon and Lyons, 2010).

Compared with aspects of job design, issues of accessibility and the need for specific aids and devices were found to be relatively less important. Issues related to accessibility were cited by 10 to 17 per cent of respondents, including: accessible transport (17 per cent), appropriate lift and parking (both 14 per cent), accessible buildings and modified workstations (both 13 per cent), accessible toilets (12 per cent) and handrails or ramps (10 per cent). Human support is, or would be, needed by 8 per cent of respondents; 4 per cent need technical aids and 4 per cent need communication aids (Watson and Nolan, 2011, p. 24).

The general health status and stamina of people with a disability may be a factor in limiting their participation in the labour market. Health problems are more common among people with a disability than among the general population. Watson and Nolan (2011) report that about half of people with a disability in 2006 considered their health to be good, compared with nearly nine-tenths of the general population. Only 43 per cent of people with a disability in private households considered their stamina to be very good, or good, and 20 per cent considered their stamina to be very bad, or bad (Watson and Nolan, 2011, pp. 15–16).

Most disability is not present from birth, but is acquired through the life-course. According to the NDS, about one in eight people with a disability has had that disability from birth. About one in ten people with a disability acquired the disability in childhood. The percentage of people with a disability increases by about 10 per cent with each age decade. The cumulative effect means that the proportion of people with a disability increases with age (Watson and Nolan, 2011, p. 10).

One important barrier faced by people with a disability is the attitudes of other people. Based on the NDS, Watson and Nolan (2011) report that almost one in seven people with a disability 'frequently' or 'always' avoids doing things because of the attitudes of other people. The proportion is higher for younger adults, particularly for men with a disability in the 35–44 age group. The NDS also revealed that concerns about discrimination or bullying, isolation and the attitudes of employers are among the factors cited by people with a disability who are not at work and not interested in work. These factors are reported by 11 per cent of men in the 18–34 age group, rising to 15 per cent in the 35–44 age group. There are similar concerns reported by 12 per cent of women in the 18–34 age group only. These reasons are cited less often by older men and women with a disability.

² Gannon and Nolan (2005, p. 47) find a significant direct effect on earnings of having a disability that hampers the person in his or her daily activities, even after controlling for other characteristics. They also note that there may be further indirect effects through reduced educational achievement (if the disability affected the person while at school) or reduced work experience.

1.3.2 People with a Disability in the Labour Market

Gannon and Nolan (2004) drew on data from the 2002 QNHS Disability Module and also from the Living in Ireland Surveys to examine the labour market situation of people with a disability. The authors note that the prevalence of disability is quite sensitive to the wording of the survey question used. The 2002 QNHS module suggested that 11 per cent of working-age people had a longstanding illness or disability. About half of those affected said they were restricted in either the amount or the kind of work they could do. On the other hand, the 2000 Living in Ireland Survey, using a slightly different wording, suggested that about 17 per cent of the working-age sample experienced the presence of a chronic illness or disability. Of this group, 17 per cent were severely restricted in their daily activities and 55 per cent were restricted to some extent. Despite the differences in prevalence between the QNHS and Living in Ireland Surveys, both sets of data revealed a strong impact of disability on reducing the probability that someone will participate in the labour market.

Gannon and Nolan (2005) analysed the 2001 Living in Ireland Survey to examine the circumstances of people with a disability in terms of education, earnings and poverty. The measure of disability was based on whether adults reported having a chronic or longstanding illness or disability and, if so, whether this hampered them severely, to some extent or not at all in their daily life. Lower educational qualifications, lower hourly earnings and an increased risk of poverty were found to be associated with having a longstanding condition that hampers the person in his or her daily life and the disadvantage was greater for those who are severely hampered than it is for those who are hampered to some extent. Commenting on the findings, the authors note that it can be very difficult to distinguish conclusively the extent to which lower earnings reflect discrimination rather than genuine differences in productivity. Thus, although a 'wage penalty' associated with disability can be established, it does not necessarily follow that all of this wage penalty can be attributed to discrimination.

Drawing on the Living in Ireland Surveys, Gannon and Nolan (2006) examine how employment, income and relative income poverty change when someone moves from not having a disability to having a disability or vice versa. The authors find that when a working-age adult becomes disabled, there is a decline of about one-fifth in the probability of employment, with other characteristics controlled. At the same time, the onset of disability is associated with a 15 per cent decline in household income and an increase of 7 per cent in the probability of experiencing relative income poverty. Moving from having a disability to not having a disability is associated with positive changes, but these improvements are smaller in magnitude: a 7 per cent increase in the probability of employment and a 10 per cent increase in predicted household income, with other characteristics controlled. However, there is no significant improvement in the risk of being below the relative income poverty threshold.

Watson and Lunn (2010), using the 2006 Census micro-data, find that the impact of disability on labour market participation and unemployment may interact with other characteristics of the individual such as gender and may differ between physical and learning/intellectual disability. This research shows that physical disability has a greater impact on the labour market participation and unemployment of men than of women, which points to the importance of taking account of other characteristics of the person with a disability, such as gender.

According to the 2006 NDS, about one-third of people with a disability are in the labour market, but one-third of those outside the labour market would be interested in work if the circumstances were right (Watson and Nolan, 2011). The attitudes of other people such as service providers may play a role in signalling to people with a

disability the likely response of employers and, hence, could discourage them from seeking work. In this report we will ask whether people with a disability outside the labour market are at increased risk of service-related discrimination, compared with people with a disability in the labour market, when we control for other characteristics such as age, gender and level of education.

1.3.3 International Patterns of Employment among People with a Disability

Statistics from the European Union, using Survey of Income and Living Conditions (SILC) data, suggest that labour market participation by people with a disability in Europe averages about 20 per cent lower than for the general population (Eichhorst *et al.*, 2010, p. 7). Care is needed in interpreting differences between survey findings cross-nationally. There is a great deal of variability across countries in the prevalence of disability, even when a harmonised measure is used (Gannon and Nolan, 2004; Applica, CESEP and Alphametrics, 2007; Eichhorst *et al.*, 2010). Part of this variation may be associated with the use of different thresholds by people in each country in deciding whether to describe themselves as being limited in their activities. Adopting different thresholds may be associated with the desire to work, concern with stigmatisation, eligibility for benefits or cultural understandings of disability (Eichhorst *et al.*, 2010, p. 17). Differences in benefit structures and cultural understandings of disability will also affect international comparisons. Even within a country, there may be similar differences between groups that affect the measured prevalence of disability. For instance, Applica, CESEP and Alphametrics (2007, p. 145) suggest that older adults, adults at work and married adults tend to use higher thresholds than younger adults, those outside the labour market and those who are single, divorced or separated.

Based on SILC data for 2009, the percentage of people reporting activity limitations was highest in Finland (24.8 per cent), was also well above average in Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands (23 to 24 per cent) and was below 10 per cent in Greece, Malta, Bulgaria and Cypress (Grammenos, 2011).

If countries differ in the threshold adopted, such that in some countries less severe activity limitations are included, we might expect a positive relationship between prevalence of activity limitation and the employment rate of people whose activities are limited. This is because the prevalence will be higher if people with less severe activity limitations are included and these people are more likely to be employed.

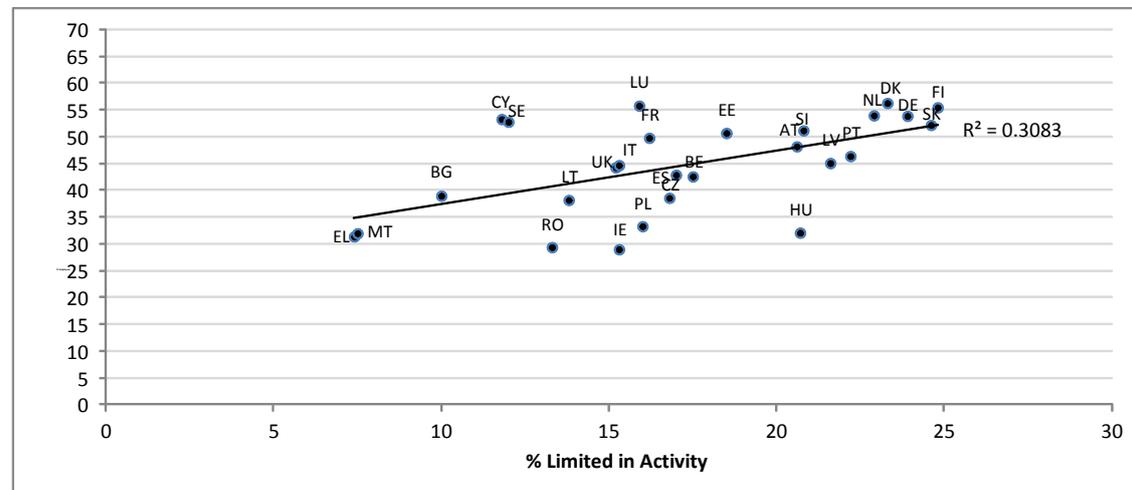
This is indeed the case, as can be seen from Figure 1.1, which is based on SILC data from 2009 (reported in Grammenos, 2011). Countries such as Greece (EL) and Malta (MT) report very few people with activity limitations (7 to 8 per cent) and, presumably because these people have a high level of limitation, very low rates of employment for those whose activities are limited (31 to 32 per cent).

At the other end of the scale, Finland (FI) reports a very high level of activity limitation (25 per cent), but also a very high level of employment among people whose activity is limited (56 per cent). The clear implication is that it is important to take account of the prevalence of disability in assessing the impact of disability on labour market participation. A lower prevalence, especially when controlling for age, may suggest that a higher threshold is being used. If a higher level of severity of limitation is adopted, then we would expect to find fewer people with a disability in employment.

Of course, there is considerable dispersion around the line in Figure 1.1. What is interesting from the Irish perspective is that, while the prevalence of activity limitation is towards the middle of the distribution for Ireland (15 per cent), the percentage of people with an activity limitation who are employed in Ireland is among the lowest across these European Countries (29 per cent). This suggests that, even if we take

account of cultural differences in the understanding of activity limitation, the employment rate of people with a disability is low in Ireland by European standards.

Figure 1.1: Scatterplot of Prevalence of Activity Limitation and Employment Rate of People with an Activity Limitation in Europe, 2009



Source: Data from SILC 2009 reported in Grammenos, 2011 (Table 4 and Table 5).

1.3.4 People with a Disability and Discrimination

The 2004 QNHS Equality Module indicated that 19.5 per cent of people with a disability experience discrimination, compared with 12.5 per cent of the general population (CSO, 2005). Russell *et al.* (2008) conducted a more detailed analysis of the 2004 data, controlling for exposure to potential discrimination and for other characteristics. They find that disability is one of the strongest predictors of discrimination. In terms of work-related discrimination, people with a disability are 2.8 times as likely as those without a disability to report experiencing discrimination in the workplace and nearly twice as likely to report experiencing discrimination in looking for work (Russell *et al.*, 2008, Table A2.1 and Table A2.2, pp. 29–30). As noted above, however, if people with a disability have become discouraged from looking for work, these figures may understate the extent to which the attitudes of other people represent a barrier to people with a disability in the world of work.

The Central Statistics Office figures from the 2010 Equality Module (CSO, 2011) reveal some important trends that are worthy of further exploration. Although the overall prevalence of discrimination remains unchanged at about 12 per cent, the prevalence among people with a disability fell from 20 per cent in 2004 to 14 per cent 2010 (Table 1.1, p 4). There was a fall in work-related discrimination (from 5 to 3 per cent) and service-related discrimination (from 17 to 13 per cent) (Table 2.1, p. 6). There was also a fall in the proportion of people experiencing work-related discrimination who cite disability as the ground (from 5 to 2 per cent) (Table 2.2, p. 7).

McGinnity, Watson and Kingston (2012) conducted a detailed analysis of the QNHS Equality Module 2010 to investigate the factors associated with the risk of discrimination. Overall, just over 7 per cent of adults report experiencing discrimination in accessing services and just under 8 per cent of the relevant population have experienced work-related discrimination. The research shows that the likelihood of perceiving discrimination is influenced by gender, age, family status, marital status, race/ethnicity, nationality, disability, religion, employment status, educational level, housing tenure and, in some instances, region. Having a disability is strongly associated with experiencing discrimination, though to a lesser extent in 2010 than in 2004. Whilst people with a disability are not more likely to report

experiencing discrimination when at work or when looking for work when all factors are held constant, they are more likely to experience work-related discrimination that has a serious impact on their lives. People with a disability also report a higher risk of discrimination in five out of seven service areas: in shops, pubs or restaurants; using the services of banks, insurance companies or financial institutions; accessing health services; using transport services; and accessing public services. Associations were particularly strong in health and transport. People with a disability are also almost three times more likely to experience service-related discrimination that has a serious impact on their lives.

1.4 Research Methodology³

1.4.1 Data

The data used in this report come from the 2004 and 2010 Equality Modules of the Quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS). The QNHS is administered by the Central Statistics Office (CSO), primarily to provide estimates of key labour market statistics. The survey has a rotating panel design: households are asked to take part in the survey for five consecutive quarters before being replaced. Participation is voluntary but the response rate is high at approximately 85 per cent in recent years. The survey results are weighted to agree with population estimates broken down by age, sex and region.

In addition to providing quarterly labour force estimates, the QNHS also collects data on social topics through the inclusion of special survey modules. The Equality Modules of the QNHS were fielded in the fourth quarters of 2004 and 2010 by means of direct personal interview with a sub-sample of QNHS respondents aged 18 years and over. The total number of people responding to the modules was 24,600 in 2004 and 16,800 in 2010. The number of cases is considerably smaller for people with a disability. The next chapter discusses the measurement of disability in the QNHS in more detail. Overall, there were 1,736 people with a disability who responded to the 2004 module and 1,089 who responded to the 2010 module. Appendix Tables A1 and A2 show the number of cases available for each sub-group of people with a disability (by type of disability, gender, age group, economic status and exposure to potential discrimination in different domains).

The 2010 Equality Module was a repeat of the 2004 Equality Module, but with some additions to the questionnaire. The analysis here draws on the two modules and also on some key demographic indicators from the main QNHS survey.

1.4.2 Measuring Discrimination

Measuring discrimination against any group accurately is challenging (Blank, Dabady and Citro, 2004). A number of methods have been used in previous research, though no single approach allows researchers to address all the measurement issues (Bond, McGinnity and Russell, 2010). Comparing important labour market outcomes between groups, such as people with a disability and people without a disability, is very informative, yet it is difficult to assess what component of the observed difference is due to discrimination. An alternative approach, asking individuals about their experience in a survey, addresses the issue of discrimination more directly. It allows researchers to compare the experience of a minority population (in this case

³ The methodology summarised briefly here is described more fully in Chapter 2 of the companion report, *Analysing the Experience of Discrimination in Ireland: Evidence from the QNHS Equality Module 2010* (McGinnity, Watson and Kingston, 2012).

people with a disability) with those of the majority (people without a disability) in a whole range of life situations, using a nationally representative survey of the population. However, these reports are subjective, based on respondents' assessments of their situation.

To address these limitations, it is very useful to combine the results of various approaches to provide a comprehensive and nuanced assessment of the situation (Blank, Dabady and Citro, 2004). This is precisely what this report does. It combines an analysis of the labour market situation of people with a disability with an analysis of their reported experience of discrimination. As noted above, the analysis in this report compares the experience in the fourth quarter of 2010 with that of the fourth quarter in 2004 using data from comparable modules of the QNHS. To the extent that there is a subjective element to reports of discrimination, this should not seriously affect comparisons of the experience over time, if question wording and sampling is consistent, and we can assume the propensity to over- or under-report discrimination remains constant over time.

While the self-reports of discrimination are subjective, and based on the individual's own assessment, the survey follows best practice in ensuring that the responses are comparable across individuals. First, respondents were provided with a definition of discrimination prior to being asked about their own experiences. The definition in the 2010 survey was:⁴

Under Irish law, discrimination takes place when one person or a group of persons are treated less favourably than others because of their gender, marital status, family status, age, disability, 'race' (race, skin colour, nationality or ethnic origin), sexual orientation, religious belief and/or membership of the Traveller Community. When the term discrimination is used in this questionnaire it refers to this legal definition only. If you believe you were treated less favourably than someone else but it was for another reason (e.g. your qualifications, being over an income limit or because you are further back in a queue for something), this is not considered discrimination under Irish law.

Second, the survey followed best practice by asking about experiences in a specific time frame and in specific life domains, rather than relying on general questions about the extent of discrimination. Respondents were asked if they had felt discriminated against in the previous two years in each of nine (work or service) domains: in the workplace; looking for work; in shops, pubs or restaurants; using the services of banks, insurance companies or financial institutions; in education; obtaining housing or accommodation; accessing health services; using transport services; and accessing public services.

For each domain in which discrimination occurred, respondents were asked about the frequency of discrimination and how serious an effect it had in their lives.⁵ These questions are very important as they provide further information on the experience of discrimination, allowing us to distinguish a once-off, minor incident from more frequent and/or serious incidents of discrimination. This also helps to counteract some of the potential variability across individuals in responses.

The Equality Modules of the QNHS from 2004 and 2010 provide data on adults aged 18 years and over who are resident in private households in Ireland. We focus in this report on people of working age (18 to 64 years), excluding students under 25 years.

⁴ In the 2004 survey the definition provided was very similar though not identical. See Russell *et al.*, 2008 for the precise wording.

⁵ In 2010 respondents were asked about frequency and seriousness for each domain; the question wording was identical in 2004, but respondents were asked about frequency and seriousness only at a more general level.

We are limited in terms of the sub-populations we can analyse by the number of cases available for people with a disability in 2010 (the sample was larger in 2004). For a number of the analyses in Chapters 4 and 5, we pool the 2004 and 2010 data in order to examine whether any observed changes in labour market situation or in the experience of discrimination are statistically significant when we control for characteristics such as level of education.

As well as providing descriptive statistics, the report uses multivariate analysis (logistic regression and multinomial logistic regression) to identify the separate effects of disability, gender, age and other characteristics on labour market status and the experience of discrimination.

1.5 Research Questions

While McGinnity, Watson and Kingston (2012) focus on discrimination against all groups in the population, this report focuses specifically on people with a disability of working age. As well as examining their self-reports of discrimination, as compared with the general population, we focus on more objective labour market outcomes such as labour market participation, employment rate, unemployment rate and occupational achievement.

Based on the results of previous research, the following are the key research questions relevant to people with a disability in the Irish labour market:

1. What are the differences between people with a disability and those without a disability in labour market participation, unemployment and occupation?
2. Do the differences persist when we control for characteristics such as age group, ethnicity, religion and family status?
3. How have the patterns changed between 2004 and 2010?
4. Was there a change in the extent of work-related discrimination among people with a disability between 2004 and 2010?
5. Is there any evidence that the experience of service-related discrimination (discrimination experienced in accessing services) may contribute to discouraging people with a disability from seeking work?

1.6 Report Structure

In Chapter 2 we describe the extent of disability among people of working age as measured by the QNHS and provide a profile of people with a disability by type of disability, gender, age group and level of education in 2004 and 2010.

Chapter 3 turns to the labour market situation of people with a disability, including (a) labour market participation, (b) employment rate, (c) unemployment rate (among those in the labour market) and (d) occupation among people with a disability in 2004 and 2010. The focus is on whether there have been changes over time. We present the results of a model examining the extent to which labour market participation and unemployment have changed significantly since 2004 and consider whether the change was different for people with a disability compared with those without a disability and for men and women with a disability.

Chapter 4 explores work-related discrimination experienced by people with a disability. We distinguish between discrimination in looking for work and at work and describe the changes between 2004 and 2010. We examine whether they are due to changes in the profile of people with disabilities in the labour market (by gender, age, education) or in the extent to which those in the labour market experience work-

related discrimination. Any change in participation may have an important impact on the profile of people with a disability in the labour market.

Chapter 5 considers the extent of service-related discrimination experienced by people with a disability, focusing on the role service-related discrimination may play in influencing the labour market participation of people with a disability.

Chapter 6 draws together the findings and reflects on their implications for equality policy and policy related to disability.

2 DISABILITY AMONG PEOPLE OF WORKING AGE

2.1 Introduction

In the Irish context, disability is understood as a limitation in a person's capacity to undertake certain activities due to the interaction between a longstanding physical or mental condition of the individual and the physical and cultural environment in which he or she is located. As noted in the previous chapter, the measured prevalence of disability in the population is quite sensitive to the measurement used. This is because disability can be a matter of degree and changes in the way it is measured can have an impact on the threshold adopted by people in responding to a survey. The measured level of disability will depend, to some extent, on what prompts the respondent is given regarding the types of conditions to include.

In this chapter our main goal is to establish whether the changes in the measurement of disability between the 2004 and 2010 QNHS Equality Modules are likely to have led to the adoption of a substantially different threshold by people responding to the survey item on disability. If this were to happen, as shown in the previous chapter, our capacity to compare the labour market situation of people with a disability in 2004 and 2010 using the QNHS data would be seriously compromised. We carefully consider the wording used in the disability items in both modules and compare the profile of people with a disability identified in both samples in terms of gender, age group, education and type of disability. We conclude that the main impact of the change in measurement is on the detailed types of disability and that the overall measure of disability remains substantially the same.

2.2 Measuring Disability

The measure of disability in the QNHS Equality Modules is based on asking people whether they experience any of a set of long-lasting conditions. There are some differences in the wording between 2004 and 2010, as shown in Table 2.1. The wording was changed slightly in 2010 arising from a review of the experience with the wording used in the 2006 Census and from the experience of the 2006 National Disability Survey (NDS). The 2010 introduction refers to 'conditions or difficulties' whereas the 2004 wording refers simply to 'conditions'. In 2004 vision and hearing impairment were combined into a single item, as were learning and intellectual disability; in 2010 these pairings were split into separate items. The 2010 'learning disability' item is further specified to include 'learning, remembering or concentrating'. The item on physical disability in 2004 refers to 'a condition that substantially limits' basic physical activities whereas the 2010 wording refers to 'a difficulty with' basic physical activities (though listing the same activities). The 'other' category in 2004 is worded as 'other, including chronic illness', whereas the 2010 wording specifically mentions pain and breathing as well as 'any other chronic illness or condition'.

It is not entirely obvious, on the face of it, whether the wording changes are of the type to increase or decrease the threshold used in responding to the survey item. The fact that the filter question in 2010 refers to 'conditions or difficulties' whereas the 2004 version simply refers to 'conditions' might have had the effect of screening out some conditions in 2010 (perhaps in the 'other' category) that did not cause the person a significant difficulty. However, some of the other changes in wording suggest that the 2010 version may be more inclusive. For some items the 2010 wording seems to point to a lower threshold ('serious' rather than 'severe' for the sensory disability items, and 'a difficulty' rather than 'substantially limits' for the physical disability item). The 2010 wording also specifically mentions conditions that are not mentioned in 2004 ('remembering or concentrating', 'pain' and 'breathing').

Table 2.1: Measures of Disability in the QNHS Equality Modules 2004 and 2010

| Measure | 2004 Do you have any of the following long-lasting conditions? | 2010 Do you have any of the following long-lasting conditions or difficulties? |
|-----------------------------|---|---|
| Sensory | Blindness, deafness or a severe vision or hearing impairment | Blindness or a serious vision impairment Deafness or a serious hearing impairment |
| Physical | A condition that substantially limits one or more basic physical activities such as walking, climbing stairs, reaching, lifting or carrying | A difficulty with basic physical activities such as walking, climbing stairs, reaching, lifting or carrying |
| Intellectual/ learning | A learning or intellectual disability | An intellectual disability A difficulty with learning, remembering or concentrating |
| Psychological/ emotional | A psychological or emotional condition | A psychological or emotional condition |
| Other | Other, including any chronic illness | Difficulty with pain, breathing or any other chronic illness or condition |

2.3 Prevalence of Disability among People of Working Age

Table 2.2 shows the percentage of people aged 18 to 64 with each type of disability, according to the 2004 and 2010 QNHS. The overall level of disability among people of working age is slightly lower in the 2010 data (7.6 per cent) than it was in 2004 (8.3 per cent). However, the figures are close enough to reassure us that roughly the same threshold (in terms of degree of difficulty) underlies the responses. The most notable change affects the sub-categories ‘physical disability’ (fell from 3.9 to 2.5 per cent) and ‘other’ disability (rose from 2.9 to 4.8 per cent). The change in the wording of the ‘other’ category – specifically mentioning pain and breathing difficulties – may have led to a change in self-classification from ‘physical’ to the ‘other’ category in 2010.⁶ These differences suggest that caution is needed in comparing the sub-categories of ‘physical’ and ‘other’ disability in the two samples.

Table 2.2: Prevalence of Disability among People of Working Age, 2004 and 2010

| Measure | QNHS 2004 (%) | QNHS 2010 (%) | Significant change?* |
|---|---------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|
| Any of the types of disability | 8.3 | 7.6 | Yes |
| Sensory | 0.5 | 0.5 | No |
| Physical | 3.9 | 2.5 | Yes |
| Intellectual/learning (incl. remembering and concentrating in 2010) | <1.0 | <1.0 | No |
| Psychological/emotional | 1.1 | 0.9 | No |
| Other (incl. pain, breathing, speech in 2010) | 2.9 | 4.8 | Yes |

Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, analysis by authors.

Notes: People of working age (18–64), excluding students under age 25. For intellectual/learning disability, the number of cases in the sample is too small to provide an exact figure. * Although some of the differences are statistically significant, we cannot be sure that they are not due to the changes in wording of the items.

⁶ Analysis of the NDS shows that pain and breathing difficulties overlap with physical disability: 65 per cent of people with a disability associated with pain also have difficulties with mobility and dexterity. The corresponding figure for those with a breathing disability is 49 per cent (Watson and Nolan, 2011, p. 9).

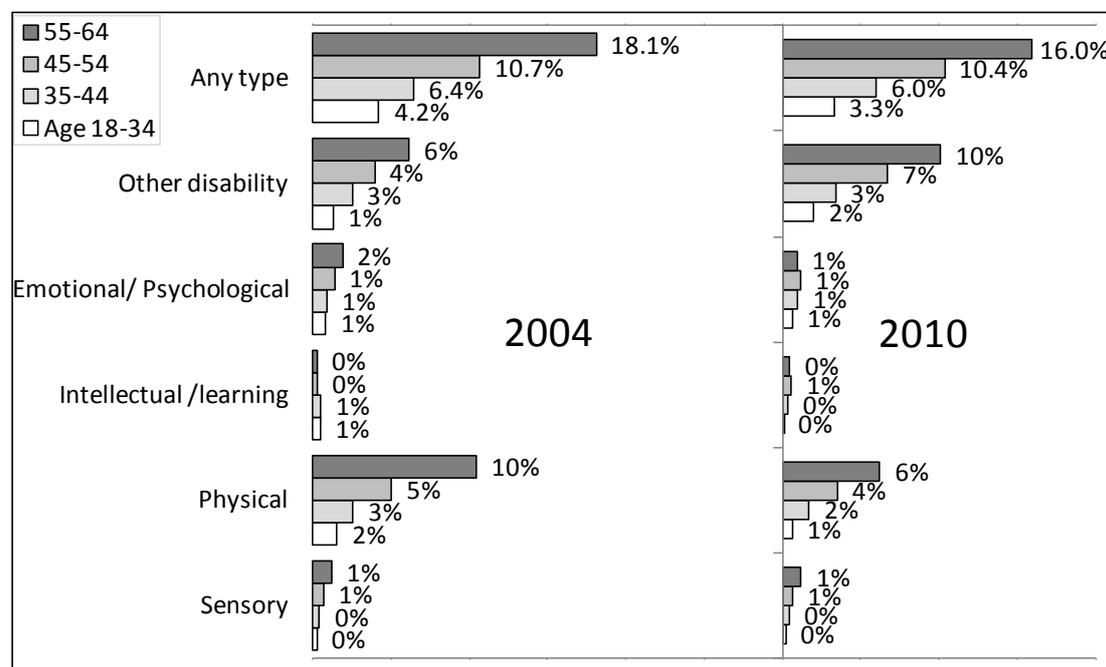
The wording changes suggest that even though the measured difference is statistically significant, we need to exercise caution in concluding that the prevalence of disability declined between 2004 and 2010.⁷ The more important question from the perspective of the present report is whether the different versions of the disability items are identifying substantially the same groups in both periods. The broadly similar proportion of the population identified and the similarity in the patterns by age and gender (discussed in the next section) provide some reassurance that the measures are sufficiently similar to allow us to draw conclusions about changes over time in the experiences of people with a disability of working age.

2.4 Prevalence of Disability by Broad Age Group and Gender

In this section we examine the patterns by age group and gender in 2004 and 2010. Figure 2.1 shows that there is a clear increase in the prevalence of disability as people get older. The prevalence of disability of any type is roughly 3 to 4 per cent among those in the 18–34 age group, rising to 16 to 18 per cent among those in the 55–64 age group. If we consider disability of any type, the higher prevalence in 2004 is more marked among the younger adults (aged 18–34) than among the older age groups.

The age pattern differs to some extent by type of disability. There is a very strong age pattern for physical disability and ‘other’ disability in both years, and a weaker age pattern for intellectual/learning and emotional/psychological disability. The lower prevalence of physical disability and the higher prevalence of ‘other’ disability’ in 2010 seem to hold across all age groups.

Figure 2.1: Prevalence of Disability among Working-Age Adults by Age Group, 2004 and 2010

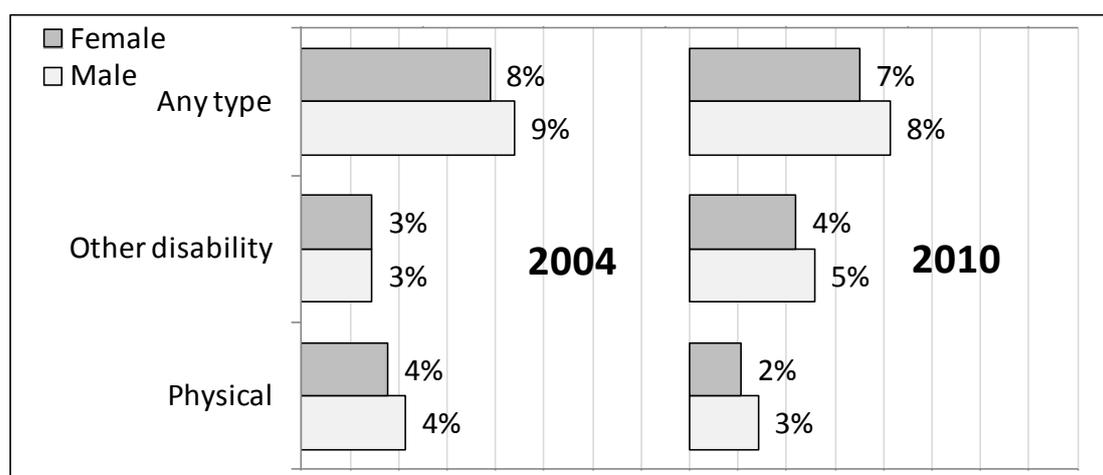


Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, analysis by authors.

⁷ In fact, the Census data suggest that the overall level of disability may have increased between 2006 and 2011. Again, however, changes in the question wording between Census 2006 and Census 2011 mean that we cannot be sure whether this reflects a real change or is due to changes in the question asked (see CSO, 2012, p. 8, for further discussion).

Figure 2.2 shows the prevalence of disability among adults of working age by gender. Note that the number of cases is too small, when broken down by gender and year, to report separately for sensory disability, emotional/psychological disability and learning/intellectual disability. In both 2004 and 2010, the overall disability rate was about 1 per cent higher among men than among women and this difference is statistically significant. The higher prevalence of physical disability among men in 2004 and the higher prevalence of 'other' disability among men in 2010 are also statistically significant in both years. NDS data confirm a slightly higher prevalence of disability among men than among women of working age, with the difference most marked in the 55–64 age group (Watson and Nolan, 2011, p. 9).

Figure 2.2: Prevalence of Disability among Working-Age Adults by Gender, 2004 and 2010

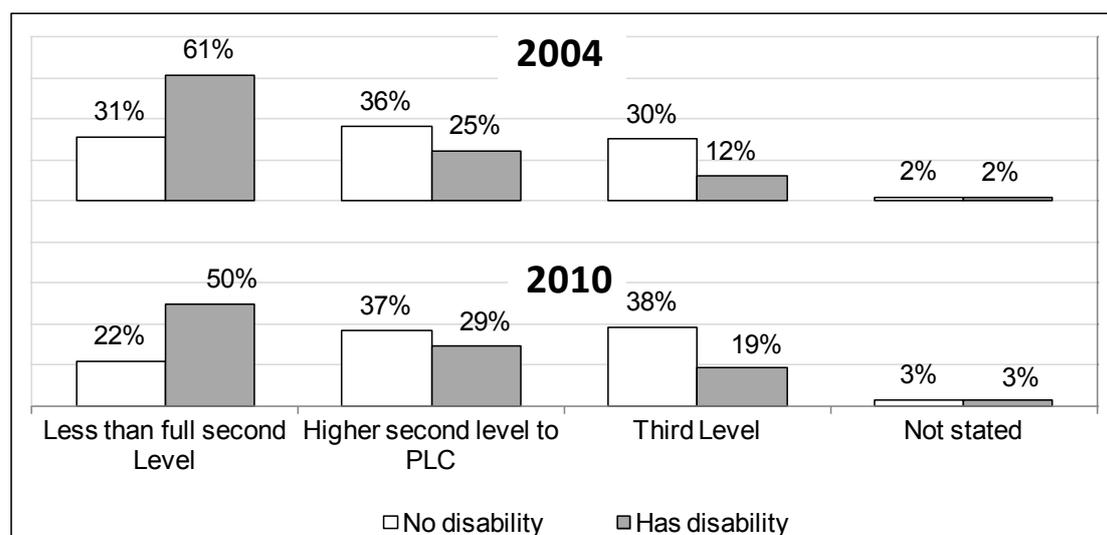


Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, analysis by authors.

2.5 Educational Profile

Figure 2.3 shows the educational profile of the working-age population by presence of disability in 2004 and 2010. The two main features of the chart are that people with a disability have lower levels of education than people without a disability in both years, and that there is a general increase in levels of education both for people with a disability and for people without a disability between 2004 and 2010. In 2004, 61 per cent of people with a disability had less than full second-level education, compared with 31 per cent of people without a disability; 25 per cent of people with a disability had completed second-level or post-Leaving Certificate (PLC) education, and a further 12 per cent had completed third-level education. In 2010 the percentages completing second-level or PLC education had increased to 29 per cent and the percentage completing third-level education had increased to 19 per cent. The percentage completing third-level education remained less than half the rate of third-level completion among people without a disability (38 per cent) in 2010.

Figure 2.3: Educational Profiles of Working-Age Adults by Presence of Disability, 2004 and 2010



Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, analysis by authors. Notes: Apart from 'not stated', all differences between people with a disability and people without a disability are statistically significant in both years. The drop in the percentage with less than full second-level education and the increase in the percentage with third-level education between 2004 and 2010 are statistically significant for both groups.

2.6 Summary

In this chapter we discussed the measurement of disability in the 2004 and 2010 QNHS and the overall prevalence of disability by age and gender in the two samples, as well as the educational profile of people with a disability. In both waves, the measure of disability was based on asking whether the person experienced any of a set of disabilities, including sensory, physical, emotional/psychological, intellectual/learning and other types of disability. Although the wording changed slightly between the two surveys, the overall prevalence of disability was broadly similar, with a small drop in 2010 (from 8.3 to 7.6 per cent). The changed wording is most likely to have affected the comparability of the detailed types of disability, particularly the physical disability and 'other' disability categories.

The patterning of disability by age and gender is very similar in 2004 and 2010. There is a marked increase in the prevalence of disability by age and a slightly higher rate of disability among men than among women. Both of these patterns are consistent with age and gender differences observed in the NDS.

The educational profile of people with a disability, like that of people without a disability, improved between 2004 and 2010, but the gap in educational qualifications between people with and without a disability remains substantial. The similarity in the prevalence of disability in both samples and in the age and gender profiles provides reassurance that, despite the change in item wording, the group identified as having a disability is sufficiently similar for us to use the equality modules to examine change over time in the labour market experience of people with a disability.

3 LABOUR MARKET SITUATION OF PEOPLE WITH A DISABILITY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter we focus on the patterns of (a) labour market participation, (b) employment rate, (c) unemployment rate (among those in the labour market) and (d) occupational level among people with a disability in 2004 and 2010. The focus is on the extent to which there have been objective changes over time in the labour market experience of people with a disability. We begin the chapter with an overview of the situation of people with a disability compared with people without a disability. We then turn to a model of the main characteristics that affect the labour market situation of people with a disability. We are particularly interested in the extent to which labour market participation and unemployment have changed significantly since 2004, and whether the change was different for people with a disability and people without a disability. We also investigate whether there were differences in the experiences of men and women with a disability.

3.2 Labour Market Status of People with a Disability in 2004 and 2010

Figure 3.1 compares people with a disability and people without a disability in 2004 and 2010, based on the International Labour Organisation (ILO) definition of labour market status.⁸ This definition is based on the person's activity in the reference week immediately preceding the interview. A person is considered to be 'at work' if he or she worked even one hour in the reference week. A person is considered unemployed if he or she has not been at work in the reference week and is (a) actively seeking work and (b) immediately available for work. Those neither at work nor unemployed are regarded as outside the labour market.

The participation rate, as shown in Figure 3.1, is the percentage of people of working age who participate in the labour market: they may be either at work or unemployed. The participation rate of people with a disability is less than half that of people without a disability. In 2010, 77 per cent of people without a disability participated in the labour market compared with 36 per cent of people with a disability. The participation rate changed only slightly between 2004 and 2010, dropping by 1 per cent for people without a disability (from 78 to 77 per cent) and the change for people with a disability was not statistically significant.⁹

The employment rate shows the percentage of the working-age population in employment. It differs from the participation rate to the extent that some of those participating in the labour market are unemployed. People with a disability are again less than half as likely as people without a disability to be employed (28 per cent and 65 per cent, respectively, in 2010). The effects of the recession can be seen in the marked fall in the employment rate for people without a disability (from 75 per cent in 2004 to 65 per cent in 2010). Again, because of the smaller number of cases in the sample, the fall for people with a disability is not statistically significant.

The part-time working rate is the percentage of those at work who work part-time hours. This rate was much higher for people with a disability (29 per cent) than for people without a disability (23 per cent) in 2010. The gap had narrowed by 2010

⁸ See www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/statistics-overview-and-topics/employment-and-unemployment/lang--en/index.htm.

⁹ There were a smaller number of cases in the sample of people with a disability in the labour market: 556 in 2004 and 360 in 2010.

because the percentage of those working part-time hours had increased (from 16 to 23 per cent of those at work) among people without a disability.

The unemployment rate is the percentage of people in the labour market (either at work or unemployed) who are unemployed. The unemployment rate is significantly higher for people with a disability than it is for people without a disability in both years and has risen significantly between 2004 and 2010 for both groups (from 5 to 16 per cent for people without a disability and from 8 to 22 per cent for people with a disability).

Figure 3.1: Participation Rate, Employment Rate, Part-Time Working Rate and Unemployment Rate by Presence of Disability, 2004 and 2010



Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, analysis by authors.

Notes: The differences between people with a disability and people without a disability in the participation rate, the employment rate, the part-time working rate and the unemployment rate are statistically significant in both 2004 and 2010. The changes in participation rate, employment rate and part-time working rate are statistically significant for people with no disability but are not statistically significant for people with a disability. The increase in the unemployment rate between 2004 and 2010 was statistically significant for both groups.

We checked whether the differences by disability status in the unemployment rate and the participation rate remained with other characteristics controlled. These other characteristics include gender, age group, level of education and family status. Even with these other characteristics held constant, the odds of being outside the labour market (versus employed) remain over five times higher for people with a disability (odds ratio 5.62, see Appendix Table A3, Model A). The odds of being unemployed rather than employed remain 25 per cent higher for people with a disability (odds ratio 1.25, see Appendix Table A3, Model A).

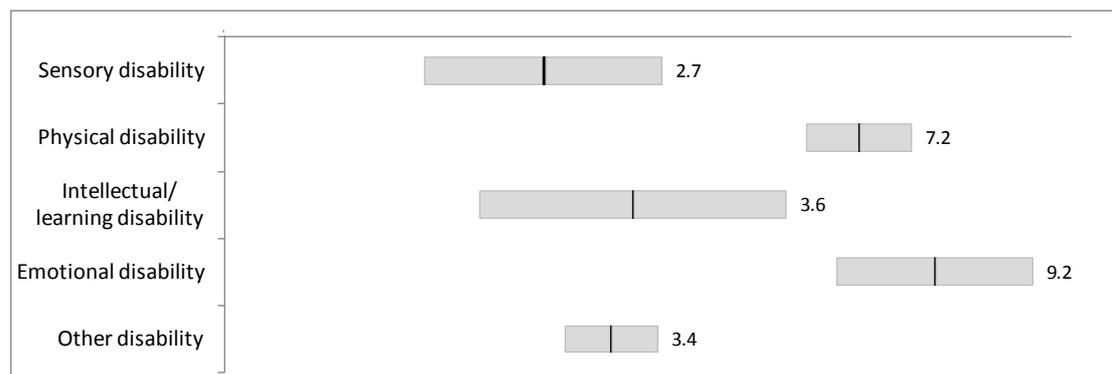
We also checked whether the change between 2004 and 2010 was significantly different for those with and without a disability (see Appendix Table A3, Model B). The fall in employment and the increase in unemployment affected both those with and without a disability, with no significant difference between the two groups.

3.3 Labour Market Status of People with a Disability by Type of Disability

At this point we ask whether the type of disability is consequential for the labour market situation of the individual, with other characteristics controlled. As noted in the previous chapter, we need to be cautious in comparing physical and 'other' disability between 2004 and 2010 because a change in the wording of the survey questions seems to have resulted in a shift from the 'physical' to the 'other' type of disability between the two periods. With this caveat in mind, is there evidence that the type of disability makes a difference to the person's labour market situation? To address the question, we conducted a multinomial logistic regression analysis, holding constant other characteristics such as gender, age group and level of education. The odds of unemployment did not differ significantly by the type of disability (see Appendix Table A4, Model C). However, there were significant differences by type of disability in the odds of being outside the labour market. This is shown in Figure 3.2.

The figure displays the ratio of the odds of being outside the labour market versus being at work for someone with each type of disability compared with the odds for someone with no disability. The dark line shows the odds ratio while the grey bars show the 95 per cent confidence interval around the odds ratio. The odds of being outside the labour market are highest (9.2) for people with an emotional or psychological disability. This indicates that compared with those with no disability, the odds of being outside the labour market are 9 times higher for someone with an emotional/psychological disability. The odds ratio is also very high (7.2) for people with a physical disability. People with an emotional/psychological disability and those with a physical disability are significantly more likely than people with sensory, intellectual/learning or 'other' disabilities to be outside the labour market. However, the results for people with a physical disability and people with an emotional/psychological disability do not differ significantly from each other, as we can see from the overlapping confidence intervals (the grey bars) in Figure 3.2. Neither do the remaining three groups (people with sensory, intellectual/learning or other disabilities) differ significantly from each other.

Figure 3.2: Odds of being Outside the Labour Market versus At Work by Type of Disability



Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, analysis by authors. Full model is shown in Appendix Table A4, Model C.

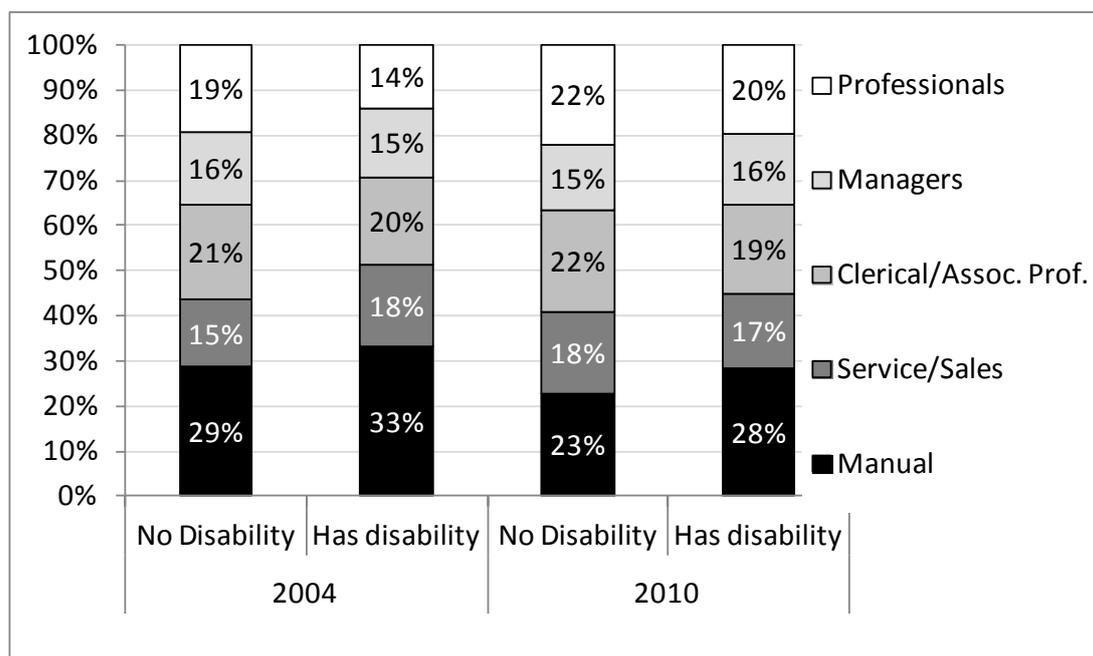
We also checked whether the change over time in labour market situation differed by type of disability (Appendix Table A4, Model D). The results indicated that there was no difference by type of disability in the change from 2004 to 2010 in the odds of being unemployed or in the odds of being outside the labour market. In other words, the increase in unemployment between 2004 and 2010 was similar for people with different types of disability.

3.4 Occupational Status of People with a Disability

Figure 3.3 shows the occupational status of those at work by presence of disability. Since the number of cases in the data of people with a disability who are at work is small, particularly in 2010, the results are subject to a wide margin of error and need to be interpreted with caution.¹⁰ In 2004 almost one-third of people with a disability worked in manual occupations; almost one-fifth worked in a service or sales job; a further one-fifth worked in clerical or associate professional occupations. About one in seven had a managerial job and slightly less than one in seven worked in a professional occupation. Comparing people with and without disabilities, the only difference to reach statistical significance is the lower proportion of people with a disability working in professional occupations (14 per cent versus 19 per cent among people without a disability).

Between 2004 and 2010 the biggest change for people with a disability was an increase in the proportion working in professional occupations (from 14 to 20 per cent). This is the only change of which we can be confident, due to the relatively small number of cases for people with a disability at work. In 2010 none of the occupational differences between people with a disability and people without a disability reach statistical significance. To some extent the change over time was due to a loss of employment in manual occupations during the recession. The fall in manual jobs was evident both for people with a disability (from 33 to 28 per cent) and people without a disability (from 29 to 23 per cent).

Figure 3.3: Occupation in the Labour Market by Presence of Disability, 2004 and 2010



Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, analysis by authors.

Notes: Those employed in agriculture, fisheries and the armed forces are not included. The number of cases for people with a disability in the workforce is small, so results are subject to a margin of error of approximately ± 4 per cent in 2004 and ± 6 per cent in 2010.

¹⁰ There are 516 people with a disability at work in the 2004 sample and 287 in the 2010 sample. The margin of error for percentages calculated on people with a disability at work is approximately ± 4 per cent in 2004 and ± 6 per cent in 2010.

Given the large differences in level of education between people with and without a disability (see Chapter 2), it is perhaps surprising that the differences in terms of occupation are not greater. However, people with a disability are much less likely to be at work. We saw earlier that, with other characteristics controlled, the odds of being outside the labour market are five times higher for people with a disability than for people without a disability. This means that those people with a disability who are at work are likely to be a select group who are better qualified and may differ from the larger group of people with a disability in other ways related to employment prospects.

A statistical model that held constant other characteristics (especially level of education) examined the odds of being in a professional occupation amongst those at work. The analysis was conducted on the pooled 2004 and 2010 data. The results confirm the finding that, among those at work, people with a disability are neither more nor less likely to be in a professional occupation than people without a disability (see Appendix Table A5).

3.5 Gender and Labour Market Situation of People with a Disability

Previous research demonstrates that disability and gender can interact in a way that results in unexpected outcomes (Watson and Lunn, 2010). One might initially assume that if women and people with a disability are disadvantaged in terms of labour market participation, then women with a disability are ‘doubly disadvantaged’. An analysis of the 2006 Census shows that this is not necessarily the case: the gender gap in labour market participation among people with disability was smaller than we would expect, given the overall patterns by gender and by disability (Watson and Lunn, 2010).

In the present study, given the smaller numbers when we break down the sample of people with a disability by gender, we rely on the results of a set of statistical models to examine whether the pattern of labour market activity by gender and disability has changed between 2004 and 2010. We do this in order to identify patterns that are statistically significant. We analyse two logistic regression models to look at the impact of respondent characteristics on:

- 1 Being outside the labour market (versus being in the labour market) for people of working age (aged 18 to 64).
- 2 Being unemployed (versus employed) for people of working age (aged 18 to 64) in the labour market.

It is worth separating labour market participation and unemployment because, as we shall see, the recession has had different consequences for the ‘disability gap’ in these two indicators. If we were to focus on the employment rate (being in employment versus the unemployed plus those outside the labour market combined) these differences would be obscured.

The figures come from regression models that control for age group, marital and family status, nationality, ethnicity, level of education, housing tenure and region. The full models are shown in Appendix Table A6. As the models are complex and the interpretation of the coefficients is not straightforward, we present the odds ratios for the disability gap in labour market outcomes. The disability gap refers to how much difference there is in labour market outcomes for people with or without a disability. This gap may differ for men and women, and between 2004 and 2010. The relevant odds ratios for being outside the labour market, computed from Model F in Appendix Table A6, are shown in Table 3.1.

Turning first to the disability gap in being outside the labour market, we see that the gap is much larger for men than for women in both years but that the gap had narrowed for men between 2004 and 2010 while it widened slightly for women. In 2004 the odds of being outside the labour market were nearly seventeen times higher for men with a disability than for men without a disability (16.8). This is much larger than the gap for women: the odds of being outside the labour market were 2.7 times higher for women with a disability than for their counterparts without a disability.

Table 3.1: The Disability Gap in the Model-Estimated* Odds of Being Outside the Labour Market by Gender, 2004 and 2010

| | 2004 | 2010 | 2010 vs. 2004 |
|---|------|------|---------------|
| Men with disability versus men with no disability | 16.8 | 8.8 | 0.52 |
| Women with disability versus women with no disability | 2.7 | 3.2 | 1.22 |

Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis.

Note: * These are model estimates based on Appendix Table A6, Model F. The model holds constant age group, nationality, ethnicity, marital/family status, education, housing tenure and region.

By 2010 the disability gap for men had narrowed considerably from an odds ratio of 16.8 to an odds ratio of 8.8, whereas the odds ratio for women with a disability had increased somewhat from 2.7 to 3.2. This happened because labour market participation moved in opposite directions for men and women. This can be seen in Table 3.2, which presents the model estimated percentage outside the labour market by gender, disability status and year. The model estimates are presented for a hypothetical case, holding constant age group, nationality, ethnicity, marital/family status, education, housing tenure and region. The hypothetical case is a white, Irish, married homeowner with children, aged 35 to 44, with completed second-level education, living in Dublin.

Table 3.2: Model-Estimated* Probability of Being Outside the Labour Market by Gender and Presence of Disability, 2004 and 2010

| | | 2004 (%) | 2010 (%) |
|---------------|----------------|-------------|-------------|
| Male | No disability | 7 | 10 |
| | Has disability | 56 | 49 |
| Female | No disability | 33 | 32 |
| | Has disability | 57 | 60 |

Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis.

Note: * These are model estimates based on Appendix Table A6, Model F. The model holds constant age group, nationality, ethnicity, marital/family status, education, housing tenure and region. Estimates are presented for a white, Irish, married homeowner with children, aged 35 to 44, with completed second-level education, living in Dublin.

We can see from Table 3.2 that there was an increase in the percentage of men without a disability who were not in the labour market (from 7 to 10 per cent for our hypothetical case) and a fall in labour market non-participation among men with a disability (from 56 to 49 per cent). The opposite pattern was found among women: there was a slight fall in the percentage of women without a disability who were outside the labour market (from 33 to 32 per cent) and a slight increase in the percentage of women with a disability who were outside the labour market (from 57 to 60 per cent). As a result of the recession, then, we see an increase in the percentage of men without a disability who are not participating in the labour market and a fall in non-participation among men with a disability, which narrows the disability gap for men. There is little change in the percentage of women who do not

have a disability who are outside the labour market but the percentage of women with a disability who are outside the labour market increases slightly, which widens the disability gap among women.

We now turn to the estimated odds of unemployment for those in the labour market. Table 3.3 presents the disability gap for unemployment in both years. The disability gap is the same for men and for women in both years. The odds of unemployment in 2004 were 1.7 times higher for people with a disability than for people without a disability. This ratio remained the same in 2010 and is the same for men and women.

Table 3.3: The Disability Gap in the Model-Estimated* Odds of Unemployment (for those in the labour market) by Gender, 2004 and 2010

| | 2004 | 2010 | 2010 vs. 2004 |
|---|------|------|---------------|
| Men with disability versus men with no disability | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.00 |
| Women with disability versus women with no disability | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.00 |

Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis.

Note: * These are model estimates based on Appendix Table A6, Model G. The model holds constant age group, nationality, ethnicity, marital/family status, education, housing tenure and region.

This pattern arises because unemployment rose very substantially between 2004 and 2010. The increase was proportionate for people with and without a disability within genders, but was larger for men than for women. This is illustrated in Table 3.4 for our hypothetical case (a white, Irish, married homeowner with children, aged 35 to 44, with completed second-level education, living in Dublin). The unemployment rate increased from 2.6 to 11.5 per cent for men without a disability and from 4.3 to 18.1 per cent for men with a disability. In both cases the unemployment rate increased by about four times. At the same time there was a threefold increase in unemployment for women with and without a disability.

Table 3.4: Model-Estimated* Probability of Unemployment by Gender and Presence of Disability, 2004 and 2010

| | | 2004 (%) | 2010 (%) |
|---------------|----------------|----------|----------|
| Male | No disability | 2.6 | 11.5 |
| | Has disability | 4.3 | 18.1 |
| Female | No disability | 2.1 | 6.2 |
| | Has disability | 3.5 | 10.1 |

Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis.

Note: * These are model estimates based on Appendix Table A6, Model G. The model holds constant age group, nationality, ethnicity, marital/family status, education, housing tenure and region. Estimates are presented for a white, Irish, married homeowner with children, aged 35 to 44, with completed second-level education, living in Dublin.

The different patterns between 2004 and 2010 for men and women reflect the gender differentiated impact of the recession. Paradoxically, because men with a disability were not in a position to take advantage of the opportunities available during the economic boom, they suffered less than men without a disability as a direct result of the recession. Nonetheless, it is worth emphasising that the participation rate of both women and men with a disability in 2010 is very substantially lower than that of people without a disability, and their unemployment rate is considerably higher. These gaps between people with a disability and people without a disability have remained relatively entrenched, through boom and recession.

3.6 Summary

In this chapter we examined the labour market situation of people with a disability in 2004 and 2010 compared with that of people without a disability. People with a disability have a lower rate of participation in the labour market, a lower employment rate, a higher rate of part-time working and a higher unemployment rate. When we control for education and other characteristics in the model, we see that the change between 2004 and 2010 differed for men and women with a disability: the labour force participation rate for men with a disability increased slightly whereas it fell for women with a disability. People with and without a disability faced the same increase in unemployment between the two periods and the increase was sharper for men than for women. The occupational situation of people with a disability who were at work in 2010 had improved since 2004, with significantly more working in professional occupations. However, this difference is not statistically significant when we control for other characteristics such as education, age group and family situation. The odds of unemployment do not differ significantly by the type of disability, but labour market participation is significantly lower for people with a physical or emotional/psychological disability than it is for those with sensory, intellectual/learning or 'other' types of disability.

4 DISCRIMINATION AND PEOPLE WITH A DISABILITY

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter we examine discrimination experienced by people with a disability in 2004 and 2010, particularly work-related discrimination. We begin with an overview of discrimination in general, before focusing on the work-related domains of the workplace and seeking work. We will then examine the extent to which changes in the risk of discrimination between 2004 and 2010 may be due to any changes in the profile of people with disabilities in the labour market (by gender, age, education). This analysis will also allow us to examine whether there are particular sub-groups of people with a disability who are at a higher risk of discrimination.

The measurement of discrimination in the QNHS Equality Modules in 2004 and 2010 is described more fully in the first report in this series (McGinnity, Watson and Kingston, 2012). The measure of discrimination is based on the person's own judgement as to whether they experienced discrimination in any of nine (work or service) domains: in the workplace; looking for work; in shops, pubs or restaurants; using the services of banks, insurance companies or financial institutions; in education; obtaining housing or accommodation; accessing health services; using transport services; and accessing public services. People reporting discrimination in a domain were asked on what ground they felt they were discriminated against. The grounds included: gender, marital status, family status, age, disability, race/skin colour/ethnic group/nationality, sexual orientation, religious belief, membership of the Traveller Community and other. For any individual, discrimination may have been reported in multiple domains; for discrimination in any domain, multiple grounds may have been recorded.

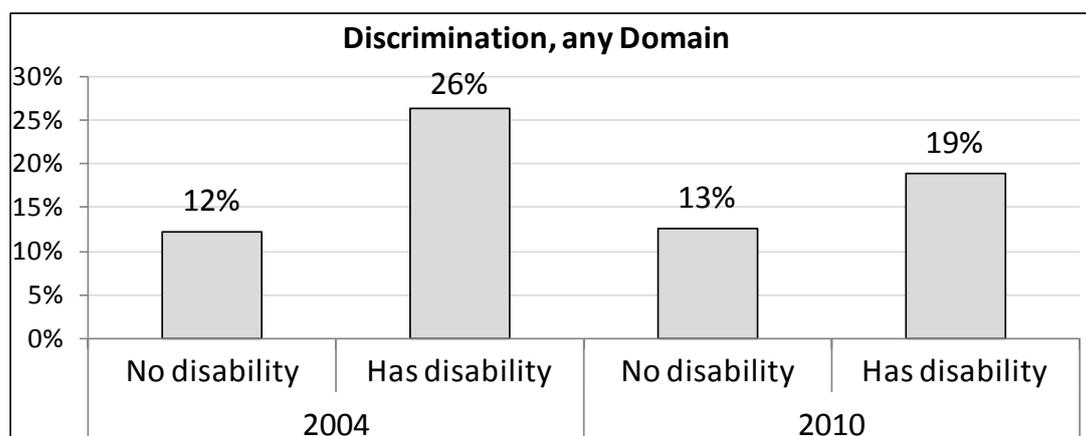
4.2 Comparing Discrimination in 2004 and 2010

The focus of this chapter is on discrimination either in the workplace or when looking for work. It is useful to begin, however, by setting this analysis in the context of the experience of discrimination in any domain (work-related or service-related) by people with a disability. Indeed, as we shall see below, because of differences in the format of questions on frequency and impact of discrimination, these can be compared in the two samples only on the basis of comparing discrimination in *any* domain.

4.2.1 Overall Risk of Discrimination

One of the most striking figures in the CSO (2011) report on equality was the marked decline in reported discrimination among people with a disability. As we see in Figure 4.1, this decline is very evident among people with a disability of working age. Over one-quarter (26 per cent) reported experiencing discrimination in at least one of the nine domains in 2004, compared with just under one-fifth (19 per cent) in 2010. This is significantly higher than reported discrimination among people without a disability, which remained relatively stable at 12 or 13 per cent.

Figure 4.1: Risk of Discrimination (any domain) among Working-Age Adults by Presence of Disability, 2004 and 2010

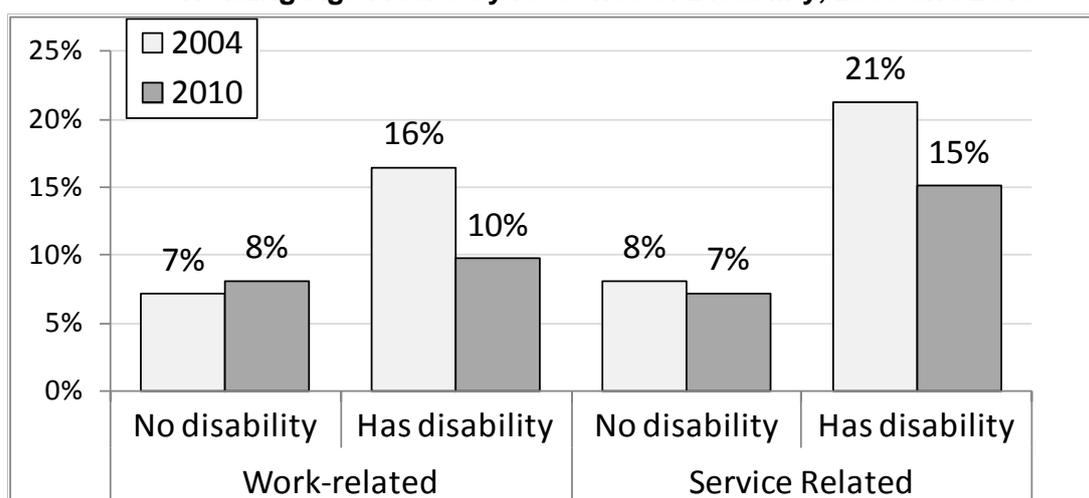


Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis.

4.2.2 Risk of Work-Related and Service-Related Discrimination

Figure 4.2 distinguishes between work-related and service-related discrimination. Work-related discrimination includes discrimination in the workplace or when looking for work. This is calculated for those who were either at work or seeking work at some point in the reference period. Service-related discrimination includes discrimination experienced: in shops, pubs or restaurants; using the services of banks, insurance companies or financial institutions; in education; obtaining housing or accommodation; accessing health services; using transport services; and accessing public services. Again, this is calculated for those exposed to potential discrimination in at least one of these areas – covering virtually all the working-age population.

Figure 4.2: Risk of Work-Related and Service-Related Discrimination among Working-Age Adults by Presence of Disability, 2004 and 2010



Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis.

Between 2004 and 2010 there was a slight increase in work-related discrimination among people without a disability (from 7 to 8 per cent) and a more substantial decrease among people with disability (from 16 to 10 per cent). Service-related discrimination decreased for both groups, but with a more substantial decrease among people with a disability (from 21 to 15 per cent) than among people without a

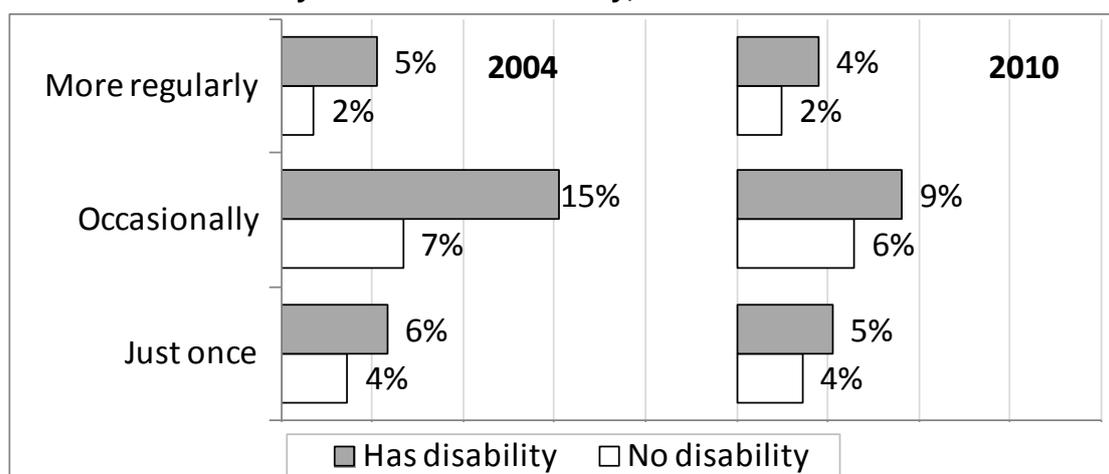
disability (from 8 to 7 per cent). The difference between people with a disability and those without a disability in the risk of work-related discrimination was much smaller in 2010 than it was in 2004, and was no longer statistically significant. However, the risk of service-related discrimination remained significantly higher for people with a disability in 2010.

4.2.3 Frequency of Discrimination (any domain)

The QNHS Equality Modules provide information on the frequency and impact of discrimination. The format of the question was not the same in 2004 and in 2010, however, which means that we can only compare the two samples when we consider all discrimination, in any domain. In 2004 the questions on how often the discrimination occurred and how seriously it affected the person were asked at the end of the discrimination section, referring to discrimination across all areas. In 2010 the questions on the frequency and impact of discrimination were asked separately for each domain in which the person experienced discrimination. In order to compare the two years in Figure 4.3, we take the highest reported frequency across domains for 2010 (where the person reports discrimination in more than one domain).

Among people without a disability in 2004, 88 per cent experienced no discrimination, 4 per cent experienced discrimination ‘just once’, 7 per cent ‘on a few occasions’ and 2 per cent ‘more regularly’. These figures remained substantially unchanged in 2010.

Figure 4.3: Frequency of Discrimination (any domain) among Working-Age Adults by Presence of Disability, 2004 and 2010



Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis.

Note: Highest reported frequency across domains (if more than one domain) taken for 2010.

Among people with a disability in 2004, 74 per cent experienced no discrimination, 6 per cent experienced discrimination ‘just once’, 15 per cent ‘on a few occasions’ and 5 per cent ‘more regularly’. Between 2004 and 2010 people with a disability experienced a substantial drop in discrimination occurring ‘on a few occasions’ (from 15 to 9 per cent). However, the percentage of people experiencing discrimination in each of the three frequency categories (‘just once’, ‘on a few occasions’, ‘more regularly’) remained significantly higher for people with a disability than for people without a disability in 2010.

4.2.4 Impact of Discrimination (any domain)

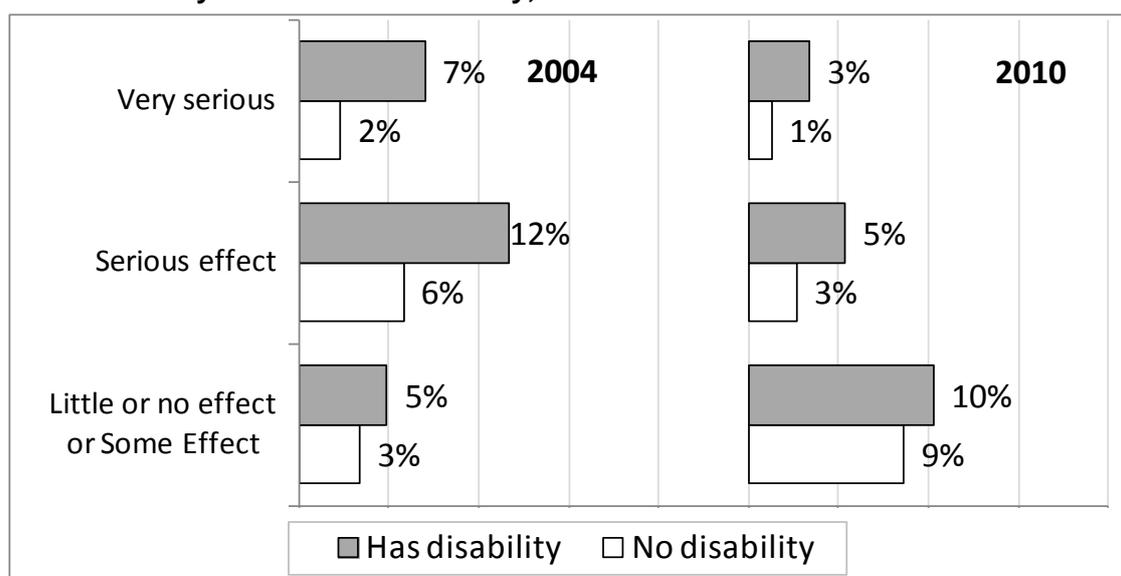
Figure 4.4 shows how seriously people were affected by discrimination in any domain in 2004 and 2010. Again, since the 2004 question on the impact of disability was

asked once as a global item covering all domains, we can only compare it with the 2010 pattern by aggregating the 2010 domain-specific impact responses and showing the highest reported impact across domains.

Among people with a disability in 2004, 5 per cent reported that the discrimination had 'little or no effect' or 'some effect' on their lives; 12 per cent reported that it had a serious effect and 7 per cent reported that it had a very serious effect. Between 2004 and 2010 the degree of seriousness of the discrimination experienced by people with a disability had fallen. In 2010, 10 per cent of people with a disability reported discrimination that had 'little or no effect' or 'some effect' on their lives; 5 per cent reported experiencing discrimination that had a serious effect and 3 per cent reported that it had a very serious effect. The percentage of people with a disability reporting discrimination that had either a serious or very serious effect on their lives had also fallen substantially between 2004 and 2010 (from 19 to 8 per cent). Nevertheless, people with a disability remained significantly more likely than people without a disability to have experienced discrimination that had a serious or very serious effect on their lives (8 and 4 per cent, respectively) in 2010.

A similar fall in the reported seriousness of discrimination is seen for people without a disability. In 2004, 8 per cent of people without a disability reported serious or very serious discrimination; this had fallen to 4 per cent by 2010.

Figure 4.4: Effect of Discrimination (any domain) among Working-Age Adults by Presence of Disability, 2004 and 2010



Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis.

Note: Difference in data collection between 2004 and 2010 – in 2004 asked once as global item referring to all domains of discrimination; in 2010 asked with respect to each domain. Most serious reported effect shown for 2010.

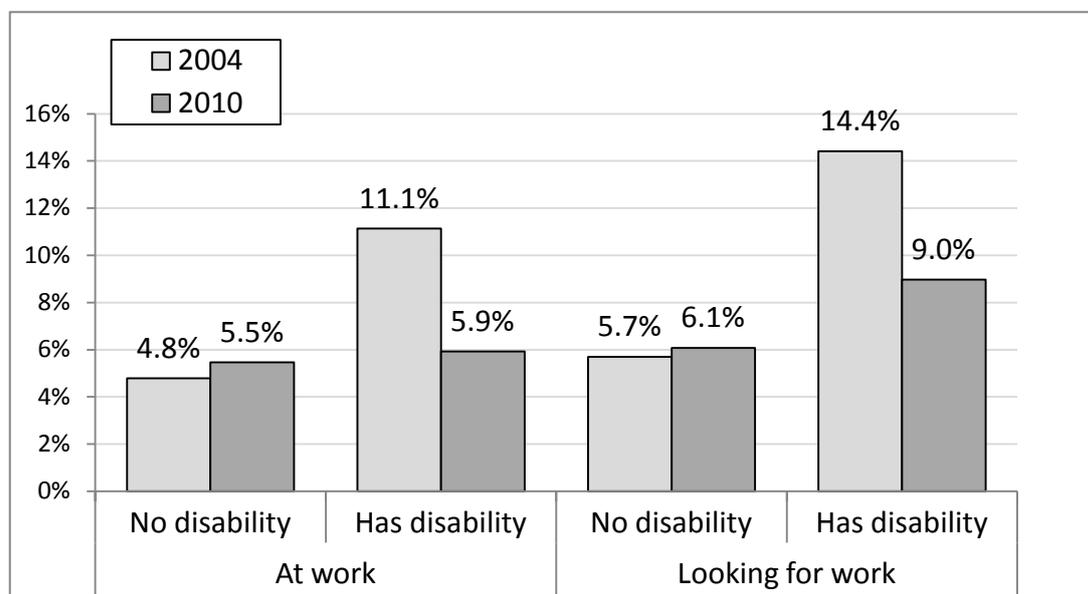
4.3 Detailed Type of Work-Related Discrimination in 2004 and 2010

We now turn to a more detailed examination of work-related discrimination. Figure 4.5 shows the risk of discrimination at work and when looking for work for 2004 and 2010, depending on whether the person has a disability. The calculations are based on the population of working age who were potentially exposed to discrimination in the workplace or when seeking work.

Both types of work-related discrimination declined for people with a disability. The risk of discrimination in the workplace fell from 11 to 6 per cent and the risk of

discrimination when looking for work fell from 14 to 9 per cent. Both of these changes are statistically significant. On the other hand, there was a small increase in the risk of discrimination in the workplace for people without a disability (from 4.8 to 5.5 per cent), with no significant change in the risk of discrimination when looking for work (close to 6 per cent in both samples).

Figure 4.5: Type of Work-Related Discrimination by Presence of Disability, 2004 and 2010



Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis.

The differences between people with a disability and those without a disability in both types of work-related discrimination in 2010 are not statistically significant. The number of people with a disability who were seeking work in the reference period is rather small (364 cases), so we cannot be sure that the seemingly higher risk of discrimination they face in looking for work is not due to sampling variation.

Table 4.1 shows the specific focus of discrimination in the workplace in 2004 and 2010. There are not enough cases in the sample of people with a disability who experienced discrimination in the workplace to report figures separately.¹¹ But we are able to test whether any differences are statistically significant. In 2004, 25 per cent of those who experienced discrimination in the workplace reported bullying or harassment, 20 per cent reported discrimination around working conditions and 17 per cent reported discrimination around promotion. A smaller number reported discrimination around pay (13 per cent) and a further 25 per cent reported discrimination in other aspects of the workplace. In 2010 the percentages reporting discrimination related to pay and promotion had both fallen substantially, while the proportion reporting discrimination related to other aspects of the workplace had increased to almost one-third. Among the areas included in the 'other' category we might expect to find discrimination related to redundancy or job loss.

Because of the small sample size for people with a disability who experienced discrimination in the workplace, we are not able to identify differences as statistically significant unless they are substantial. Only two such differences were identified. Among people with a disability, workplace discrimination related to promotion was significantly lower in 2004 and workplace discrimination related to work conditions

¹¹ There were 89 cases in 2004 and 31 in 2010.

was significantly lower in 2010 when compared with people without a disability. Note, however, that we cannot establish whether these rates are significantly different for people with a disability in the two periods. The number of cases is too small to identify changes over time among people with a disability.

Table 4.1: Focus of Discrimination in the Workplace for Working-Age Adults and Whether Pattern Differs Significantly for People with a Disability, 2004 and 2010

| | 2004 (%) | 2010 (%) | Whether different for people with a disability vs. people without a disability |
|------------------------|----------|----------|--|
| Pay | 13 | 6 | |
| Promotion | 17 | 9 | Significantly lower in 2004 |
| Work conditions | 20 | 24 | Significantly lower in 2010 |
| Bullying or harassment | 25 | 29 | |
| Other | 25 | 32 | |

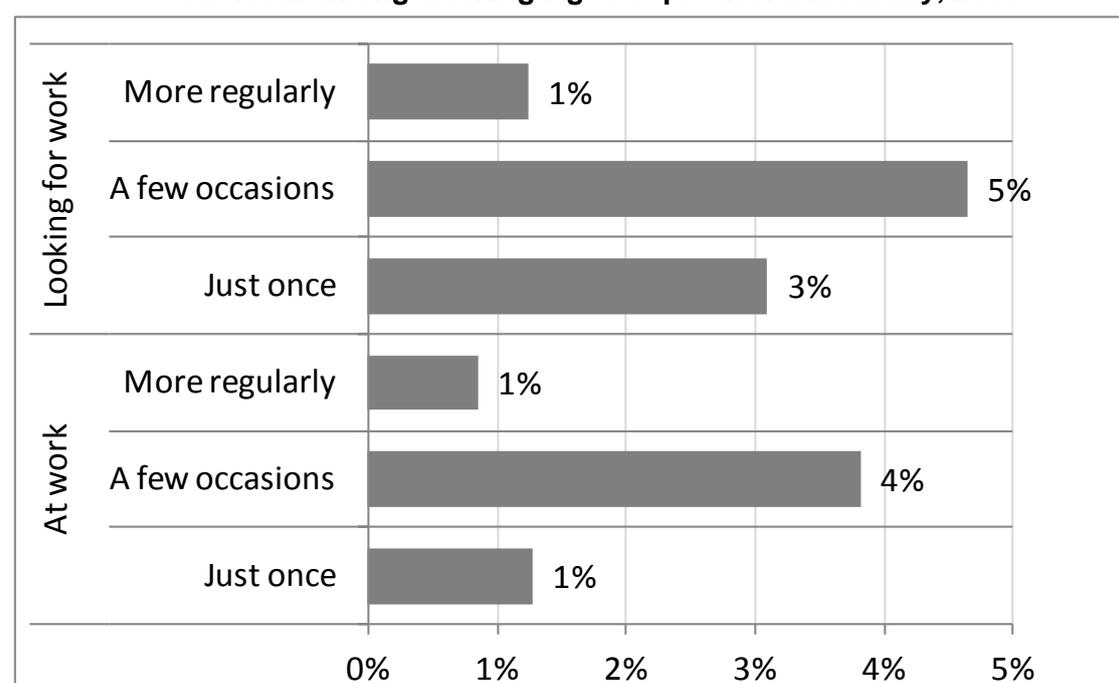
Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis.

The results suggest that broadly the same aspects of the workplace were the focus of discrimination in work for people with a disability in 2004 and 2010, with the major areas being bullying or harassment and 'other' areas.

4.4 Frequency and Impact of Work-Related Discrimination in 2010

Since the question in the 2010 survey allows us to distinguish the frequency of discrimination occurring in each detailed domain, Figure 4.6 reports this for the work-related domains in 2010. The figures are not shown for people without a disability since the difference in frequency of discrimination 'at work' or 'looking for work' is not statistically significant depending on whether the person has a disability.

Figure 4.6: Frequency of Discrimination in the Workplace and When Looking for Work among Working-Age People with a Disability, 2010

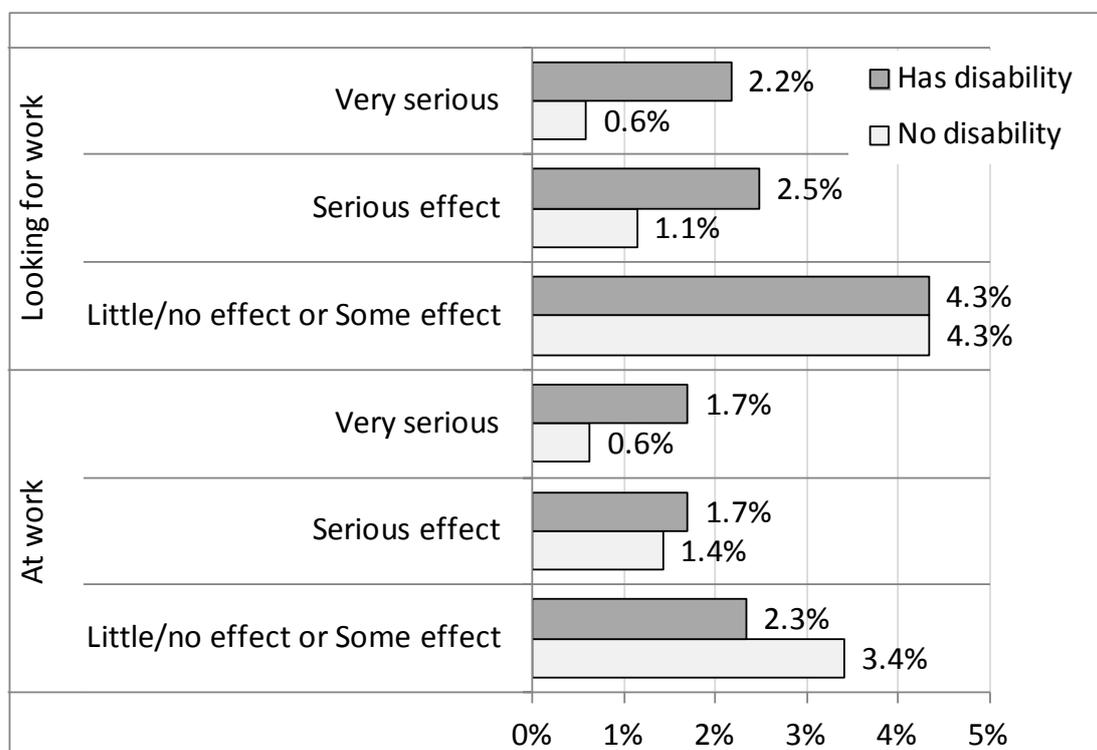


Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis.

The frequency patterns for discrimination in the workplace and when looking for work are very similar and the differences between the domains for people with a disability are not statistically significant. About one in twenty people with a disability who were potentially exposed to work-related discrimination in the reference period reported experiencing discrimination 'on a few occasions', 1 to 3 per cent reported experiencing discrimination 'just once' and 1 per cent reported experiencing discrimination 'more regularly'.

We are able to distinguish the impact of discrimination by detailed domain for 2010. Figure 4.7 shows the percentages reporting discrimination by whether it had a 'very serious', 'serious', 'some' or 'little or no' effect on their lives for working-age people exposed to (or at risk of) potential work-related discrimination. The difference between people with a disability and people without a disability in the reported seriousness of discrimination in the workplace is not statistically significant. However, people with a disability are more likely to report discrimination in looking for work that affects them 'very seriously' (2.2 per cent) than people without a disability (0.6 per cent).

Figure 4.7: Effect of Work-Related Discrimination by Presence of Disability, 2010



Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis

Note: Base = working-age population exposed to each type of work-related discrimination.

4.5 Risk of Work-Related Discrimination among People with a Disability in 2004 and 2010

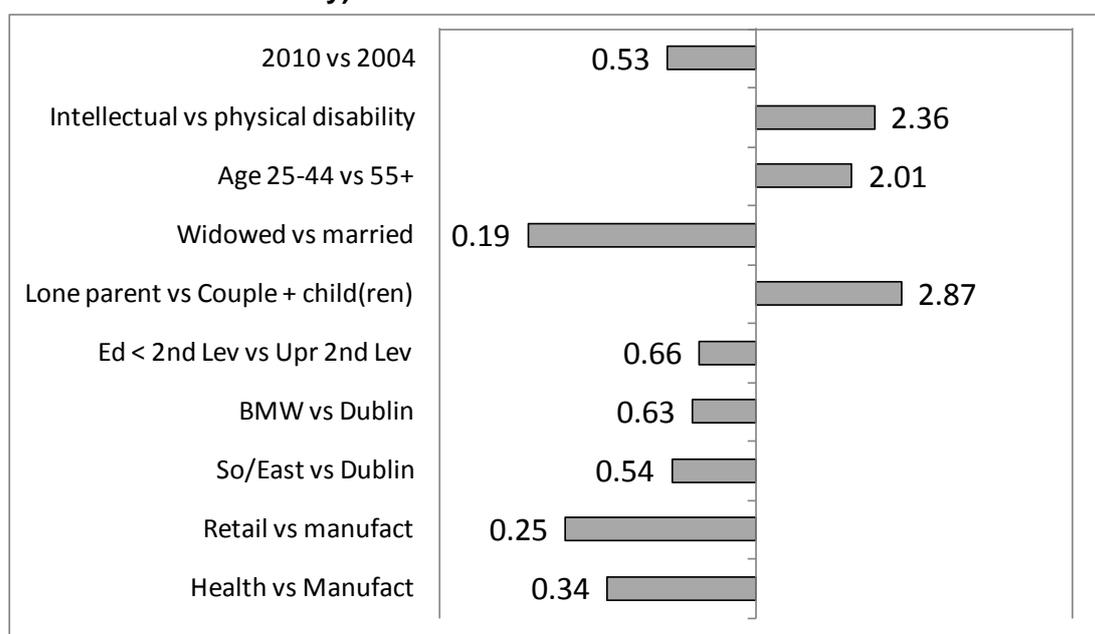
We now turn to the results of a statistical model to investigate whether particular groups of people with a disability are more at risk of work-related discrimination than others. The model is based on the pooled data for 2004 and 2010, so that we can test whether the change over time is statistically significant when we control for any changes in the composition of people with a disability. This strategy also gives a larger number of cases for the different types of disability so that we can check for

any significant differences here. The full model (a logistic regression model) is shown in Appendix Table A7, Model A. The model includes the year, the different types of disability, age group, gender, marital and family status, nationality, ethnicity, level of education, housing tenure and region. It also controls for employment status (whether self-employed or an employee), occupation and industrial sector.

We report the significant odds ratios in Figure 4.8. In order to clearly illustrate the magnitude of the effects, a logistic scale is used on the horizontal axis. This ensures that an odds ratio of 0.5 (half the odds) will appear to be the same size as an odds ratio of 2.0 (double the odds). The actual odds ratios are displayed at the end of each bar.

Compared with people without a disability, the odds of work-related discrimination among people with a disability dropped to just over half between 2004 and 2010, even controlling for other characteristics. This means that the change over time cannot be due to any change in the characteristics of people with a disability such as age, gender, marital and family status, nationality, ethnicity or level of education.

Figure 4.8: Odds of Work-Related Discrimination for People with a Disability of Working Age, 2004 and 2010 pooled models (showing significant effects only)



Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis.

Notes: Base = people with disability potentially exposed to work-related discrimination. Full model is shown in Appendix Table A7, Model A.

Looking at the different types of disability, we took physical disability as the reference category. Compared with those with a physical disability, only those with an intellectual or learning disability differed significantly in terms of their risk of work-related discrimination. People with an intellectual or learning disability have twice the odds of experiencing work-related discrimination. We saw in the last chapter that people with an intellectual or learning disability are more likely to participate in the labour market than those with a physical disability or an emotional/psychological disability. Their experience of discrimination may in part reflect the fact that there is less selectivity in this group in terms of the decision to participate in the labour market. In other words, compared with people with a physical or emotional/psychological disability, people with an intellectual or learning disability in the workforce may have fewer advantages in terms of education, training and other

attributes relevant to achievement in the workplace. Other challenges may arise in the less formal aspect of workplace integration. Some research suggests that people with an intellectual disability may face particular challenges in the area of informal interactions with other employees (see, for example, Holmes, 2003).

There were some significant differences by age and family status. Younger people with disability (25–44 age group) have twice the odds of experiencing work-related discrimination as those aged over 55. Lone parents with a disability have nearly three times (2.87) the odds of experiencing work-related discrimination compared with couples with children. The odds of experiencing discrimination are also lower for widowed people with a disability: just under one-fifth the odds of a married person. The number of widowed persons with a disability potentially exposed to work-related discrimination is rather small, however, and it was not possible to break the analysis down any further to investigate the dynamics involved.

In terms of education, we see a similar paradoxical pattern to that observed for work-related discrimination in the general population (McGinnity, Watson and Kingston, 2012). Lower education is associated with a lower risk of work-related discrimination. Those with less than full second-level education have about two-thirds the odds of experiencing work-related discrimination when compared with those with full second-level education. This pattern may be due to respondents being less willing to label their treatment as discrimination or to a lack of information on entitlements.

There is also a significant pattern by region. People with a disability in Dublin are more likely than those living elsewhere in the country to report work-related discrimination. In the Border, Midlands and West (BMW) region the odds of discrimination are just under two-thirds of the odds in Dublin, while in the South and East region the odds are just over half the odds in Dublin.

In the model we also controlled for work-specific characteristics, where these were available.¹² The only work factors significantly associated with the risk of discrimination among people with a disability involved the industrial sector. Compared with manufacturing, the odds of experiencing work-related discrimination in the retail/wholesale and health sectors are significantly lower. The odds of work-related discrimination in the retail/wholesale sector were one-quarter of the odds in manufacturing, while in the health sector the odds of work-related discrimination were about one-third of the odds in manufacturing.¹³

It is worth noting where no significant differences in the odds of discrimination were found. There were no significant differences by gender. Apart from the higher risk for people with an intellectual or learning disability, there were no other significant differences by type of disability. There were no significant differences by race, nationality or religion – perhaps because there is less variation in this respect among people with a disability than among the general population. In terms of work characteristics, there were no significant differences among people with a disability between employees and the self-employed.

¹² Information on sector, occupation and employment status was available for those at work at the time of the interview.

¹³ These differences do not seem to reflect a general public/private sector split: one of the sectors with a significantly lower prevalence of discrimination (health) is mainly public sector and the other (retail) is private sector. It might be expected that larger enterprises would be more likely to have equality policies, but it was not possible to check whether there were differences by size of enterprise, since the QNHS only records the number employed at the local unit.

4.6 Summary

This chapter examined the risk of discrimination experienced by people with a disability, with a particular focus on work-related discrimination. Between 2004 and 2010 the prevalence of discrimination among people with a disability fell significantly, from 26 to 19 per cent. The fall was evident for both work-related and service-related discrimination. In the work area the fall was found for both discrimination in the workplace (from 11 to 6 per cent) and discrimination when looking for work (from 14 to 9 per cent). There were also declines in the frequency and impact of discrimination for people with a disability. The decline in work-related discrimination remains when we control for any changes in the characteristics of people with a disability. Nevertheless, people with a disability remain at higher risk of discrimination in 2010, and also are more seriously affected by the discrimination, than people without a disability.

Looking at the characteristics of people with a disability, we find that the odds of work-related discrimination are higher for lone parents, younger adults and people with an intellectual or learning disability. The odds are also higher in Dublin than in other regions, and in manufacturing rather than in other industrial sectors.

5 SERVICE-RELATED DISCRIMINATION AND PEOPLE WITH A DISABILITY

5.1 Introduction

Although the focus of this report is on people with a disability in the labour market, the issue of discrimination in access to services is also relevant. Service discrimination may have an indirect impact on people's ability to participate in the labour market if it affects their education or qualifications or their ability to get to the workplace. The attitudes of other people such as service providers may play a role in signalling to people with a disability the likely response of employers and, hence, could discourage them from seeking work.

In this chapter we begin by providing some background information on patterns of discrimination in accessing services in 2004 and 2010, and explore the risk of service-related discrimination for people with a disability. We will then ask whether the experience of service-related discrimination is associated with labour market participation when we control for other characteristics such as age, gender and level of education. This may indicate that discrimination in non-work areas has an impact on the decision by people with a disability not to participate in the labour market. However, we need to be cautious about the direction of causation here. People with a disability who are not in the labour market may experience higher levels of limitation and may be more reliant on services, particularly public services. Nevertheless, an analysis of this issue – particularly asking whether service-related discrimination has a different impact on people with a disability and those without a disability – will allow us to investigate whether there may be patterns here worth investigating further.

Of course, it is not *only* service-related discrimination that may affect people's decision to participate or not to participate in the labour market. Discrimination experienced in seeking work or in the workplace may have an even more powerful signalling effect. However, we only have an indicator of work-related discrimination for those who *did* participate in the labour market in the previous two years. This means that none of those who were completely outside the labour market for the two years prior to the survey will have experienced work-related discrimination in that period. This is why we focus on the impact of service-related discrimination on labour market participation.

5.2 Prevalence of Service-Related Discrimination

In this section we examine the risk of discrimination in each detailed service domain for working-age adults by presence of disability. Note that the base here is all people with a disability of working age and all people without a disability of working age. The figures reported control for differences in exposure: we present the risk of discrimination for those who actively sought the service in the two-year reference period.

While over nine in ten adults are potentially exposed to discrimination in most of the service domains, the percentage is much lower for education and housing. Discrimination in education may affect adults who are themselves students or who are parents arranging education for their children. Discrimination in obtaining housing or accommodation will affect adults who actively sought to buy or rent accommodation, or who applied for local authority housing or were on a local authority waiting list during the reference period. In the case of education and

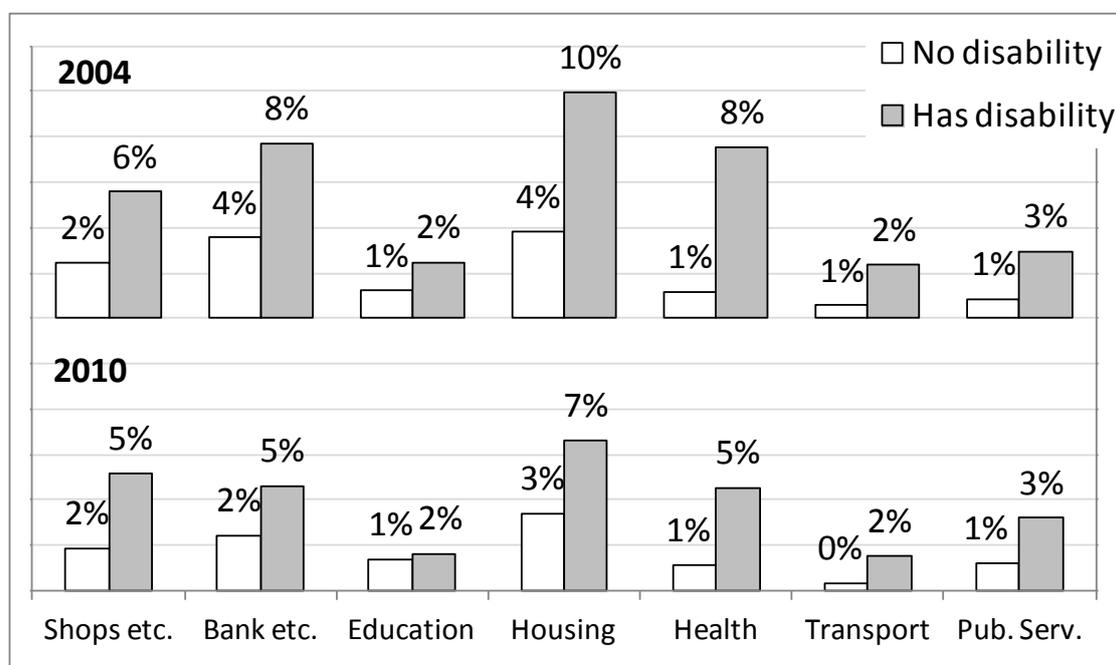
accessing housing, roughly two in five people without a disability and about one in three people with a disability were potentially exposed.

For all of the specific service domains, the risk of discrimination is higher for people with a disability than for people without a disability, as seen in Figure 5.1. This higher risk holds in both 2004 and 2010.

Among people with a disability, the highest risk in 2004 is for discrimination in housing (10 per cent), followed by banking, insurance and financial services (8 per cent) and health (8 per cent). By 2010 the risk of discrimination in all three of these areas had fallen.

The fall in risk is statistically significant in the case of health services and banking, insurance and financial services. In the case of housing, because of the smaller number of cases, the drop does not reach statistical significance; however, the higher risk of housing discrimination for people with a disability in 2010 compared with people without a disability is statistically significant.

Figure 5.1: Experience of Service-Related Discrimination by Presence of Disability and Detailed Domain, 2004 and 2010



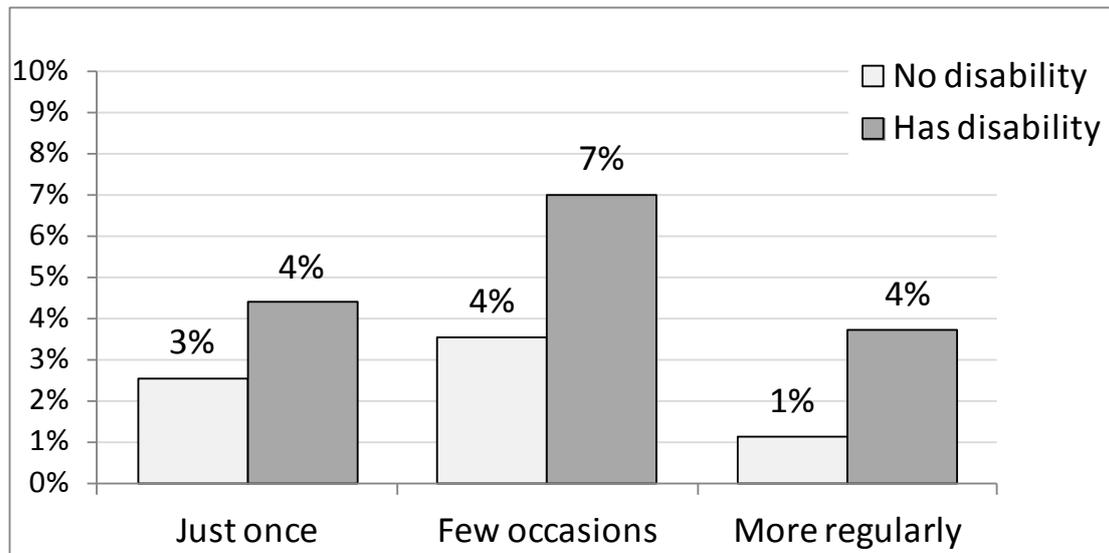
Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, special analysis.

5.3 Frequency and Impact of Service-Related Discrimination in 2010

Figure 5.2 shows the frequency of service-related discrimination among those who were at risk of service discrimination in at least one of the service domains. In cases where someone experienced discrimination in more than one of the service domains, the highest reported frequency is shown.

People with a disability are significantly more likely than those without a disability to report experiencing discrimination 'more regularly'. Among people with a disability, 4 per cent report experiencing service-related discrimination 'more regularly' compared with just 1 per cent of people without a disability.

Figure 5.2: Frequency of Service-Related Discrimination by Presence of Disability, 2010

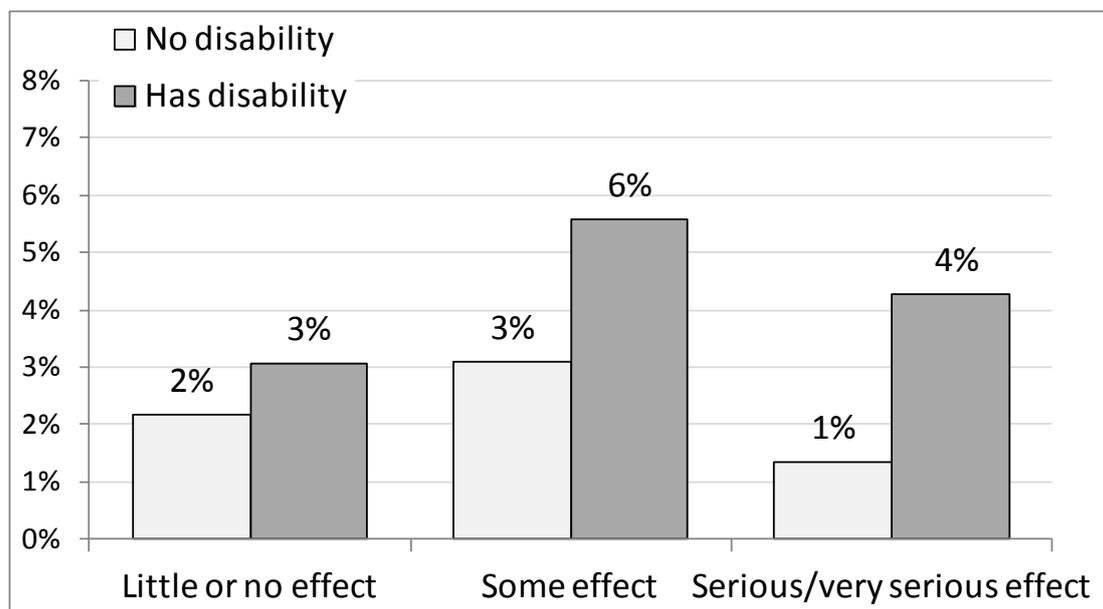


Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2010.

Note: Base = working-age population exposed to at least one form of service-related discrimination.

Figure 5.3 shows the impact of service-related discrimination by presence of disability for the population at risk of service-related discrimination. In cases where someone experienced discrimination in more than one of the service domains, the highest reported level of impact is shown.

Figure 5.3: Impact of Service-Related Discrimination by Presence of Disability, 2010



Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2010.

Note: Base = working-age population exposed to at least one form of service-related discrimination.

People with a disability are significantly more likely to report discrimination that had a 'serious' or 'very serious' effect on them (4 per cent) compared with people without a disability (1 per cent). The 'disability gap' is larger for discrimination that has a serious effect than for discrimination that has little or no effect, which is reported by 3

per cent of people with a disability and 2 per cent of people without a disability. This means that not only do people with a disability experience higher levels of service-related discrimination, but when they do experience discrimination it is more likely to have as serious impact on their lives.

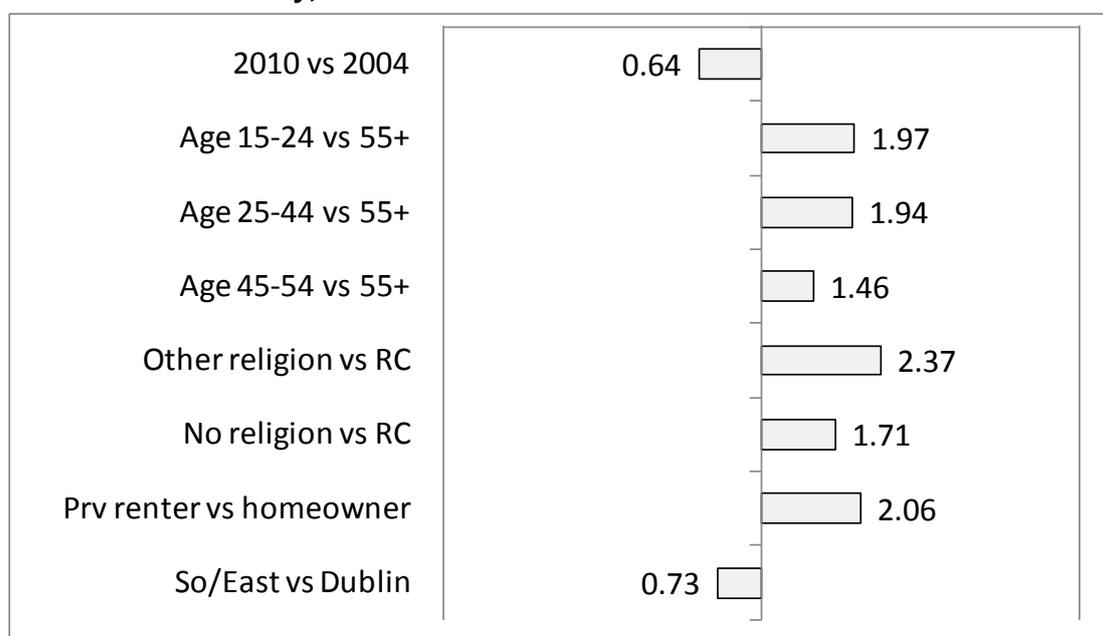
The figures in this section show that people with a disability are at greater risk of service-related discrimination than people without a disability. Although the risk declined between 2004 and 2010, it remains significantly higher for people with a disability than for those without a disability. In addition, when people with a disability experience service-related discrimination, they are more likely to face such discrimination ‘more regularly’ and the discrimination is more likely to have a serious impact on them.

5.4 Risk of Service-Related Discrimination among People with a Disability in 2004 and 2010

Just as we did in the case of work-related discrimination in Chapter 4, we examine whether the risk of service-related discrimination is greater for particular sub-groups of people with a disability. The analysis is based on the results of a logistic regression model for people with a disability of working age, pooling the data for 2004 and 2010. The full model is shown in Appendix Table A7, Model B and the significant odds ratios are shown in Figure 5.4.

The results of the model show a significant decline in the risk of service-related discrimination between 2004 and 2010, even controlling for any compositional change in the population of people with a disability of working age. The odds of someone with a disability experiencing service-related discrimination in 2010 had fallen to less than two-thirds (0.64) of the odds in 2010.

Figure 5.4: Odds of Service-Related Discrimination among People with a Disability, 2004 and 2010



Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010.

Notes: Base = people with a disability of working age exposed to at least one form of service-related discrimination. Full model shown in Appendix Table A7, Model B.

In the case of work-related discrimination, we saw that younger adults with a disability had higher odds of experiencing discrimination than adults aged 55 or over. Although this same pattern is evident for service-related discrimination, it shows a more gradual decline in risk with age. Adults with a disability under age 45 have twice the odds of experiencing service-related discrimination and this drops to odds of about 1.5 for those aged 45 to 54 compared with those aged 55 and over.

We observe some differences by religion in the case of service-related discrimination that were not evident for work-related discrimination. Compared with Roman Catholics (RC), people with a disability who are members of other (non-Christian) religions experience 2.3 times the odds of service-related discrimination; the odds are 1.7 times higher for those with no religious affiliation. McGinnity, Watson and Kingston (2012, Table 2.4a) find that those belonging to no religious denomination experience higher levels of discrimination in the service domains of education and transport, and members of other non-Christian religions experience higher levels of discrimination in the service domains of shops, pubs and restaurants and in education.

We also find a difference by housing tenure that was not evident for work-related discrimination. Those who are renting accommodation from a private (non-local authority) landlord report a higher rate of service-related discrimination. The odds are twice as high for private renters as for homeowners.

There are also some differences by region. Service-related discrimination is lower in the South and East region, with odds that are under three-quarters of those in Dublin. The Border, Midlands and West (BMW) region does not differ significantly from Dublin in the risk of service-related discrimination.

As in the case of work-related discrimination among people with a disability, we find no significant differences in risk by gender, race or nationality/ethnicity. Although there were some differences in the risk of work-related discrimination by marital and family status and by type of disability, these differences do not emerge in the case of service-related discrimination.

5.5 Service-Related Discrimination and Labour Market Participation

At this point we turn to the second major question to be addressed in this chapter: is there an association between service-related discrimination and participation in the labour market? There are two ways in which service-related disability could impact on the participation in the labour market of people with a disability. The first is a direct effect. For instance, discrimination in transport services may reduce the capacity of people with a disability to travel to work or discrimination in education and training may reduce the level of qualifications they are able to achieve. The second is an indirect or signalling effect. Negative treatment by service providers may act as a signal to people with a disability that they may be at risk of negative reaction from employers or others in the workplace. This may discourage people with a disability from seeking work. It is not certain that the causal chain operates in this direction, however. Those outside the labour market may be more reliant on services either because the nature of their disability is associated with a greater level of limitation in activity, or because the drop in income associated with not working makes them rely on social welfare income supports. We must, therefore, be cautious in interpreting the results.

To investigate the association between service-related discrimination and labour market participation, we extend the labour market model from Chapter 3 to include the experience of service-related discrimination. The full models are shown in Appendix Table A8. The models include data on all persons of working age from

2004 and 2010 and control for gender, age group, marital and family status, race and nationality, level of education, housing tenure and region. Note that the measure of service-related discrimination is not limited to those exposed to discrimination in the different service sectors. As noted above, over nine in ten adults are potentially exposed to discrimination in most of the service domains, but the percentage is much lower for education and housing (about one-third). In order not to lose cases from the analysis, those not exposed to discrimination in a particular domain are treated as not having experienced discrimination in that domain.

Table 5.1 shows the odds of being unemployed (U/E) and of being outside the labour market (Inact.) from three models. Only the coefficients relevant to the impact of service-related discrimination are shown. Model 1 includes a measure of having experienced service-related discrimination as well a measure of being a person with a disability who has experienced service-related discrimination. Including both of these variables allows us to test whether the effect of such discrimination is different for people with a disability compared with those with no disability. The model shows that people who have experienced service-related discrimination are both more likely to be unemployed and to be outside the labour market. However, the impact is no different for people with a disability and people without a disability.

Table 5.1: Odds of Being Unemployed or Outside the Labour Market (selected coefficients from pooled model for 2004 and 2010)

| | Model 1 | | Model 2 | | Model 3 | |
|---|---------|--------|---------|--------|---------|--------|
| | U/E | Inact. | U/E | Inact. | U/E | Inact. |
| Service-related discrimination | 1.35** | 1.51** | – | – | – | – |
| Service-related discrimination x Disability | n.s. | n.s. | – | – | – | – |
| Discrimination in particular domain: | | | | | | |
| Shops etc. | – | – | 1.54** | 1.37** | 1.53** | 1.31* |
| Bank etc. | – | – | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. |
| Education | – | – | 2.08** | 1.89** | 1.96* | 2.11** |
| Housing | – | – | n.s. | 2.20** | n.s. | 2.02** |
| Health | – | – | n.s. | 1.49** | n.s. | 1.56** |
| Transport | – | – | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. | n.s. |
| Public services | – | – | 1.94** | 1.70** | 1.88** | 1.80** |
| Interaction between disability and discrimination in particular domain: | | | | | | |
| Shops x Disability | – | – | – | – | n.s. | n.s. |
| Bank etc. x Disability | – | – | – | – | 2.26* | n.s. |
| Education x Disability | – | – | – | – | n.s. | n.s. |
| Housing x Disability | – | – | – | – | n.s. | n.s. |
| Health x Disability | – | – | – | – | n.s. | n.s. |
| Transport x Disability | – | – | – | – | n.s. | n.s. |
| Public services x Disability | – | – | – | – | n.s. | n.s. |

Source: Quarterly National Household Survey Equality Module, Quarter 4, 2004 and 2010, analysis by authors.

Notes: U/E means unemployed (versus at work); Inact. means not in labour market (versus at work). Base = people of working age in 2004 and 2010 (pooled model). Only significant odds ratios shown. n.s. means not statistically significant; – means variable not included in this equation; * p<=.05; ** p<=.01. Nagelkerke pseudo R-squared is .346 for Model 1 and .348 for both Model 2 and Model 3.

Model 2 substitutes measures of discrimination in specific service domains for the overall measure of service-related discrimination. This model examines the overall impact of discrimination in these areas, not the impact specifically on people with a disability. Discrimination in several of the specific domains is significantly associated with unemployment and with non-participation in the labour market. Discrimination in shops, pubs and restaurants is associated with a 54 per cent increase in the odds of unemployment and a 37 per cent increase in the odds of being outside the labour market. Since it is unlikely that discrimination in these areas would have a direct effect on employment, it is most likely that the relationship reflects a signalling of a general negative attitude.

Discrimination in education, on the other hand, could have a more direct effect on labour market outcomes through the qualifications the person achieves. Discrimination in education is associated with a doubling of the odds of unemployment and an 89 per cent increase in the odds of being outside the labour market. We need to be careful in interpreting this as a direct effect of educational discrimination on labour market outcomes, since some of the reported discrimination in education may refer to difficulties in arranging schooling for the respondent's children.

Discrimination in accessing health services is associated with increased odds of being outside the labour market (49 per cent increase) but not with an increased risk of unemployment. Difficulty in accessing health services may delay a person's recovery from illness and affect their availability for work.

Housing discrimination is associated with higher odds of being outside the labour market. As the proportion of working-age people with a disability who were potentially exposed to housing discrimination is low, at about one-third of the population, housing discrimination may be linked to accessibility to potential workplaces or to public transport.

Discrimination in accessing transport has no impact on either unemployment or on being outside the labour market. Discrimination in accessing public services is associated with an increased risk of unemployment (94 per cent higher odds) and an increased risk of being outside the labour market (70 per cent higher odds). In this case we need to be particularly cautious, since the public services accessed by those not at work are likely to be different and to include applications for social welfare benefits. The impact could operate in the direction from unemployment or being outside the labour market to service discrimination, rather than vice versa. In other words, it is not that discrimination in this area leads to higher unemployment or being outside the labour market, but that being unemployed or outside the labour market exposes the person to a risk of greater discrimination in this area.

Model 3 includes the effect of discrimination in these areas on people with a disability to check whether service discrimination in any area has different impacts on people with a disability and people without a disability. The only statistically significant interaction with having a disability is in discrimination in the area of banking, insurance and financial services. Discrimination in this area is associated with a higher risk of unemployment for people with a disability but not for people without a disability. We do not have enough detail on the type of financial institution involved to say whether the discrimination concerned obtaining a bank account or loan, obtaining insurance or making an insurance claim, or accessing some other financial service. The association could indicate causal processes operating in either direction: either difficulty in obtaining financial services among people with a disability who are unemployed or difficulty in finding employment because of discrimination in financial services. At any rate, we see the pattern for people with a disability but not for people without a disability.

5.6 Summary

This chapter focused on service-related discrimination and its impact on people with a disability of working age. We saw a clear decline in service-related discrimination affecting people with a disability between 2004 and 2010, although the risk remains higher than the risk for people without a disability. When people with a disability experience service-related discrimination, it is likely to occur more frequently and to affect them more seriously than is the case for people without a disability. Among people with a disability, younger adults, members of non-Christian religions or members of no religious denomination, private renters and those living in Dublin are at a higher risk of service-related discrimination.

In examining the association with labour market outcomes, we find that service-related discrimination is associated with both unemployment and being outside the labour market. The types of service-related discrimination that are significantly associated with either unemployment or non-participation involve: shops, pubs and restaurants; education; housing; health; and public services. However, the impact on people with a disability was not significantly different from the impact on people without a disability, in most respects. Since people with a disability experience higher levels of service-related discrimination than those without a disability, it is possible that this form of discrimination has an impact on their employment levels. This could operate either through its impact on their qualifications or other aspects of their capacity to engage in employment or through its signalling effects.

6 CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter we draw together the findings from this report in order to answer the research questions and draw out the implications for disability and equality policy as it concerns people with a disability. The research questions concerned:

1. The differences between people with a disability and those without a disability in labour market participation, unemployment and occupation.
2. Whether the differences persist when we control for other characteristics, such as age group, ethnicity, religion and family status.
3. Whether the patterns changed between 2004 and 2010.
4. Whether there was a change in the extent of work-related discrimination among people with a disability between 2004 and 2010.
5. Whether there is evidence that discrimination in accessing services may contribute to discouraging people with a disability from seeking work.

6.2 People with a Disability of Working Age

According to the indicator of disability used in the QNHS, about 8 per cent of working-age adults have a disability. The most common type of disability in 2010 is 'other' disability, which includes chronic illness, pain and breathing difficulties. Disability is more prevalent among older adults. In 2010, 16 per cent of adults aged 55 to 64 had a disability compared with 3 per cent of adults under the age of 35. This means that working-age people with a disability are disproportionately concentrated in the older age groups. There is a small gender difference among working-age adults: disability is slightly more common among men than among women.

6.3 Labour Market Situation of People with a Disability

In Chapter 3 we examined the actual or objective labour market situation of people with a disability in both 2004 and 2010. People with a disability have a much lower labour market participation rate (36 per cent) in 2010, compared with over double this figure for people without a disability. They also have a higher unemployment rate (22 per cent) than people without a disability (16 per cent) and when they are at work, they are more likely than people without a disability to be working part-time hours (29 per cent versus 23 per cent).

When we looked in detail at how the labour market situation of people with a disability had changed between 2004 and 2010, we found some important differences by the gender of the individual. The labour market participation rate for men with a disability increased slightly between 2004 and 2010 whereas that of women with a disability fell slightly. This is the opposite pattern to that found among people without a disability: when we control for education and other characteristics, we find women's labour force participation increased slightly between 2004 and 2010 whereas men's labour force participation fell.

Unemployment increased between 2004 and 2010 for people with a disability and people without a disability. The overall rate of increase was similar for the two groups, and in both cases the increase in unemployment was sharper for men than for women.

We were somewhat limited in the detail to which we could explore the occupational patterns of people with a disability because the number of cases in the 2010 sample of people with a disability at work is small. However, there was some evidence of an improvement in their occupational distribution since 2004. Among people with a disability at work there was a significant increase in the percentage working in professional occupations. In fact, by 2010, there was no significant difference in the occupational distributions of people with a disability and people without a disability who were in employment. To some extent the change over time was due to a loss of employment in manual occupations during the recession, and the fall in manual jobs was evident for people both with a disability and without a disability.

We found some differences in labour market participation (but no differences in the risk of unemployment) by type of disability. The labour market participation rate was significantly higher for people with sensory, intellectual/learning or 'other' disabilities than it was for people with physical or emotional/psychological disabilities.

6.4 Work-Related Discrimination and People with a Disability

In Chapter 4 we turned to people's subjective assessment of how they were treated in the workplace and when looking for work as well as in accessing various services. Our analysis of work-related discrimination focused on those potentially exposed to work-related discrimination in the reference period: people of working age who had been at work or who looked for work in the previous two years. There was a significant fall in the prevalence of work-related discrimination among working-age people with a disability between 2004 and 2010, from 26 to 19 per cent.

We were able to compare the effect of discrimination in any domain (service-related as well as work-related) on the individual in both 2004 and 2010. The impact of discrimination on the individual with a disability had also lessened significantly between the two surveys, with a fall in the percentage reporting that discrimination had a serious or very serious effect on their life, from 19 to 8 per cent.

Between 2004 and 2010 the prevalence of work-related discrimination among people without a disability remained virtually unchanged, at about 13 per cent, leading to a narrowing of the gap between this group and people with disabilities. Like people with a disability, working-age adults without a disability experienced a reduction in the percentage reporting that discrimination (in either the work or service domains) had a serious effect on their lives (from 8 to 4 per cent).

Nevertheless, the risk of work-related discrimination in 2010 is still significantly higher for people with a disability (19 per cent) than it is for those without a disability (13 per cent). In addition, the percentage of people with a disability who are seriously affected by discrimination (in either work or service domains) remains significantly higher (8.7 per cent) than it is for people without a disability (3.9 per cent).

For 2010 we were able to examine the impact of discrimination in the workplace and discrimination when looking for work. The difference between people with a disability and those without a disability in the seriousness of discrimination in the workplace was not statistically significant, but people with a disability were more likely to report that discrimination in looking for work affected them very seriously (5 per cent) than people without a disability (2 per cent).

Using a statistical model we investigated whether particular groups of people with a disability are more at risk of work-related discrimination and whether the fall in the risk of work-related discrimination between 2004 and 2010 was statistically significant when we controlled for any changes in levels of education, age group and other characteristics. We found that the odds of work-related discrimination are higher for lone parents with a disability (2.87) and for younger adults with a disability (2.01).

The odds of work-related discrimination tend to be considerably lower for widowed people with a disability (0.19), most of whom are concentrated in the older age range. The odds of work-related discrimination are also lower in the Border, Midlands and West (BMW) region (0.63) and the South and East region (0.54) than they are in Dublin.

Among people with a disability in employment, the odds of experiencing work-related discrimination were significantly lower for those working in the retail/wholesale or health sectors than in manufacturing.

Looking at the different types of disability, we took physical disability as the reference category. Compared with people with a physical disability, only people with an intellectual or learning disability differed significantly in terms of their risk of work-related discrimination. People with an intellectual or learning disability have over twice the odds of experiencing work-related discrimination. It was not possible to investigate in detail why this might be the case.

The odds of work-related discrimination among people with disabilities had dropped to just over half the 2004 figure by 2010, even controlling for compositional characteristics of the population of people with disabilities. This indicates a very significant improvement for people with a disability in the period.

6.5 Service-Related Discrimination and People with a Disability

In Chapter 5 there were two strands to our exploration of service-related discrimination experienced by working-age people with a disability. The first involved checking whether the fall in work-related discrimination was mirrored by a similar fall in discrimination in services such as shops, pubs and restaurants; banking, insurance and financial services; education; housing; health; transport; and public services. The second involved an exploration of the possibility that service-related discrimination may have consequences for the labour market participation and employment of people with a disability.

6.5.1 Service-Related Discrimination – Rates and Change 2004–2010

The risk of discrimination in all service-related domains in 2010 was higher for people with a disability than it was for those without a disability, particularly in housing (7 per cent versus 3 per cent) and health (5 per cent versus 1 per cent). People with a disability are also more likely than people without a disability to experience service-related discrimination on a regular basis (4 per cent versus 1 per cent) and to be seriously affected by service-related discrimination (4 per cent versus 1 per cent).

There was a significant fall in service-related discrimination among people with a disability between 2004 and 2010, even controlling for other characteristics such as level of education, age and employment situation. Among people with a disability, the risk of service-related discrimination tends to be higher for younger adults than for those aged 55 or over. Those who belong to non-Christian religions or to no religious denomination are more likely than Catholics to experience service-related discrimination. The risk is also higher for people with a disability living in privately rented accommodation than for their counterparts who are homeowners. There was also a difference by region, with the risk of service-related discrimination higher for people with a disability living in Dublin than it is for those living in the South and East.

6.5.2 Service-Related Discrimination and Labour Market Situation

The second strand of analysis in Chapter 5 involved asking whether the labour market situation of people with a disability was associated with having experienced

service-related discrimination. Service-related discrimination may have a direct or indirect impact on the labour market participation of people with a disability. A direct effect may occur in areas such as education (reducing the level of qualification achieved) or transport (affecting capacity to travel to work). Negative treatment by service providers may act as a signal to people with a disability that they may be at risk of negative reaction from employers or others in the workplace. The indirect effect of this treatment may be to discourage people with a disability from seeking work.

The analysis showed that the unemployed and those outside the labour market are both more likely to have experienced service-related discrimination. However, the overall impact of service-related discrimination does not differ for people with a disability and people without a disability. Therefore, if service-related discrimination signals the likely negative reaction of potential employers, it is not specific to people with a disability.

When we examined the association between labour market situation and discrimination in specific service domains we found that both the risk of unemployment and the risk of non-participation in the labour market are higher for those who experience discrimination in shops, pubs and restaurants; in education; and in accessing public services. The odds of non-participation in the labour market (but not of unemployment) are increased among those who experience discrimination in housing and in accessing health services. None of these patterns are significantly different for people with a disability, however, compared with people without a disability. The one link between service-related discrimination and labour market situation that is unique to people with a disability concerns the area of banking, insurance and financial services. People with a disability who experience discrimination in this service area are more likely to be unemployed.

These associations might not necessarily indicate a causal link, however, so we need to be cautious in interpreting the results. For instance, the association with housing discrimination may indicate that people with a disability outside the labour market have specific housing needs that differ systematically from people with a disability who are at work, perhaps linked to greater mobility difficulties. At a minimum, the finding of an association between service-related discrimination and labour market situation indicates that we need to take seriously the role of services, both public and private, in enabling people to work.

6.6 Limitations of this Study

In considering the findings of this report it is important to keep in mind some of the limitations of the data and analysis. First, although we have data from two time periods, 2004 and 2010, both datasets are for a single point in time. This means that findings of an association, while suggestive of causation, cannot conclusively be interpreted causally. This point is particularly important in this report with respect to the association between service-related discrimination and labour market situation. The association could come about for two very different reasons. It could be that discrimination in accessing services interferes with people's ability to find work. Alternatively, being unemployed or outside the labour market leads people to depend on the kind of services where discrimination is more likely to occur.

A second limitation of the analysis is that we rely on a subjective measure of discrimination. While the evidence supports the general validity of this measure (see discussion in McGinnity, Watson and Kingston, 2012), we know that some groups are more willing than others to attribute negative treatment to discrimination. Older adults and people with lower levels of education, in particular, may be more reluctant to identify negative treatment as discriminatory (Russell *et al.*, 2008). It is possible,

therefore, that the levels of discrimination are understated for older adults and for people with lower levels of education.

The analysis of the situation of people with a disability in this report was also limited to some extent by the fact that we have no information on the extent to which people's activities are limited by their disability. The Survey of Income and Living Conditions (SILC) questionnaire, for instance, now includes an item that asks whether a respondent's activities are 'not limited', 'limited' or 'strongly limited' by his or her health condition. This information would have been very useful in both the analysis of the labour market situation of people with a disability and in the analysis of the extent to which they experience discrimination. The prevalence of disability in the working-age population in QNHS 2010 (7.6 per cent) is only slightly higher than the prevalence recorded in the 2006 National Disability Survey (NDS) (6.3 per cent). The NDS had a threshold of a moderate level of difficulty for most types of disability. This means that it is likely that the majority of those identified as having a disability in the present report experience at least a moderate level of difficulty. (See Appendix B.)

6.7 Policy Lessons

The first implication for policy is the clear improvement in the situation of people with a disability since 2004. While it is not possible to definitively attribute this change to the intensive policy attention to the challenges faced by people with a disability since 2004, the coincidence in timing, combined with the broad range of policy initiatives and the fact that there is not a comparable improvement for people without a disability, is certainly suggestive of a link. The policy initiatives included the National Disability Strategy, launched in 2004, which sought to co-ordinate action across government departments and put in place a combination of equality legislation (Disability Act 2005; Education for Persons with Special Needs Act 2004), the introduction of a personal advocacy service (through the Citizen's Information Act 2007) and a multi-annual investment programme for disability support services.

Among the positive developments between 2004 and 2010 for people with a disability are the reductions in both work-related and service-related discrimination and in the seriousness of the impact of discrimination. Despite the recession that began in 2008, the overall labour market participation rate of people with a disability did not fall as much by 2010 as it did for people without a disability. In addition, although people with a disability experience higher levels of unemployment, their unemployment rate has not increased with the recession at a more rapid rate than the overall unemployment rate.

There are a number of areas in need of attention, however. First, in the area of disability policy, there is considerable room for improvement in the labour market participation rates among people with a disability. Participation rates remain much lower for people with a disability. Although the labour market participation gap between those with a disability and those without a disability is smaller for women than for men, the participation rate for women with a disability fell between 2004 and 2010 whereas the rate for men with a disability increased slightly. The 2006 NDS found that 24 per cent of people with a disability were at work. Of the remainder, 37 per cent would be interested in work if the circumstances were right – amounting to 28 per cent of people with a disability (Watson and Nolan, 2011). This suggests that a reasonable target for the labour market participation rate of people with a disability would be in the region of 50 per cent, compared with the rate of 36 per cent observed in the 2010 QNHS data.

In terms of actions to make it possible for people with a disability to work, we can do little more here than reiterate the NDS findings. The two most important facilitators

identified by people with a disability who are at work or who would be interested in work are flexible working hours and modified job tasks. While employers are the main actors in bringing this about, there is a need to provide general information on the importance of this kind of flexibility.

Since most disability is acquired during the life-course, rather than being present from birth or childhood, many people who are currently at work are likely to become limited in their activities as a result of illness or accident. In these cases, the task is to ensure that they are enabled to remain in their jobs insofar as this is possible. Again, flexibility in terms of working hours and modification of job tasks are important elements in ensuring that this occurs. Information and support both for people who become limited in their activities and for employers are likely to be important here.

The Government's 2012 *Pathways to Work* policy document also has implications for the labour market integration of people with a disability in the nature of the link between types of social welfare benefit, income disregards and eligibility for activation services. Traditionally, the Irish social welfare system has had a diverse range of benefits available to working-age adults based on the particular contingencies they face, such as unemployment, disability, caring, lone parenthood and widowhood. While the payment rates are quite similar, each scheme has its own set of rules regarding the assessment of means, tapering arrangements and earnings disregards (Department of Social Protection, 2010, p. 48). This social welfare system has been criticised as leading to people labelling themselves in terms of the contingency so that there is a reduced emphasis on activation and labour market integration (NESC, 2005; OECD, 2009 and 2011). The National Economic and Social Council has advocated a simpler approach involving a single payment for adults of working age (NESC, 2005). This would be combined with a requirement that the person avail of specific support services, depending on his or her needs, to promote a return to work or to education and training.

The 2011 single working-age assistance payment (SWAAP) review accepts many of these recommendations and proposes grouping welfare-dependent working-age adults into three tiers, based on differences in the barriers they face to employment or their 'distance from the labour market' (Department of Social Protection, 2010). A single payment scheme would be available but with different conditions related to the expectation of work-related activity. The tier with significant barriers to employment (level 3) might include people with long-term illness or disability/caring responsibilities or lone parents of very young children. This group would require the greatest level of support. At the other end of the continuum, those who are 'work ready' would include adults immediately available for work. This group would have minimal support needs. The intermediate group would consist of those who need a support plan to prepare for a return to work. The significance of this system is that supports are not directed towards those who are 'work ready' but towards those farther from the labour market. In addition, the review notes that not all interventions are about getting people back to work. Interventions also have a social dimension, promoting participation and inclusion and building confidence and motivation (Department of Social Protection, 2010, pp. 84–85). This approach to intervention is likely to be particularly relevant to people with a disability. It recognises the benefit of a broad approach to activation and inclusion that does not necessarily envisage an immediate or complete withdrawal of welfare benefits. *Pathways to Work* (Government of Ireland, 2012) outlines a comprehensive policy on labour market activation, linked to the introduction of the SWAAP over three years.

The simplification of the social welfare system is to be welcomed, particularly as it represents an end to the automatic assumption that people with a disability will not be expected to work and will not be provided with services to facilitate entry into employment. There are dangers to a 'one-size-fits-all' approach, however. Given

what we know about the higher costs associated with disability (see, for example, Cullinan, Gannon and Lyons, 2010), there may be a case for retaining higher earnings disregards for people with a disability. Moreover, given that people with a disability are more likely to experience health problems (Watson and Nolan, 2011), appropriate recognition should be given to the importance of the GMS medical card to this group. The fear of losing the medical card is likely to create a serious disincentive to work for people with a disability who have health problems.

While welcoming the challenge to the automatic assumption that people with a disability will be unable to work, it must be acknowledged that, for reasons of illness or low levels of stamina, some people with a disability will be severely limited in their capacity to work. This means that adequate income supports remain important for those unable to work or whose capacity to work is severely limited. Specific services for people with a disability, such as housing, transport, education, training and day centres, are also important to maximise the capacity of people with severe limitations to participate in society.

In terms of equality policy, there is more to be done in reducing both work-related and service-related discrimination. Discrimination rates remain significantly higher for people with a disability than they are for people without a disability. The findings of an association between service-related discrimination and both labour market participation and unemployment suggest that a reduction in service-related discrimination may bring benefits in terms of the labour market situation as well as the general quality of life of people with a disability.

There is considerable diversity within the broad group of people with a disability. There are differences in the rate of labour market participation by type of disability, with rates lower among people with physical or emotional/psychological disabilities than people with sensory, intellectual/learning or 'other' disabilities. There are differences as well in the experience of discrimination by type of disability. The findings of this report suggest that discrimination has a particular impact on specific groups. People with an intellectual/learning disability experience higher levels of work-related discrimination, and younger adults with a disability experience higher rates of both work-related and service-related discrimination. The finding of a higher risk of discrimination in Dublin than in other regions also suggests that there is need for a regional dimension to equality policy.

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APPENDIX A: TABLES

Table A1: Number of Cases for Each Type of Disability, 2004 and 2010

| Year | Variable | N cases |
|-------------|---|---------|
| 2004 | Blindness, deafness or a severe vision or hearing impairment | 114 |
| | A condition that substantially limits one or more basic physical activities such as walking, climbing stairs, reaching, lifting or carrying | 837 |
| | A learning or intellectual disability | 75 |
| | A psychological or emotional condition | 226 |
| | Other, including any chronic illness | 625 |
| 2010 | Blindness or a serious vision impairment | <50 |
| | Deafness or a serious hearing impairment | <50 |
| | A difficulty with basic physical activities such as walking, climbing stairs, reaching, lifting or carrying | 366 |
| | An intellectual disability | <50 |
| | A difficulty with learning, remembering or concentrating | <50 |
| | A psychological or emotional condition | 124 |
| | A difficulty with pain, breathing, or any other chronic illness or condition | 673 |

Table A2: Number of Cases for Each Analysis of People with a Disability, 2004 and 2010

| | | 2004 | 2010 |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| Type of Disability | Sensory | 114 | 74 |
| | Physical | 837 | 366 |
| | Intellectual/learning | 75 | 43 |
| | Emotional/psychological | 226 | 124 |
| | Other disability | 625 | 673 |
| Gender | Male | 721 | 469 |
| | Female | 1,015 | 620 |
| Age Group | Under 35 | 238 | 130 |
| | 35–44 | 337 | 221 |
| | 45–54 | 492 | 305 |
| | 55 and over | 669 | 433 |
| Economic Status | At work full time | 329 | 190 |
| | At work part time | 187 | 97 |
| | Unemployed | 40 | 73 |
| | Inactive | 1,180 | 729 |
| Discrimination Experience | Discrimination in any domain | 434 | 198 |
| | Work-related discrimination | 139 | 56 |
| | Service-related discrimination | 351 | 159 |
| Total | | 1,736 | 1,089 |

Table A3: Odds of Unemployment and of Being Outside the Labour Market (versus at work) by Disability Status (pooled 2004 and 2010)

| | Model A | | | | Model B | | | |
|--|------------|------|-----------|------|------------|------|-----------|------|
| | Unemployed | | Not in LM | | Unemployed | | Not in LM | |
| | Odds | Sig. | Odds | Sig. | Odds | Sig. | Odds | Sig. |
| Has disability vs. No disability | 1.25 | 0.05 | 5.62 | 0.00 | 1.43 | 0.04 | 5.66 | 0.00 |
| 2010 vs. 2004 | 3.80 | 0.00 | 1.17 | 0.00 | 3.85 | 0.00 | 1.17 | 0.00 |
| Female vs. Male | 0.62 | 0.00 | 4.26 | 0.00 | 0.62 | 0.00 | 4.26 | 0.00 |
| Age under 35 vs. 55+ | 1.36 | 0.00 | 0.25 | 0.00 | 1.36 | 0.00 | 0.25 | 0.00 |
| Age 35–44 vs. 55+ | 1.29 | 0.01 | 0.29 | 0.00 | 1.29 | 0.01 | 0.29 | 0.00 |
| Age 45–54 vs. 55+ | 1.16 | 0.11 | 0.30 | 0.00 | 1.16 | 0.11 | 0.30 | 0.00 |
| Single vs. Married | 1.20 | 0.03 | 0.60 | 0.00 | 1.20 | 0.03 | 0.60 | 0.00 |
| Widowed vs. Married | 0.71 | 0.14 | 0.84 | 0.06 | 0.71 | 0.14 | 0.84 | 0.06 |
| Separated vs. Married | 1.18 | 0.16 | 0.53 | 0.00 | 1.18 | 0.16 | 0.53 | 0.00 |
| Couple, no children vs. Couple with children | 0.80 | 0.01 | 0.64 | 0.00 | 0.80 | 0.01 | 0.64 | 0.00 |
| Lone parent vs. Couple with children | 1.25 | 0.03 | 1.19 | 0.01 | 1.25 | 0.03 | 1.19 | 0.01 |
| Non-family vs. Couple with children | 1.06 | 0.53 | 0.78 | 0.00 | 1.06 | 0.52 | 0.78 | 0.00 |
| Non-Irish vs. Irish | 1.30 | 0.00 | 1.25 | 0.00 | 1.30 | 0.00 | 1.25 | 0.00 |
| Black vs. White | 2.68 | 0.00 | 2.92 | 0.00 | 2.68 | 0.00 | 2.92 | 0.00 |
| Asian vs. White | 1.21 | 0.44 | 1.63 | 0.00 | 1.21 | 0.44 | 1.63 | 0.00 |
| Other ethnicity vs. White | 1.31 | 0.24 | 1.92 | 0.00 | 1.31 | 0.23 | 1.92 | 0.00 |
| Lower second level vs. Upper second level | 1.51 | 0.00 | 1.96 | 0.00 | 1.51 | 0.00 | 1.96 | 0.00 |
| Third level vs. Upper second level | 0.55 | 0.00 | 0.44 | 0.00 | 0.55 | 0.00 | 0.44 | 0.00 |
| Education missing | 0.73 | 0.05 | 0.92 | 0.42 | 0.73 | 0.05 | 0.92 | 0.42 |
| Local authority renter vs. Homeowner | 3.43 | 0.00 | 2.88 | 0.00 | 3.44 | 0.00 | 2.88 | 0.00 |
| Private renter vs. Homeowner | 1.87 | 0.00 | 1.71 | 0.00 | 1.87 | 0.00 | 1.71 | 0.00 |
| Rent free vs. Homeowner | 1.74 | 0.01 | 1.02 | 0.92 | 1.73 | 0.01 | 1.02 | 0.92 |
| BMW region vs. Dublin | 1.41 | 0.00 | 1.19 | 0.00 | 1.41 | 0.00 | 1.19 | 0.00 |
| South and East region vs. Dublin | 1.48 | 0.00 | 1.17 | 0.00 | 1.48 | 0.00 | 1.17 | 0.00 |
| Disability x 2010 | – | – | – | – | 0.80 | 0.32 | 0.98 | 0.84 |

Notes: Base = people of working age in 2004 and 2010 (multinomial logistic regression pooled model).
 – means variable not included in this equation. Nagelkerke pseudo R-squared is .335 for both Model A and Model B.

Table A4: Odds of Unemployment and of Being Outside the Labour Market (versus at work) by Type of Disability (pooled 2004 and 2010)

| | Model C | | | | Model D | | | |
|--|------------|------|-----------|------|------------|------|-----------|------|
| | Unemployed | | Not in LM | | Unemployed | | Not in LM | |
| | B | Sig. | B | Sig. | B | Sig. | B | Sig. |
| Sensory disability vs. None | 0.51 | 0.20 | 2.72 | 0.00 | 0.43 | 0.40 | 2.64 | 0.00 |
| Physical disability vs. None | 1.37 | 0.10 | 7.25 | 0.00 | 1.47 | 0.16 | 7.47 | 0.00 |
| Intellectual/learning disability vs. None | 1.03 | 0.95 | 3.59 | 0.00 | 1.34 | 0.63 | 2.81 | 0.00 |
| Emotional disability vs. None | 1.58 | 0.13 | 9.18 | 0.00 | 2.60 | 0.02 | 8.43 | 0.00 |
| Other disability vs. None | 1.31 | 0.06 | 3.35 | 0.00 | 1.48 | 0.13 | 3.22 | 0.00 |
| 2010 vs. 2004 | 3.80 | 0.00 | 1.17 | 0.00 | 3.87 | 0.00 | 1.16 | 0.00 |
| Female vs. Male | 0.62 | 0.00 | 4.31 | 0.00 | 0.62 | 0.00 | 4.31 | 0.00 |
| Age under 35 vs. 55+ | 1.36 | 0.00 | 0.25 | 0.00 | 1.36 | 0.00 | 0.25 | 0.00 |
| Age 35–44 vs. 55+ | 1.29 | 0.01 | 0.29 | 0.00 | 1.30 | 0.01 | 0.29 | 0.00 |
| Age 45–54 vs. 55+ | 1.17 | 0.10 | 0.30 | 0.00 | 1.17 | 0.10 | 0.30 | 0.00 |
| Single vs. Married | 1.20 | 0.03 | 0.59 | 0.00 | 1.20 | 0.03 | 0.59 | 0.00 |
| Widowed vs. Married | 0.71 | 0.15 | 0.83 | 0.06 | 0.71 | 0.15 | 0.83 | 0.06 |
| Separated vs. Married | 1.18 | 0.16 | 0.53 | 0.00 | 1.18 | 0.17 | 0.53 | 0.00 |
| Couple, no children vs. Couple with children | 0.80 | 0.01 | 0.63 | 0.00 | 0.80 | 0.01 | 0.63 | 0.00 |
| Lone parent vs. Couple with children | 1.25 | 0.03 | 1.19 | 0.01 | 1.24 | 0.04 | 1.19 | 0.01 |
| Non-family vs. Couple with children | 1.06 | 0.51 | 0.77 | 0.00 | 1.07 | 0.49 | 0.77 | 0.00 |
| Non-Irish vs. Irish | 1.31 | 0.00 | 1.25 | 0.00 | 1.30 | 0.00 | 1.25 | 0.00 |
| Black vs. White | 2.68 | 0.00 | 2.91 | 0.00 | 2.69 | 0.00 | 2.90 | 0.00 |
| Asian vs. White | 1.21 | 0.44 | 1.64 | 0.00 | 1.21 | 0.45 | 1.64 | 0.00 |
| Other ethnicity vs. White | 1.30 | 0.25 | 1.96 | 0.00 | 1.31 | 0.25 | 1.96 | 0.00 |
| Lower second level vs. Upper second level | 1.51 | 0.00 | 1.95 | 0.00 | 1.51 | 0.00 | 1.96 | 0.00 |
| Third level vs. Upper second level | 0.55 | 0.00 | 0.44 | 0.00 | 0.55 | 0.00 | 0.44 | 0.00 |
| Education missing | 0.73 | 0.05 | 0.92 | 0.39 | 0.73 | 0.05 | 0.92 | 0.40 |
| Local authority renter vs. homeowner | 3.42 | 0.00 | 2.87 | 0.00 | 3.43 | 0.00 | 2.87 | 0.00 |
| Private renter vs. homeowner | 1.87 | 0.00 | 1.69 | 0.00 | 1.87 | 0.00 | 1.69 | 0.00 |
| Rent free vs. homeowner | 1.74 | 0.01 | 1.04 | 0.83 | 1.73 | 0.01 | 1.04 | 0.81 |
| BMW region vs. Dublin | 1.41 | 0.00 | 1.17 | 0.00 | 1.41 | 0.00 | 1.17 | 0.00 |
| South & East vs. Dublin | 1.48 | 0.00 | 1.16 | 0.00 | 1.48 | 0.00 | 1.16 | 0.00 |
| Sensory x 2010 | – | – | – | – | 1.32 | 0.81 | 1.08 | 0.84 |
| Physical x 2010 | – | – | – | – | 0.85 | 0.66 | 0.87 | 0.46 |
| Intellectual x 2010 | – | – | – | – | 0.78 | 0.81 | 2.24 | 0.15 |
| Emotional x 2010 | – | – | – | – | 0.42 | 0.16 | 1.29 | 0.44 |
| Other x 2010 | – | – | – | – | 0.87 | 0.66 | 1.09 | 0.53 |

Notes: Base = people of working age in 2004 and 2010 (multinomial logistic regression pooled model). –means variable not included in this equation. Nagelkerke pseudo R-squared is .339 for both Model C and Model D.

Table A5: Odds of Being in a Professional Occupation by Presence of Disability and Other Characteristics (pooled 2004 and 2010)

| | Model E | |
|--|----------------|-------------|
| | Odds | Sig. |
| Disability vs. No disability | 0.85 | 0.26 |
| 2010 vs. 2004 | 0.79 | 0.00 |
| Disabled x 2010 interaction | 1.24 | 0.37 |
| Female vs. Male | 1.51 | 0.00 |
| Age under 35 vs. 55+ | 0.52 | 0.00 |
| Age 35–44 vs. 55+ | 0.71 | 0.00 |
| Age 45–54 vs. 55+ | 0.94 | 0.41 |
| Single vs. Married | 0.93 | 0.29 |
| Widowed vs. Married | 0.77 | 0.17 |
| Separated vs. Married | 0.78 | 0.03 |
| Couple, no children vs. Couple with children | 1.03 | 0.63 |
| Lone parent vs. Couple with children | 0.83 | 0.09 |
| Non-family vs. Couple with children | 1.08 | 0.35 |
| Non-Irish vs. Irish | 0.67 | 0.00 |
| Black vs. White | 0.51 | 0.04 |
| Asian vs. White | 2.32 | 0.00 |
| Other ethnicity vs. White | 1.28 | 0.25 |
| Lower second level vs. Upper second level | 0.30 | 0.00 |
| Third level vs. Upper second level | 14.19 | 0.00 |
| Education missing | 3.57 | 0.00 |
| Local authority renter vs. Homeowner | 0.56 | 0.00 |
| Private renter vs. Homeowner | 0.91 | 0.18 |
| Rent-free vs. Homeowner | 1.29 | 0.16 |
| BMW region vs. Dublin | 0.95 | 0.40 |
| South and East region vs. Dublin | 0.91 | 0.04 |

Notes: Base = people of working age and at work in 2004 and 2010 (logistic regression pooled model).
 –variable not included in this equation. Nagelkerke pseudo R-squared is .379.

Table A6: Odds of Being Outside the Labour Market and Odds of Unemployment (for those in the labour market) with Interaction Terms between Disability, Gender and Year (pooled 2004 and 2010)

| | Model F L.M. Non- Participation (N=32,166) | | Model G Unemployment (those in labour market; N=22,263) | |
|--|---|-------|---|-------|
| | Odds | Sig. | Odds | Sig. |
| Has disability vs. No disability | 16.81 | 0.000 | 1.71 | 0.036 |
| 2010 vs. 2004 | 1.49 | 0.000 | 4.93 | 0.000 |
| Female vs. Male | 6.65 | 0.000 | 0.80 | 0.020 |
| Has disability x Female interaction | 0.16 | 0.000 | 0.91 | 0.783 |
| 2010 x Female interaction | 0.63 | 0.000 | 0.63 | 0.000 |
| Has disability x 2010 interaction | 0.52 | 0.000 | 0.73 | 0.329 |
| Has disability x Female x 2010 | 2.34 | 0.000 | 1.23 | 0.643 |
| Age under 35 vs. 55+ | 0.24 | 0.000 | 1.42 | 0.000 |
| Age 35–44 vs. 55+ | 0.28 | 0.000 | 1.30 | 0.005 |
| Age 45–54 vs. 55+ | 0.29 | 0.000 | 1.20 | 0.059 |
| Single vs. Married | 0.58 | 0.000 | 1.27 | 0.006 |
| Widowed vs. Married | 0.86 | 0.109 | 0.65 | 0.072 |
| Separated vs. Married | 0.52 | 0.000 | 1.24 | 0.072 |
| Couple, no children vs. Couple with children | 0.64 | 0.000 | 0.79 | 0.004 |
| Lone parent vs. Couple with children | 1.19 | 0.008 | 1.27 | 0.024 |
| Non-family vs. Couple with children | 0.77 | 0.000 | 1.09 | 0.329 |
| Non-Irish vs. Irish | 1.23 | 0.001 | 1.17 | 0.099 |
| Black vs. White | 2.44 | 0.000 | 2.54 | 0.000 |
| Asian vs. White | 1.64 | 0.002 | 1.32 | 0.265 |
| Other ethnicity vs. White | 1.88 | 0.000 | 1.39 | 0.160 |
| Lower second level vs. Upper second level | 1.91 | 0.000 | 1.54 | 0.000 |
| Third level vs. Upper second level. | 0.47 | 0.000 | 0.55 | 0.000 |
| Education missing | 0.97 | 0.722 | 0.74 | 0.061 |
| Local authority renter vs. Homeowner | 2.33 | 0.000 | 3.61 | 0.000 |
| Private renter vs. Homeowner | 1.58 | 0.000 | 1.93 | 0.000 |
| Rent free vs. Homeowner | 0.93 | 0.644 | 1.71 | 0.012 |
| BMW region vs. Dublin | 1.16 | 0.000 | 1.44 | 0.000 |
| South and East region vs. Dublin | 1.13 | 0.001 | 1.47 | 0.000 |

Notes: Base for Model F = people of working age in 2004 and 2010 (pooled model, N=32,166; Nagelkerke pseudo R-squared is .366). Base for Model G = people of working age in the labour market (pooled model; N=22,263; Nagelkerke pseudo R-squared is .168).

Table A7: Odds of Work-Related and Service-Related Discrimination for Working-Age People with Disability, 2004 and 2010 (pooled logistic regression models)

| | | A. Work-Related (N=1478) | | B. Service-Related (N=2879) | |
|--------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|--------------------------------|-------|
| | | Odds | Sig. | Odds | Sig. |
| Year | 2010 vs. 2004 | 0.53 | 0.001 | 0.64 | 0.000 |
| Type of Disability | Sensory vs. Physical disability | 1.68 | 0.095 | 1.29 | 0.191 |
| | Intellectual vs. Physical disability | 2.36 | 0.015 | 0.69 | 0.172 |
| | Emotional vs. Physical disability | 1.31 | 0.277 | 1.03 | 0.839 |
| | Other vs. Physical disability | 0.93 | 0.722 | 0.86 | 0.198 |
| Gender | Female vs. Male | 1.04 | 0.847 | 0.99 | 0.922 |
| Age | Age 15–24 vs. 55+ | 1.83 | 0.277 | 1.97 | 0.047 |
| | Age 25–44 vs. 55+ | 2.01 | 0.005 | 1.94 | 0.000 |
| | Age 45–54 vs. 55+ | 1.42 | 0.165 | 1.46 | 0.006 |
| Marital Status | Single vs. Married | 0.54 | 0.072 | 1.13 | 0.547 |
| | Widowed vs. Married | 0.19 | 0.038 | 1.09 | 0.790 |
| | Separated vs. Married | 0.86 | 0.703 | 1.45 | 0.100 |
| Family Status | Couple vs. Couple + children | 1.29 | 0.332 | 0.91 | 0.556 |
| | Lone parent vs. Couple + children | 2.87 | 0.004 | 1.00 | 0.982 |
| | Non-family vs. Couple + children | 1.70 | 0.139 | 0.85 | 0.431 |
| Religion | Church of Ireland vs. RC | 1.63 | 0.412 | 1.08 | 0.864 |
| | Other Christian vs. RC | 1.46 | 0.381 | 1.35 | 0.319 |
| | Other religion vs. RC | 1.86 | 0.238 | 2.37 | 0.005 |
| | No religion vs. RC | 1.63 | 0.126 | 1.71 | 0.012 |
| Nationality | Non-Irish vs. Irish | 0.80 | 0.612 | 0.97 | 0.911 |
| Race/Ethnicity | Non-White vs. White | 0.39 | 0.273 | 0.72 | 0.521 |
| Education | < 2nd level vs. Upper 2nd level | 0.66 | 0.044 | 0.93 | 0.586 |
| | 3rd level vs. Upper 2nd level | 0.90 | 0.660 | 1.19 | 0.274 |
| | Education missing | 0.87 | 0.816 | 0.97 | 0.939 |
| Economic Status | Employed PT vs. Employed FT | 1.37 | 0.276 | 0.86 | 0.467 |
| | Unemployed vs. Employed FT | 2.48 | 0.063 | 1.50 | 0.128 |
| | Inactive vs. employed FT | 0.94 | 0.895 | 1.26 | 0.111 |
| Housing Tenure | Local auth. renter vs. homeowner | 0.97 | 0.913 | 1.12 | 0.439 |
| | Private renter vs. homeowner | 1.42 | 0.214 | 2.06 | 0.000 |
| | Rent free vs. homeowner | 1.86 | 0.591 | 0.62 | 0.448 |
| Region | BMW region vs. Dublin | 0.63 | 0.042 | 0.95 | 0.705 |
| | South and East region vs. Dublin | 0.54 | 0.002 | 0.73 | 0.013 |
| Sector | Construction vs. Manufacturing | 0.46 | 0.276 | – | – |
| | Retail vs. Manufacturing | 0.25 | 0.009 | – | – |
| | Hotel etc. vs. Manufacturing | 0.61 | 0.426 | – | – |
| | Transport vs. Manufacturing | 0.27 | 0.104 | – | – |
| | Finance vs. Manufacturing | 0.57 | 0.255 | – | – |
| | Education vs. Manufacturing | 0.95 | 0.918 | – | – |
| | Health vs. Manufacturing | 0.34 | 0.030 | – | – |
| | Public Admin. vs. Manufacturing | 0.48 | 0.235 | – | – |
| | Other Services vs. Manufacturing | 0.58 | 0.345 | – | – |
| | Nace missing | 1.20 | 0.890 | – | – |
| Occupation | Professional vs. Managerial | 0.78 | 0.645 | – | – |
| | Technical vs. Managerial | 1.04 | 0.946 | – | – |
| | Craft vs. Managerial | 0.56 | 0.401 | – | – |
| | Clerical vs. Managerial | 1.38 | 0.520 | – | – |
| | Service/sales vs. Managerial | 1.48 | 0.440 | – | – |
| | Semi-skilled vs. Managerial | 1.18 | 0.775 | – | – |
| | Unskilled vs. Managerial | 0.82 | 0.726 | – | – |
| | ISCO missing | 0.69 | 0.751 | – | – |
| Employment Status | Self-employed vs. Employee | 0.46 | 0.124 | – | – |
| | Scheme vs. Employee | 0.69 | 0.452 | – | – |

Notes: Base = people with a disability exposed to work-related discrimination (Model A) or service-related discrimination (Model B). Only significant odds ratios shown. – means variable not included in this equation.

Table A8: Odds of Unemployment and of Being Outside the Labour Market (versus at work) from Multinomial Logistic Regression Model for Labour Market Situation (pooled model for 2004 and 2010)

| | Model 1 | | Model 2 | | Model 3 | |
|--|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| | U/E | Inact. | U/E | Inact. | U/E | Inact. |
| Has disability vs. No disability | 1.53 | 16.65** | 1.57 | 16.57** | 1.48 | 16.64** |
| 2010 vs. 2004 | 4.87** | 1.80** | 4.87** | 1.81** | 4.86** | 1.81** |
| Female vs. Male | 0.82* | 6.60** | 0.82* | 6.62** | 0.82* | 6.61** |
| Has disability x Female interaction | 0.99 | 0.16** | 0.98 | 0.16** | 0.99 | 0.16** |
| 2010 x Female interaction | 0.62** | 0.57** | 0.61** | 0.57** | 0.61** | 0.57** |
| Has disability x 2010 interaction | 0.70 | 0.54** | 0.69 | 0.53** | 0.72 | 0.52** |
| Has disability x Female x 2010 | 1.30 | 2.43** | 1.31 | 2.47** | 1.25 | 2.52** |
| Service-related discrimination | 1.35** | 1.51** | – | – | – | – |
| Service-related discrimination x Disability | 1.06 | 0.92 | – | – | – | – |
| Discrimination in Shops etc. | – | – | 1.54** | 1.37** | 1.53** | 1.31* |
| Discrimination in Banks etc. | – | – | 0.94 | 0.91 | 0.83 | 0.93 |
| Discrimination in Education | – | – | 2.08** | 1.89** | 1.96* | 2.11** |
| Discrimination in Housing | – | – | 1.26 | 2.20** | 1.36 | 2.02** |
| Discrimination in Health | – | – | 0.96 | 1.49** | 1.08 | 1.56** |
| Discrimination in Transport | – | – | 1.11 | 1.29 | 1.14 | 1.29 |
| Discrimination in Public services | – | – | 1.94** | 1.70** | 1.88** | 1.80** |
| Discrimination in Shops x Disability | – | – | – | – | 1.04 | 1.30 |
| Discrimination in Banks etc. x Disability | – | – | – | – | 2.26* | 0.93 |
| Discrimination in Education x Disability | – | – | – | – | 1.64 | 0.41 |
| Discrimination in Housing x Disability | – | – | – | – | 0.30 | 1.80 |
| Discrimination in Health x Disability | – | – | – | – | 0.53 | 0.82 |
| Discrimination in Transport x Disability | – | – | – | – | 0.66 | 1.05 |
| Discrimination in Public services x Disability | – | – | – | – | 1.35 | 0.76 |
| Age under 35 vs. 55+ | 1.32** | 0.25** | 1.32** | 0.24** | 1.32** | 0.25** |
| Age 35–44 vs. 55+ | 1.25* | 0.28** | 1.25* | 0.28** | 1.25* | 0.28** |
| Age 45–54 vs. 55+ | 1.14 | 0.29** | 1.14 | 0.29** | 1.14 | 0.29** |
| Single vs. Married | 1.20* | 0.60** | 1.20* | 0.59** | 1.20* | 0.59** |
| Widowed vs. Married | 0.69 | 0.83 | 0.69 | 0.83 | 0.69 | 0.83 |
| Separated vs. Married | 1.15 | 0.52** | 1.16 | 0.52** | 1.16 | 0.52** |
| Couple, no child vs. Couple with children | 0.80** | 0.63** | 0.80** | 0.63** | 0.80** | 0.63** |
| Lone parent vs. Couple with children | 1.25* | 1.19** | 1.24* | 1.19** | 1.24* | 1.19** |
| Non-family vs. Couple with children | 1.07 | 0.77** | 1.07 | 0.78** | 1.07 | 0.78** |
| Non-Irish vs. Irish | 1.30** | 1.25** | 1.28** | 1.26** | 1.28** | 1.26** |
| Black vs. White | 2.55** | 2.64** | 2.40** | 2.47** | 2.41** | 2.49** |
| Asian vs. White | 1.15 | 1.63** | 1.22 | 1.61** | 1.21 | 1.61** |
| Other ethnicity vs. White | 1.29 | 1.89** | 1.26 | 1.88** | 1.26 | 1.88** |
| Lwr second level vs. Upper second level | 1.52** | 1.98** | 1.52** | 1.97** | 1.51** | 1.97** |
| Third level vs. Upper second level | 0.55** | 0.44** | 0.55** | 0.44** | 0.55** | 0.44** |
| Education missing | 0.72* | 0.92 | 0.73 | 0.93 | 0.72* | 0.93 |
| Local authority renter vs. Homeowner | 3.46** | 2.84** | 3.45** | 2.80** | 3.46** | 2.79** |
| Private renter vs. Homeowner | 1.85** | 1.66** | 1.85** | 1.62** | 1.85** | 1.61** |
| Rent free vs. Homeowner | 1.70* | 0.97 | 1.67* | 0.95 | 1.66* | 0.95 |
| BMW region vs. Dublin | 1.42** | 1.20** | 1.43** | 1.20** | 1.43** | 1.20** |
| South and East region vs. Dublin | 1.49** | 1.18** | 1.50** | 1.19** | 1.50** | 1.18** |

Notes: U/E means unemployed (versus at work); Inact. means not in labour market (versus at work). Base = people of working age in 2004 and 2010 (pooled model). Only significant odds ratios shown. – means variable not included in this equation; * p<=.05; ** p<=.01. Nagelkerke pseudo R-squared is .346 for Model 1 and .348 for both Model 2 and Model 3.

APPENDIX B: TYPES OF DISABILITY FROM THE NATIONAL DISABILITY SURVEY

For comparison of the prevalence of detailed types of disability, Table A9 shows the prevalence of each of nine different types of disability in the National Disability Survey (NDS) in 2006. The measurement of disability in the NDS is somewhat different, and is discussed more fully elsewhere (see CSO, 2008; Watson and Nolan, 2011). There are three main differences from the QNHS measure: the NDS measurement is more detailed, it takes place as part of a dedicated face-to-face survey on disability and (apart from emotional/psychological and intellectual/learning disability) there is a threshold for severity of the effect of the disability on the person.

Table A9: Prevalence of Disability among Adults Aged 18–64 (NDS 2006)

| Type of Disability | Number (1,000s) | % of persons |
|--|-----------------|--------------|
| Seeing | 21.3 | 0.8 |
| Hearing | 22.9 | 0.8 |
| Speech | 15.7 | 0.6 |
| Mobility and dexterity | 84.5 | 3.1 |
| Remembering and concentrating | 54.7 | 2.0 |
| Intellectual and learning | 37.8 | 1.4 |
| Emotional, psychological and mental health | 74.7 | 2.7 |
| Pain | 87.8 | 3.2 |
| Breathing | 35.8 | 1.3 |
| Total persons with a disability | 172.6 | 6.3 |

Source: National Disability Survey (CSO, 2008, Table 1B for adults aged 18–64).

The context of the NDS and the more detailed questioning is likely to have elicited fuller information from the respondents, so that conditions that may not be seen as fitting into a type of disability in a general survey such as the QNHS are less likely to be omitted. For instance, the introduction to the section on intellectual and learning disability in the NDS notes the range of conditions to be included: acquired brain injury, Down Syndrome, brain damage at birth, difficulty with interpersonal skills due to any condition such as autistic spectrum disorders and difficulty in learning everyday skills such as reading, writing, using simple tools, learning the rules of a game due to a condition such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) or dyslexia. Thus, this is a broad category, and combines two very different groups – those with an intellectual disability (usually diagnosed at birth or during early childhood) and those with learning difficulties such as dyslexia and ADHD. The measurement of psychological/emotional disability in the NDS explicitly mentioned a number of detailed categories, including depressive illnesses, anxiety or panic disorders, schizophrenia, alcohol or drug addictions, and eating disorders such as anorexia or bulimia. These more detailed questions may have contributed to a higher reporting of emotional/psychological and intellectual/learning disability in the NDS than in the QNHS.

The NDS reports a prevalence of 1.4 per cent for intellectual/learning disability and 2 per cent for remembering and concentrating, compared with 0.3 per cent in the 2010 QNHS for both these categories combined. The NDS reports a prevalence of 2.7 per cent for emotional, psychological and mental health disability compared with 0.9 per cent in the 2010 QNHS. It is likely, then, that when these types of disability are

reported in the QNHS, they refer to disabilities that are associated with a greater level of limitation in everyday activities.

On the other hand, for all types of disability except emotional/psychological and learning/intellectual disability, people who are affected 'just a little' are not considered to be a person with a disability according to the NDS definition. This threshold may have contributed to a lower overall percentage of people of working age reporting a disability in the NDS than in the QNHS (6.3 per cent, compared with 8.3 per cent in QNHS 2004 and 7.6 per cent in QNHS 2010).

The Equality Authority

Birchgrove House
Roscrea
Co. Tipperary
Phone: (0505) 24126
Fax: (0505) 22388

2 Clonmel Street
Dublin 2
Phone: (01) 417 3336
Fax: (01) 417 3331

Public Information Centre
Lo Call: 1890 245 545
Email: info@equality.ie

www.equality.ie

The Economic and Social Research Institute

Whitaker Square
Sir John Rogerson's Quay
Dublin 2

www.esri.ie